INFORMATION TO USERS

ELEMENTARY TEACHERS' REFLECTIONS ON MAJOR INFLUENCES
IMPACTING THEIR DECISIONS IN READING AND
LANGUAGE ARTS INSTRUCTION DURING
THEIR FIRST TWO YEARS
·OF TEACHING

by

Johnnie Conner Hamrick

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of The Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

Greensboro
1995

Approved by
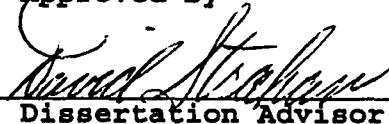
Dissertation Advisor

UMI Number: 9618159

Copyright 1995 by
Hamrick, Johnnie Conner

HAMRICK, JOHNNIE CONNER, Ed.D.   Elementary Teachers'
Reflections on Major Influences Impacting Their Decisions in
Reading and Language Arts Instruction During Their First Two
Years of Teaching.   (1995)   Directed by Dr. David B.
Strahan.   240 pp.

A case study methodology revealed ways that four

elementary teachers, who were graduates of the same teacher

education program and employed in the same school system in

which they had studied as elementary and high school

students, negotiated their reading and language arts

instructional decisions during their first two years of

teaching. The investigation explored orientations toward

the teaching of reading and factors they determined as those

impacting their instruction. Information was synthesized

from the following sources: (a) participants' biographical

data, (b) inventories and surveys, (c) investigator's

observations of participants' teaching and subsequent field

notes, (d) structured and unstructured interviews, (e)

reflective webs, and (f) reflective journals and lesson

plans.

Strahan's (1990) Model for Analyzing Reflections on

Instruction provided the vehicle for analyzing the implicit

and explicit levels of reflections of the participants.

Major influences reported as impacting instruction,

especially during the first year of teaching, were the

biography or life experiences of the participants, teacher

education courses, student teaching experiences, observed

practices of cooperating teachers, and public school colleagues.

Based on learning-to-teach and professional development literature, results indicated two of the participants' held "technical" orientations toward reading and language arts instruction while the other two held "reflective" orientations. Technical was defined as following directions using the prescriptions of someone else and content and product-oriented. Reflective teaching was defined as examining beliefs through questioning, inquiring, and evaluating, learning through experiences, and student and process-oriented.

Conclusions suggested that teachers' beliefs were important to understanding reading and language arts instruction and that opportunities to reflect on beliefs during the first year of teaching were beneficial. Implications for teacher education programs include suggestions for examining preservice teachers' preexisting beliefs; encouraging and nurturing reflective student teaching experiences; following up with consistent support from university teacher education staff during the first year of actual classroom teaching, and collaborating and forming linkages with the public school system.

APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of The Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Dissertation Advisor _____
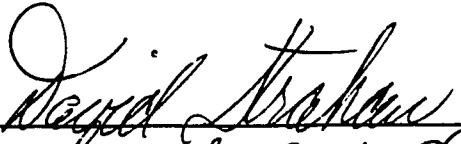
Committee Members _____

_____

_____

_____
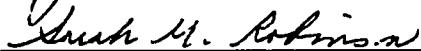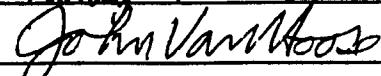
October 27, 1995
Date of Acceptance by Committee

October 27, 1995
Date of Final Oral Examination

ii

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are a number of people to whom I owe special thanks for their help in the completion of this dissertation. Each of them inspired and encouraged me in ways for which I will be forever grateful.

I am deeply appreciative for the patience and support shown to me by my advisor and chairperson of my dissertation committee, Dr. David B. Strahan. I am thankful that he never gave up on me! He accepted me as his advisee when I first came to UNCG as a graduate student and since that time has willingly helped me by sharing his wisdom, providing support, and offering suggestions throughout courses and the dissertation. I have appreciated his understanding of special circumstances and will remain indebted to him for his continued encouragement.

I also acknowledge with gratitude the other members of my committee, Dr. Nancy Vacc, Dr. John Van Hoose, Dr. Sallie Robinson, and Dr. Sam Miller. I studied under each of these in my doctoral work and my life is richer for having known them.

For the four teachers in this study, who were once my students in teacher education, I am both appreciative and proud. Pam, Kerrie, Vickie, and Ann warmly welcomed me into their classrooms over a two year period and shared their innermost feelings about teaching. I have had the special opportunity of watching them grow and develop and I am pleased to be linked with their preparation in this wonderful and challenging profession of teaching.

Loving thanks are due to my husband, Jim Hamrick, for his unfailing confidence and support throughout my graduate studies. His love, patience, supplies of "chocolate" and help at home sustained me. And to my mother, Louise Conner, thanks for your love and worrying about me!

Special thanks to my children, Tammy and Rodney, and their spouses, Robert and Rhonda, for their understanding and "cheering me on!" They only asked at least one million times, "Will you ever be finished?"

To Dr. Ralph D. Schoolcraft, my mentor and friend, I can never say enough thank-you's. He believed in me when I did not believe in myself and was the one who encouraged me initially to begin graduate work. His friendship throughout the years has been invaluable.

iii

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

Page

FIGURE

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Teachers come to know in different ways. There has been considerable debate in the literature as to what most directly impacts beginning teachers' beliefs and practices pertaining to their classroom instruction (Brodbelt & Wall, 1985; Copeland, 1979; Costa & Garmston, 1987; Funk, 1982; Kagan, 1993; Livingston & Borko, 1989; Lortie, 1975; McAulay, 1960; Oberg, 1986; Seperson & Joyce, 1973; Zeichner, 1980; Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981). Questions have been raised about the purpose and quality of teacher education programs and how teachers negotiate the complex factors that are involved in learning to teach. The debate has continued in the latest wave of educational reform. Some researchers have argued for teacher education programs which provide a reflective and analytical focus versus a "sitting by Nellie" (Schnur & Gobly, 1995, p.15) approach in which the underlying belief is that teaching is simply a vocation and as such, on-site apprenticeship is all that is necessary for training; that exposure to the real workplace and close proximity to teachers produces good teachers. Schnur and Gobly stated that learning to teach through "sitting by Nellie"

limits one to learning only what Nellie knows and only
within the context of her teaching environment. It is
a status quo approach at best and an immediately
obsolete approach at worst. (p. 16)

A number of researchers have focused on the cognitive

processes that occur as teachers develop and practice their

instructional skills (Calderhead, 1988; Hamrick & Strahan,

1988; Kagan, 1992; Oberg, 1986; Smith, 1992; Strahan, 1990;

Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984; Zeichner, 1980). The term

"teacher perspectives" was used by Tabachnick and Zeichner

(1984) to describe the personal beliefs that affect

teachers' thinking and decision-making. Teacher

perspectives were defined as

the ways in which teachers think about their work (e.g.
purposes, goals, conceptions of children, curriculum)
and the ways in which they give meaning to these
beliefs by their behavior in the classrooms. (p. 28)

These perspectives not only included beliefs and attitudes

about teaching, but reflected dispositions toward action and

assumptions about specific situations, as well.

Strahan (1989, 1990, 1991), in his research using case

studies, described some of the ways that "instructional

decisions are shaped by teachers' implicit orientations

toward themselves, their students, and their subject matter"

(1991, p. 4). The term "orientations" was used to describe

what teachers know that enables them to teach successfully

and acquire and extend their knowledge. He suggested that

these orientations began to form while teachers are students and that they grow clearer during preservice teacher education.

Likewise, Gebhard (1993), Kagan (1992), and Oberg (1986) indicated that the responsibility of teacher education programs was to empower teachers to know how to make informed teaching decisions. Gebhard suggested that teachers, at the end of their internships, be given ample opportunities and chances to process and reflect on their teaching so that they are better able to systematically consider their teaching beliefs and behaviors. In addition to teaching, Gebhard suggested various other means to assist teachers in becoming reflective, informed decision-makers. Some of these ways were journal writing, talking with other teachers about their beliefs and practices, systematically observing other teachers (and themselves via video), carrying out action research projects, and collaborating with supervisors over how to describe, analyze, and interpret teaching episodes.
Both Kagan's research on teacher professional development and Oberg's ideas on construct theory gave further credence to the importance of teachers critically reflecting on their professional actions and beliefs and the image of self as teacher.

Pertaining more specifically to reading instruction, Vacca, Vacca, & Gove (1995) likened teachers' acquisition of

knowledge and belief systems to Piaget's theory of
constructivism. In this theory Piaget proposed that
children do not internalize knowledge directly from the
outside but construct it from inside their heads. Teachers
acquire professional knowledge about reading and learning to
read by "building it from the inside" as they interact with
people, processes, ideas, and things and engage in a process
of seeking and making meaning from personal, practical, and
professional experiences (Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1995). They
contended that teachers' beliefs about reading and learning
to read may be affected by

> peer pressure, the beliefs of colleagues and
> administrators, school board policies, curriculum
> guidelines, the publishing and testing industry, public
> opinion, and state (and eventually national) standards
> for teaching. (p. 11)

They further suggested that

> one important way to define who we are as teachers of
> reading is by talking about what we do and why we do it
> or by observing one another in a teaching situation and
> asking why we did what we did. (p. 39)

Teacher educators seldom get direct feedback from their
students as to the relevance or the value of the instruction
they received as preservice teachers (Daves, Morton, &
Grace, 1990). Preservice teachers sometimes find
incongruities between what was taught in education courses
and what they observed in the field. However, these

incongruities may help preservice teachers reflect more deeply about their own understandings, beliefs, and practices (Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1995).

In the world of teaching, helping children's literacy growth and development is a challenging and complex opportunity and responsibility. Unfortunately, there are between 23 million and 90 million Americans who are considered functionally illiterate (Bragg, 1989; Donner, 1989; Gray, 1993; Jacobsen, 1993; McCuen, 1988). It has been reported (Feder-Feitel, 1991; Kreyche, 1988) that between 20 and 27 million Americans cannot read or write above the fourth-grade level. It is generally accepted that (a) the teacher plays a major role in determining the effectiveness of a literacy program (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 1994); (b) students learn what teachers emphasize (Duffy & Roehler, 1986; Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 1994); and (c) teachers' behaviors produce different reading strategies in young children (Mitchell, 1980). Therefore, it is important for teachers, who are being held accountable as no other time in history, to reflect upon their reading and language arts instruction and attempt to analyze underlying structures in order to understand what they are doing and the basis for their decisions and actions. Likewise, according to Shulman (1987), teacher education programs cannot be expected to be considered effective until they work with the beliefs that guide teacher actions and examine

the principles underlying decisions teachers make.

Reading is a complex process that is affected by many factors, and reading instruction reflects that complexity. One of the most important factors in elementary teacher preparation is developing an understanding of the reading process and establishing a framework for reading instruction (Wiseman, 1992). However, beginning teachers who are recent graduates of teacher education programs that stressed a particular ideology or who are employees of school systems with generally conventional and traditional practices, may feel somewhat like the following quote from <u>Alice in Wonderland</u>: "Cheshire Puss... would you tell me please, which way I ought to go from here?" (Carroll, 1984, p. 66). Beginning teachers have many influences which affect their beliefs and practices regarding reading and language arts instruction. However, research has suggested that teachers' decisions and behaviors are guided by a belief system or conceptual base and that they operate with at least an implicit model of reading (Duffy & Anderson, 1982). Yet, teachers' practices may not necessarily be based on what they believe as supported by the following quote (Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1991):

> In the pressured world of teaching it's easy to lose sight of what you believe about children, reading, and how children learn to read....Inquiry into what you do and why you do it is one of the best tools you have for understanding teaching and improving instruction. (p. 3)

Berger and Buckman (cited in Rosenholtz, 1989) proposed that

> people come to define their work through their workday
> realities through a set of shared assumptions about
> appropriate attitudes and behaviors constructed within
> them and that meanings of work are exchanged,
> negotiated, and modified through the communications
> people have with, or the observations they make of
> others....teachers learn through everyday
> interactions...how they are expected to behave....(p.
> 3)

This study provided insight into teachers' reflections

of their first and second years of teaching as it pertained

to reading and language arts instruction. This analysis

revealed beginning teachers' theoretical orientations to

reading, influences impacting their beliefs and their

decision-making process, as described by the teachers, and

their actual instruction in the classroom.

Knowing that teachers encounter a number of

constraints, some of which are perceived and other which

truly exist, it was important to gain insight into how

beginning teachers perceived their world and responded to

it. Baker (1984) stated:

> In order to have an influence on practitioners, we must
> study what is useful to them and to their work...
> studying phenomena in the schools themselves, rather
> than in laboratories. Such research need not have
> implications only for practice; it can also provide a
> rich source of information for generating new ideas,
> hypotheses, and even theories. (p. 455)

Statement Of The Problem

John Goodlad (1990) sought to gain impressions about

what ...was going on in the minds of students as they
transcended their student status in identifying with
the demands and expectations of teaching...to discover
what patterns of values, beliefs, and educational
principles appeared to be emerging to guide them as
teachers...to know how these values, beliefs, and
principles evolved. (p. 212)

Other researchers have also focused on preservice teachers'
perspectives and orientations toward teaching (Hamrick &
Strahan, 1988; Smith, 1992; Spooner, 1991; Strahan, 1990,
1991) and toward the development of reflective practices and
decision-making (Bolster, 1983; Dewey, 1933; Duffy, Roehler
& Putnam, 1987; Meyerson, 1993; Oberg, 1986; Schon, 1983;
Shulman, 1984, 1987).   Teachers' beliefs (Lortie, 1975;
Munby, 1984; Nespor & Barylske, 1991) and teachers'
instructional planning decisions (Borko, Shavelson, & Stern,
1981) have also been studied.

     However, a search of the literature has revealed that
there are a limited number of studies in the area of reading
and language arts that connect preservice teachers'
perspectives with instructional decisions made during their
first year of teaching, and how they reflect upon those
decisions and subsequently make changes during their second
year of teaching. In an attempt to address this void in the
literature, this investigation focused on first-year
teachers' (a) reflections regarding beliefs, instructional
decisions and influences impacting their teaching in reading
and language arts, and (b) changes for the following school

year based on their reflections. The uniqueness of this study lies in that all of these teachers were graduates of the same preservice training, were local participants having grown up and attended elementary and high school in the same Local Education Agency (LEA) in which they were now all teaching, was a "picture album" of their reflections and teaching over a two year period at the beginning of their professional career.

Purpose of the Study

Oberg (1986) suggested that one approach to the improvement of practice was for professionals to reflect critically on their professional actions and beliefs. Such scrutiny, Oberg continued, would enable practitioners to theorize their practices, to revise their theories in light of practice, and to transform their practice into informed, committed action. This investigation examined the orientations of a select group of elementary teachers toward the teaching of reading and language arts, their beliefs, and major influences impacting their instructional decisions. The case study approach used in this research revealed the influence of these teachers' past schooling experiences, preservice education training, the context of their particular school system, and their own personal beliefs regarding their teaching practices and choice and use of materials.

Further, analysis and reflective thinking by these teachers over two years of teaching allowed them to examine and clarify their beliefs about reading and language arts instruction and their practices. Hence, they believed their teaching to be improved by ultimately answering the question, "Why do I teach reading and language arts the way I do and what do I need to change?"

This qualitative study provided insight into beginning teachers' tacit beliefs leading to their instructional decisions and disclosed connections among teachers' long-held beliefs about teaching (their biography), their preservice training, and the world of actual practice. Patrick Shannon (1995) stated, and this investigator agrees, that the best avenue for informing the public of what is taking place in classrooms may be the avenue that is seldom taken: ..."that is the one that allows teachers to tell their own stories about their teaching and schooling to the public at large" (p. 465).

Research Questions

These beginning teachers were all graduates of the same university and were all employed in the same LEA. They were teachers who had studied in this same LEA as elementary and high school students. This LEA purported to hold views regarding the teaching of reading and language arts similar to those of the graduates' teacher education program (i.e.,

a literature-enriched program). According to these teachers, their principals and other support personnel, the teachers were given considerable freedom in their decision-making that pertained to their instruction in reading and language arts. The following research questions formed the organizational framework for this study:

1. As they finish their first year of teaching, how do teachers describe their instructional decisions in the area of reading and language arts?

2. What do teachers identify as connections among their beliefs about reading and language arts instruction and their instructional decisions?

3. How do teachers define and describe major influences impacting their instructional decisions in the area of reading and language arts?

4. Following a guided period of reflection, what do teachers do differently in their second year of teaching in the area of reading and language arts, and why? (Reflection-on-action, Schon, 1987)

5. In their second year of teaching, how do teachers describe their instructional decisions in the area of reading and language arts?

Significance of the Study

Human beings are engaged in all kinds of efforts to make the world a better place, including educating students. Qualitative methods of study permit the evaluator or investigator to study selected issues in depth and detail, offering explanations of _why_ things occur as they do (Patton, 1990). Preparing teachers to teach reading and language arts in a meaningful, thoughtful way to produce independent readers who will understand and enjoy reading is

a major task of teacher education. In the practical, pressured world of teaching, especially for beginning teachers, Duffy and Roehler (1986) asserted that it is sometimes easier to "teach like technicians" rather than to make decisions based on professional knowledge.

In order to design effective programs, teacher educators must understand how teacher beliefs about reading influence the way teachers work with children. Teachers' beliefs about reading and learning to read and their information sources for decision-making may be affected by many factors, including individual characteristics of teachers (knowledge base, personal style, belief systems), contextual factors of the school, external expectations, mandates (curriculum guide, testing programs, state and district requirements), and information about students (Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1991).

It is important to explore how teachers actually make decisions about reading and language arts instruction using their reflection, experience, knowledge, and practice. There are many approaches to teaching reading. It is important for teachers to reflect upon their own belief systems and to understand how beliefs are connected to models, approaches, and to instructional strategies. Harste and Burke (1977) contended that

> a teacher's theoretical orientation or belief system
> influences decisions involving, among other things:

(1) the instructional goals the teacher emphasizes for the classroom reading program; (2) the materials the teacher selects and uses for instruction; (3) the environment the teacher perceives as most conducive to reading growth; (4) the behaviors the teacher perceives as reflecting good reading behavior; (5) the practices, approaches, and strategies the teacher uses to teach reading. (p. 32)

According to Vacca, Vacca, & Gove (1991), when a teacher is theoretically consistent, there is a congruency between what he or she does and why. While findings from this study may not be generalizable per se, the potential for future study can be far-reaching. This qualitative study may be beneficial to preservice teachers, cooperating teachers, teacher educators, beginning practitioners, and administrators as it will provide insight into the mental processing underlying instructional behavior in the area of reading and language arts.

Definition of Terms

Beliefs: Mental acceptance that certain things are true or real even though certainty may be absent; a statement of affairs or the basis on which one is willing to act (Webster's New World Dictionary, 1978).

Bottom-Up Models of Reading: These models assume that the process of translating print to meaning begins with the print. The process is initiated by decoding graphic symbols into sounds. Therefore, the reader identifies features of letters; links these features together to recognize letters;

combines letters to recognize spelling patterns; links spelling patterns to recognize words; and then proceeds to sentence, paragraph, and text level processing (Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1995, p. 31).

Decision-making: Teachers' ability to control their work, to a great extent, and make critical judgments about what procedures and materials are most suitable for specific situations (Lortie, 1975).

Frames of Reference: From the teacher's point of view, clusters of concepts that relate to each other, provide organizers for principles, serve as filters that screen perceptions and lenses that focus decisions (Strahan, 1990).

Interactive Models of Reading: These are models of reading that assume that the process of translating print to meaning involves making use of both prior knowledge and print. The process is initiated by making predictions about meaning and/or decoding graphic symbols (Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1995, p. 31.)

Literature-Enriched Reading and Language Arts Program: For the purpose of this study, "literature-enriched" refers to a reading and language arts program which extensively uses children's literature in combination with writing and oral language activities; a program that does not isolate skills and does not depend solely on a basal approach.

Negotiate: How beginning teachers accommodate (adjust, adapt, reconcile, settle, compromise) conflicting demands or influences and resolve dilemmas inherent in their work.

Orientations: Implicit views of self and teaching that determine frames of reference, underlie principles of practice, and guide instructional decisions (Strahan, 1990).

Perceptions: The understandings, knowledge, ideas, or impressions formed by beginning teachers which are gained from experiences which relate to teaching.

Reflections: To transform a situation in which there is experienced obscurity, doubt, conflict, disturbance of some sort into a situation that is clear, coherent, settled, harmonious (Dewey, 1933).

Reflective Action: Active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that support it and the consequences to which it leads (Zeichner & Liston, 1987).

Reflective Teaching: Reflective teaching enables a teacher to review the teaching and learning that has occurred and reconstruct the events, emotions, and the accomplishment; it is a set of processes through which a professional learns from experiences (Shulman, 1984). Reflective thinking allows teachers to examine their beliefs about their

practices for the purpose of improving their teaching. The result is often a change in their beliefs and/or teaching practices (Meyerson, 1993).

Routine Actions: Guided primarily by impulse, tradition, external authority, and circumstances (Zeichner & Liston, 1987). Persons who teach from the routine perspective uncritically accept the defined practices of schools and set about to carry out these practices (Wedman & Martin, 1991).

Technician: A teacher who follows directions using the prescriptions of someone else (i.e. basal text program) and does not plan instruction herself. This type of teaching is in opposition to teachers who are in control because they use professional knowledge to make their own decisions and are constantly thinking, modifying, and innovating to improve instruction (Duffy & Roehler, 1986).

Top-Down Models of Reading: These models of reading assume that the process of translating print to meaning begins with the reader's prior knowledge. The process is initiated by making predictions or "educated guesses" about the meaning of some unit of print. Readers decode graphic symbols into sounds and/or check context to "check out" hypotheses about meaning (Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1995, p. 31.).

Whole Language: Child-centered, literature-based approach to language teaching that immerses students in real

communication situations whenever possible; language is learned holistically in context rather than in bits and pieces in isolation (Froese, 1991).

Underlying Assumptions

Major assumptions underlying this study are as follows:

1. Participants had the ability to report their perceptions accurately, as they perceived reality.

2. Participants understood their role as teachers of reading and language arts and reported as honestly and as accurately as possible.

3. Participants' university preparation addressed the teaching of reading and language arts (stressing a literature-enriched approach).

4. Participants were rational professionals capable of making judgments and carrying out decisions in a complex environment - the classroom.

5. Participants' behaviors were guided by certain thoughts, judgments, and decisions, which were their reality.

6. Participants' were comfortable and honest with the investigator, having studied under her and known her for several years during their university experience.

7. Time allotted for the study was adequate to ascertain perceptions and practices accurately.

8. Qualitative inquiry cultivated the most useful of all

human capacities - the capacity to learn from others (Patton, 1990).

Limitations

Adams and Sadler (cited in Lincoln & Guba, 1985) pointed out some constraints or limitations that the naturalistic data processor might have encountered:

1. Data overload: An informational bottleneck which placed

    limitations on the amount of data able to be received, processed, and remembered by the human mind.

2. First impressions: Persistence on the first stimuli received, called "anchoring," so that later revision was resisted.

3. Availability of information: Information that was difficult to unearth or retrieve received less attention than that which was easier.

4. Positive and negative instances: A tendency to ignore information that conflicted with already-held hypotheses and emphasized that which confirmed them.

5. Internal consistent, redundancy, and novelty of information: A tendency to discount more extreme (novel, unusual) information (What was novel seemed as unimportant.)

6. Uneven reliability of information: A tendency to ignore the fact that some sources were more credible

7. Missing information: A tendency to devalue something
    for which some information was missing or incomplete.

8. Revision of a tentative hypothesis or evaluation:
    Reacted to new information either conservatively or by
    overreacting. (p. 354-355)

    The investigator was also aware of other possible
limitations of this study:

1. Study was based on graduates from one private
    university in western North Carolina.

2. Study was based on self-reported data.

3. Study was based on first-year teachers teaching in one
    school district in western North Carolina.

4. Because of the nature of the study, findings could not
    be generalized to larger populations; study was
    considered a "slice of life" or a "snapshot" of a
    particular population. Findings should be added to the
    existing knowledge about teacher education and
    beginning teaching.

5. The investigator taught the participants in their
    Reading Foundations methods course; knew the philosophy
    undergirding the reading and language arts component of
    their teacher education program; and held a top-down
    (whole-language) perspective toward reading
    instruction.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Some claim that all is not well with teacher education nor in public school classrooms. A Nation at Risk (National Commission on Excellence in Education [NCEE], 1983) may have been the impetus that affected the direction of schooling and teacher education in the United States. The authors' main premise was that the nation's schools were putting the country at risk through a rising tide of mediocrity. A Nation at Risk gave rise to movements leading to calls for educational reform. The public became concerned about the quality of education in America from teacher preparation programs to actual teaching in public school classrooms. All aspects of teaching became the focus for study. The question had to do with understanding the complexities of how teachers learned to teach and then what guided their practice once in the classrooms.

The way teaching is conceptualized influences the training of teachers. Calderhead (1988) suggested that

> an awareness of the complex processes involved in learning to teach might enable teacher educators to facilitate learning further and to consider critically what kinds of tasks in a teacher education course are likely to develop practical knowledge, what kinds of roles, relationships, and common language need to be established amongst teachers, tutors, and students to discuss practical knowledge and promote metacognitive

skills, what role academic knowledge might fulfill in a teacher education course and how it is best presented, and what kind of course structure and assessment is likely to facilitate professional growth. (p.63)

At the same time, it is important to explore "teachers' thinking." Calderhead (1987) referred to various processes such as perception, reflection, problem-solving and manipulation of ideas to determine the ways in which knowledge was actively acquired and used by teachers and the circumstances that affected its acquisition and employment. In other words, how are individual teachers' beliefs, commitments and practices shaped and perpetuated?

The literature reviewed for this study explored several areas related to teachers' tacit beliefs about teaching and their instructional decisions in the classroom. Teacher beliefs, teacher socialization, teacher decision-making, teacher reflection, and reading and language arts instruction were research topics believed relevant to understanding the implicit and explicit levels of mental processing underlying instructional behavior, especially in the area of reading and language arts instruction at the elementary level. Research on teacher-thinking focused on the organizing frameworks teachers use to make sense of the complex environment of their classrooms. The common thread throughout these studies was the belief that teacher-thinking and teacher behavior were guided by a set of organized beliefs, often operating unconsciously (Clark &

Yinger, 1978).

Teacher Beliefs

There is a growing body of research that focuses on the personal beliefs of teachers which affect their thinking and the decision-making aspects of teaching (Calderhead, 1987; Duffy & Anderson, 1984; Goodlad, 1990; Hollingsworth, 1989; Kagan, 1992; Munby, 1982; Munby, 1984; Nespor, 1987; Oberg, 1986; Shavelson & Stern, 1981; Tabachnick and Zeichner, 1984; Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1991; Vacca, Vacca & Gove, 1995; Wilson, 1990). Tabachnick and Zeichner (1984) used such terms as "teacher perspectives," "negotiation," and "interactive process" to describe the personal beliefs that affect teachers' thinking, decision-making, and action. Teacher perspectives were defined as

> the ways in which teachers think about their work
> (e.g., purposes, goals, conceptions of children,
> curriculum) and the ways in which they give meaning to
> these beliefs by their behavior in classrooms. (p. 28)

In trying to understand what influences teacher perspectives these same researchers referred to negotiation and interactive process as a means of understanding the socialization of teachers whereby what teachers "bring to the experience gives direction to, but does not totally determine the outcome of the socialization process" (p. 34). They stressed that the socialization of teachers cannot be interpreted apart from consideration of the nature

of the teacher education program and suggested that it may
be possible to help teachers control their situations rather
than being passively controlled by them.

Hollingsworth (1989) investigated changes in preservice
teachers' knowledge and beliefs about reading instruction
before, during and after a fifth-year teacher education
program. The qualitative data were analyzed to determine
(a) patterns of intellectual change from novice preservice
teacher to beginning classroom teacher; (b) the personal,
program, and contextual influences or constraints on that
change; (c) the role cf the cooperating teacher and
university supervisor in supporting intellectual change and
(d) the nature of prior beliefs on identity maintenance
while learning. Findings indicated the importance of
understanding preservice teachers' prior beliefs to inform
supervision and university course design, the value of
cognitive dissonance in practice teaching contexts, the need
to routinize classroom management knowledge before attending
to subject-specific pedagogy, and the importance of the
academic task as part of the teaching knowledge base.

Hollingsworth (1989) and Wilson (1990) noted that
students entering teacher education programs have definite
ideas about teaching and learning, although their ideas
cannot always be articulated. Teacher candidates begin with
loosely formulated philosophies of education that personally
explain what teachers do. In Hollingsworth's view

> teacher education programs are traditionally designed
> in a manner that capitalizes on preexisting knowledge
> of what schools and classrooms are like, thereby
> ensuring that preservice teachers turn out to be very
> much like the existing teaching force. (p. 162)

Wilson implored teacher education programs to

> help prospective teachers question their beliefs about
> teaching, learning, and schooling by asking them
> seemingly simple questions that have no simple
> answers...to make them reconsider what they know and
> believe...to discard [beliefs] that are unhelpful or
> outdated, and acquire new ones. (p. 205)

Goodlad (1990) found, too, that the basic educational beliefs and values students held at the beginning of their programs remained unchanged throughout the length of the programs. His interviews with preservice teachers indicated that most had great difficulty recalling the substance of their teacher education courses. Students saw themselves as observing what teaching required and then "taking on the mantle" of teachers observed, yielding to the status quo, rather than moving from "reflective students" to "reflective practitioners."

Nisbett and Ross's work (as cited in Munby, 1982) noted "...all human perception is influenced by the perceiver's schema, constructs, existing beliefs and understandings" (p.206). Bacon (also cited in Munby, 1982) stated that "The human understanding when it has once adopted an opinion draws all things to support and agree with it" (p. 206).

Munby found it surprising that relatively little attention has been paid to beliefs in research on teacher-thinking as compared to its obvious importance.

Nespor (1987) agreed that it has become an accepted idea that teachers' ways of thinking and understanding are vital components of their practice, and yet,

> In spite of arguments that people's beliefs are important influences on the ways they conceptualize tasks and learn from experience, relatively little attention has been accorded to the structures and functions of teachers' beliefs about their roles, their students, the subject matter areas they teach, and the schools they work in. (p. 317)

According to Nespor, it is important to understand 'beliefs' as it applies to teaching and to teacher education because "to understand teaching from teachers' perspectives we have to understand the beliefs with which they define their work" (p. 323). Teaching may hold completely different meanings for different teachers. Failing to recognize this, it might be quite difficult to make sense of what they did in their classrooms or why they did it and similarly, it would be difficult, if not impossible, to teach teachers with such different orientations using the same methods and expect similar results, or any results at all.

Likewise, Duffy and Anderson (1984), in their four-year study of teacher beliefs and conceptions about reading, indicated that teachers do possess reading conceptions.

However, they did not match the five theoretical categories
frequently discussed in the reading literature (basal text,
linear skills, interest, natural language, and integrated
whole). Instead teachers responded in terms of two general
categories: content-centered and pupil-centered. Content-
centered encompassed the basal text and linear skills
conceptions while pupil-centered encompassed natural
language, interest, and integrated curriculum. Further,
these researchers agreed that while there are some
congruence between teacher practices and their belief
systems about reading, the relationship was not strong and
that many factors influence teachers' decisions, many
appearing to be more powerful than any theoretical belief.
Their findings suggested that there is a complex interaction
between reading instruction and teacher conceptions and
teachers modify their instructional decision-making in
response to many factors.

For example, pertaining to the use of the basal
textbook, regardless of "differences in their theoretical
orientations as measured by Duffy and Metheny's instrument
(1979), Measuring Teacher's Beliefs About Reading, there was
little variation in the instructional practice of any of the
teachers...Virtually all of them used the basal in the
standard way" (p. 102). This study indicated that teachers
relied more on basals than on any belief system and that,
according to Duffy and Anderson (1984),

>Reading beliefs do not get applied until they have been filtered through the teacher's perception of contextual classroom conditions...pushing it [beliefs/theory] into the background where it functions not as the primary cognitive structure governing the selection of instructional alternatives but as a secondary concern which is applied only after other concerns about the classroom life have been considered. (pp. 102-103)

Kagan (1988), too, examined the relationships between the philosophic beliefs and behaviors of kindergarten teachers, in terms of being "child-centered" vs "teacher-structured" and the teachers' cognitive style; cognitive style being understood in general terms as "the characteristic ways individuals perceive, organize and evaluate information, often including aspect of personality (p.27). She found that teachers interpreted and responded differently to students' performance, depending upon the values teachers held and that they responded to students in terms of their own belief systems.

Kagan (1992) also examined a rather large body of empirical literature pertaining to professional growth among preservice and beginning teachers. She noted that studies examined provided generally consistent and complementary insights regarding teachers' beliefs and practices. For example,

>Candidates come to programs of teacher education with personal-beliefs about classrooms and pupils and images of themselves as teachers. For the most part, these prior beliefs and images are associated with a candidate's biography: his or her recollections of how it felt to be a pupil in classrooms...Candidates often

extrapolate from their own experiences as learners,
assuming that the pupils they teach will possess
aptitudes, problems, and learning styles similar to
their own. (p.154)

Kagan (1992) also noted that

The personal beliefs and images that preservice
candidates bring to programs of teacher education
usually remain inflexible....[they] use the information
provided in course work to confirm rather than to
confront and correct their preexisting beliefs. (p.
154)

And further,

...candidates are often presented with inconsistent and
contradictory views of teaching and learning...
inadequate knowledge of pupils and classroom
procedures...and as a result, most novices become
obsessed with class control, designing instruction not
to promote pupil learning, but to discourage disruptive
behavior...attitudes toward pupils grow more custodial
and controlling. (pp. 154-155)

Especially important to this investigation, was Kagan's

descriptions of developmental tasks teachers accomplish as

they move from practica and student teaching through their

first year of teaching. She noted that

as novices acquire knowledge of pupils they use it to
modify, adapt, and reconstruct their images of self as
teacher...If a novice enters the classroom without a
clear image of self as teacher...the novice may be
doomed to flounder...or if beginning teachers fail to
reconstruct their images of self as teacher
appropriately [they] may encounter frustrations
sufficient to drive them to other occupations. (p.
155)

Important developmental tasks to be accomplished, as
described by Kagan, indicate that novice teachers first tend
to focus on their own behavior rather than those of their
students, then attention shifts to instruction, and finally
to what students are actually learning from academic tasks.
Novice teachers appear to move from an "initial stage where
performance is laboriously self-conscious to more automated,
unconscious performance" (p.155). When and how these
developmental tasks are accomplished by a novice depends on
at least three major factors:

> (a) the novice's biography (the clarity of the image of
> self as teacher and developmental readiness to
> acknowledge that images and beliefs are incorrect); (b)
> the configuration of a preservice teacher education
> program (amount of extended classroom practice and
> amount of procedural information provided in courses);
> and (c) the contexts in which practice and beginning
> teaching occur (the nature of pupils, beliefs of, and
> relationships with, other teachers in the school;
> availability of materials; principal's beliefs;
> and relationships with parents). Two contextual
> factors of special importance may be the personal
> relationship that develops between a novice and his or
> her cooperating teacher and the degree of autonomy
> afforded to teachers by a principal. (p. 155)

There appears to be a general consensus in the field of
teacher-thinking research that teacher beliefs serve as
possibly the ground for teacher actions, yet the nature of
that relationship may yet not be well understood (Cornett,
1988).

Teacher Socialization

The socialization of teachers and what affects their decision-making and practices have been the focus of a plethora of studies (Bullough, 1989; Calderhead, 1987; Cochran-Smith, 1991; Deal & Chatman, 1989; Frymier, 1987; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1989; Lortie, 1975; Mead, 1992; Pape & McIntyre, 1992; Shulman, 1987; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984; Templin, 1979; Wildman, et al., 1984; Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981; Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1985). Research has suggested that biography may be a key element in the socialization process of teachers in shaping their beliefs and practices because all teachers have been students (logging between sixteen and eighteen thousand hours in classrooms), have seen teaching modeled (Bullough, 1989; Mead, 1992) and have therefore, internalized over time "what a teacher is and does" (Lortie, 1975). Mead noted that a novice teacher's past is somewhat like old photographs which conjure up memories, and if these memories or beliefs that novices bring to their training are ignored, the following is sometimes the outcome:

> A funny thing happens to teachers faced with a roomful of fifth graders. They forget what they learned in high-priced teacher education classes. What comes out of their mouths is exactly what they heard when they were in fifth grade (Quoted in Schimpf, 1990, p. 10).

Bullough (1989) also explained the importance of biography by describing it as a

fine interpretive lens or filter through which the
teacher views his or her preparation. Ideas, concepts,
and even skills that do not fit the beginning
teacher's self-image, which is accepted as right and
proper, and are not backed up with sufficient power to
prompt internalization through practice or through
experiences that demonstrate conclusively their value,
are screened out. On the other hand, ideas that
confirm a vision of self as teacher are highlighted and
seen as credible. (p. 144)

It is important for teacher educators to understand the

relationship of socialization and teaching practices. By

having a better understanding of how teachers learn to

teach, indeed, what it is that impacts their thinking, then

teacher educators will be able to provide more appropriate

training experiences. Field-based experiences in general

and student teaching in particular are training experiences

that are widely held among preservice teachers, teacher

educators and practicing teachers as essential components of

effective teacher education (Brodbelt & Wall, 1985; Costa &

Garmston, 1987; Funk et al., 1982; Wood, 1988). Student

teachers, especially, have repeatedly rated student teaching

as the most important part of their teacher preparation

education, more important than the student's academic or

professional course work (Yee, 1969; Karmos & Jacko, 1977;

Lortie, 1975; Zeichner, 1980).

However, some researchers have been skeptical about the

benefits of the traditional clinical experience and contend

that field-based experiences are conservative institutions

which serve merely to socialize prospective teachers into

established patterns of school practice (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1989; Templin, 1979; Theis-Sprinthall, 1980; Zeichner, 1980). Salzillo and Van Fleet (1977) maintained that "the only function of student teaching which has been identified by the research studies is one of socialization into the profession and into existing arrangements of the school bureaucracy" (p.28). It appears that cooperating teachers greatly influence student teachers' values, attitudes, and practices and that their power of influence, along with other socializing forces, may outweigh any other aspect of the university teacher education program (Yee, 1969; Seperson & Joyce, 1973; Mahan & Lacefield, 1976; Copeland, 1978; Mahan & Lacefield, 1978; Copeland, 1979; Kilgore, 1979; Templin, 1979; Zeichner, 1980; Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981). What this means is that preservice teachers may relinquish theories, teachings, values, and attitudes that were gleaned through their university training and begin to embrace the more traditional views of cooperating teachers.

Hoy and Woolfolk (1989) agreed that the student teaching experience in its present form most likely negates the development of a truly reflective, inquiring professional teacher. Instead these experiences, because of many factors, tend to make prospective teachers more authoritarian, rigid, impersonal, bureaucratic and custodial. Their research seemed to indicate that student teaching (a) may do little more than socialize one into the

profession and into existing arrangements of the school
bureaucracy; (b) encourages situation-specific teaching
strategies rather than more general guidelines for deciding
about methods; (c) may negatively influence the novice
teacher; (d) retards the development of analytic skills and
militates against the development of the profession; and (e)
emphasizes imitation of and subservience to the cooperating
teacher and not investigation, reflection, and solving novel
problems.

Rosenholtz (1989) believed that altering teachers'
perceptions of their work and what is expected of them in
the workplace is no easy task. He stated that "teachers,
like members of most organizations, shape their beliefs and
actions largely in conformance with the structures,
policies, and traditions of the workaday world around them"
(p. 2). And further, that

> people come to define their work through their workday
> realities through a set of shared assumptions about
> appropriate attitudes and behaviors constructed within
> them. Meanings of work are exchanged, negotiated, and
> modified through the communications people have with,
> or the observations they make of others. (p.3)

Cochran-Smith (1991) argued that prospective teachers
have a "responsibility to reform, not just replicate,
standard school practices" (p. 18) which she refers to as
"teaching against the grain." She contended that the
problem of student teaching is generally identified as its

"tendency to bolster utilitarian perspectives on teaching and ultimately to perpetuate existing instructional and institutional practices" (p. 19). Two approaches to preparing student teachers to work against the grain (and she believed there are only a small minority of programs across the country with programs designed to do this) are to create "critical dissonance" or "collaborative resonance." The goal of programs using critical dissonance "is to interrupt the potentially conservative influences of student teachers' school-based experiences and instead to help them develop stronger, more critical perspectives that confront issues of race, class, power, labor, and gender, and to call into question the implications of standard school policy and practice" (p. 19). Strategies of such a program would include: methods courses that emphasize alternative teaching strategies, field experiences coupled with ethnographic studies of schooling, critical theory-based curriculum study, student teaching seminars and journals in which students reflect critically on their teaching experiences, supervision that emphasizes individual growth and action research projects conducted in schools.

The second approach to preparing student teachers to work against the grain was to create collaborative resonance. The goal was to link what student teachers learned from their university-based experiences with what they learned from their school-based experiences; to

prolong and intensify the influences of university and school experiences, both of which are viewed as potentially liberalizing. Teachers would be taught analytical skills needed to critique standard procedures and connect theory and practice and given resources needed to function as reforming teaching, calling into question the policies and language of schooling that are taken for granted and to researching their own practices.

Cochran-Smith (1991) noted that teachers who work against the grain are in the minority and are sometimes at "odds with administrators and evaluators...are not always selected as teachers of the year, nor the ones pointed out by their colleagues as the cream of the faculty, and they are not necessarily the ones principals judge to be best suited for work with student teachers" (p. 22). Additionally, she noted that

> To teach against the grain, teachers have to understand and work both within and around the culture of teaching and the politics of schooling at their particular schools and within their larger school systems and communities. They cannot simply announce better ways of doing things. They have to teach differently without judging the ways others teach or dismissing the ideas others espouse. Unlike researchers who remain outside the schools, teachers who are committed to working against the grain inside their schools are not at liberty to publicly announce critiques of their colleagues and the bureaucracies in which they labor... they have to work with parents and other teachers on different ways of seeing and measuring development, connecting and dividing knowledge, and knowing about teaching ad schooling...They have to see beyond and through the conventional labels and practices that sustain the status quo by raising unanswerable and

often uncomfortable questions. (pp. 22-23)

According to Frymier (1987), however, teachers feel "neutered by the bureaucracy in which they work" leaving them lacking physical strength, energy, enthusiasm for their work, and motivation. He inferred from his study of urban elementary teachers' perceptions of their workplace that

> contextual factors - the purposes, policies, procedures, programs, precedents, and personnel within a building and a school district - are powerful and pervasive forces that influences what teachers know, do, and believe. The bureaucratic structure of the workplace is more influential in determining what professionals do than are personal abilities, professional training, or previous experience. Change efforts should focus on the structure of the workplace, not on the teachers. (p. 10)

The urban teachers' perceptions regarding their workplace suggested "that they have developed an externalized locus of control. They lack enthusiasm for what they do. They are not inspired to work hard, to learn, or to change" (p. 12). Their sense of disenchantment and alienation due to lack of freedom to make decisions about curriculum and instruction is evident in the following quote:

> I haven't been in long enough to retire, but I've been in too long to quit. I like the children. I want to do a good job, but I don't have much room to maneuver. What I think about things doesn't seem to count. Nobody cares about me. My ideas are not important. Nobody asks me what ought to be done or how we could do it better...All that the board members care about is raising scores on standardized achievement tests...the

central office grinds out curriculum guides and memos
that nobody pays attention to, except when the
supervisor comes around. I'll go to school everyday.
I'll go through the motions. I'll put my time in.
But my heart is not in it. (p. 12)

Duffy, Roehler, & Putnam (1987) believed that in the
area of reading and language arts instruction there is
little evidence that teachers make substantive curricular
and instructional changes or decisions. Teachers'
decision-making is impeded by the expectations under which
elementary school teachers work; they are expected to
conform to certain centrally imposed procedures. In
agreement with this thinking, Vacca, Vacca, and Gove (1995)
contended that just as teachers have constructed a personal
belief system or a perspective or philosophy regarding
teaching, they have also constructed practical knowledge
which is closely related in that it grows out of experience
in and out of classrooms. In reading and language arts
instruction, practical knowledge is characterized by the
beliefs, values, and attitudes constructed about readers and
writers, texts, reading and writing processes, learning to
read and write, and the role of the teacher in the
development of children's literate behavior. They stated
that the construction of practical knowledge extends beyond
classroom situations and includes interactions within the
cultural context of school and community. Teachers' beliefs
and practices may be affected by peer pressure, beliefs of

colleagues and administrators, school board policies,
curriculum guidelines, the publishing and testing industry,
public opinion, and state and/or national standards.

Teaching reading in American classrooms has been
associated for a long time with commercially prepared
materials known as basal readers and basal workbooks and
teachers' apparent dependent use of them (Durkin, 1993;
Duffy, Roehler, & Putnam, 1987; Froese, 1991; Goodman,
Shannon, Freeman, & Murphy, 1988; Shannon, 1989). Reasons
for this approach include (a) administrators beliefs that
specified reading skills will be learned, or at least
"covered," (b) this approach is considered to be the
traditional method of teaching (hence conservative and
proper), and (c) parents often expect such teaching since
they experienced it as well (Froese, 1991). Shannon (1989),
in trying to discover why teachers relied so heavily on
commercial materials conducted a study which he considered a
"commonsense" approach. He used questionnaires and follow-
up interviews to determine teachers' thoughts and beliefs
about their reading instruction and to identify situational
constraints. The 445 classroom teachers who responded to
the questionnaire believed foremost that they were
fulfilling administrative expectations when they used the
basal according to the teacher's guidebook. Some teachers,
in interviews, even ridiculed him for considering any other
rationale for their use and a typical response for their use

was "because I want to keep my job."

According to Vacca, Vacca, and Gove (1995), teachers

> construct theories of reading and learning to read,
> based on all their ways of knowing, which influence the
> way they teach, including the way they plan, use and
> select texts, interact with learners, and assess
> literate activity. In turn, the decisions teachers
> make about instruction influence students' reading
> behavior and their perceptions of and attitudes toward
> reading. (p.11)

Teacher Decision-Making

How teachers acquire their knowledge (Grossman, 1992;

Kagan, 1992; Nespor, 1991) and "orientations" toward

teaching (Strahan, 1989, 1990, 1991) have been explored

through studies. Strahan defined the term "orientations" as

what teachers know that enable them to teach successfully

and acquire and extend their knowledge. Orientations are

implicit views of self and teaching that determines frames

of reference (underlying rationale in the form of sets of

ideas or clusters of concepts that relate to each other),

underlie principles of practice, and guide instructional

decisions. In a number of case studies he described some

ways that "instructional decisions are shaped by teachers'

implicit orientations toward themselves, their students, and

their subject matter" (1991, p. 4). Strahan's Model for

Analyzing Reflections on Instruction (Figure 1) depicts how

teachers' tacit or implicit reflections or thoughts affect

their more explicit reflections regarding principles of

Figure 1. A Model for Analyzing Reflections on
Instruction (Strahan, 1990)

implicit reflections

orientations

FRAMES
OF
REFERENCE

PRINCIPLES
OF
INSTRUCTION

INSTRUCTIONAL DECISIONS
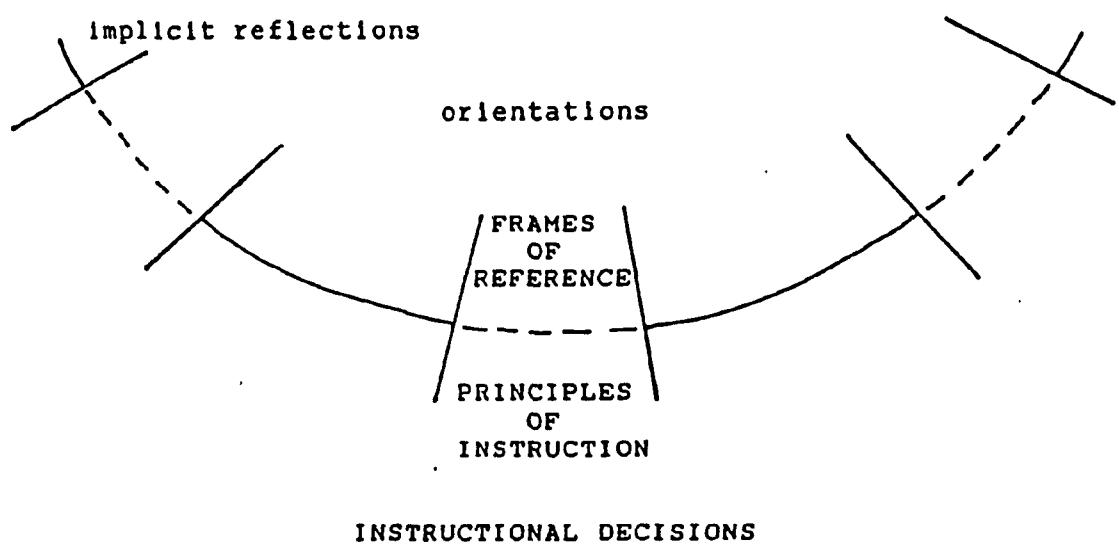
explicit reflections

Implicit level of reflections

"Orientations:" - implicit views of self and teaching
that determine frames of reference, underlie principles
of practice, and guide instructional decisions.

"Frames of Reference:" - clusters of concepts that relate
to each other from the teacher's point-of-view that
provide organizers for principles, serve as filters that
screen perceptions and lenses that focus decisions.

Explicit level of reflections

"Principles of Instruction:" - practical precepts that
the teacher uses to explain views and actions.

"Instructional Decisions:" - choices made during planning
or in the flow of classroom events that reflect conscious
awareness of principles of instruction.

instruction and instructional decisions. He suggested that these orientations begin to form in preservice teachers, growing clearer as these students proceed through their teacher education program, and into student teaching.

Over the past several years, a variety of studies have focused on teachers' judgments, plans, and decision-making and the relationship of these to teacher behaviors, especially in the area of reading instruction. Stern and Shavelson (1983), regarding teachers' planning in reading, stated that "teachers tend not to plan instruction in the way they probably were trained." (p. 282) There seems to be agreement among researchers (Bawden, Buike, & Duffy, 1979; Duffy, 1982; Duffy, Roehler, & Putnam, 1987; Durkin, 1993; Putnam & Duffy, 1984; Roehler & Duffy, 1981; Stern & Shavelson, 1983) that, regarding planning and decision-making, "elementary teachers do not plan in terms of a logical, objectives-driven model or in terms of a decision-making model. Instead they think in terms of what is to be covered..." (Duffy, 1982, p. 359) and maintaining a smooth flow of classroom activity (Putnam & Duffy, 1984). Durkin referred to this kind of teacher planning as focusing "not on what they will help students learn but on what they will have students do" (p. 26). She claimed that some teachers are "more concerned about covering commercially prepared materials than about teaching particular children" and that "the most undesirable consequence may be the omission of

reflection..." (p. 26).

Along this same line of thinking, Roehler and Duffy (1981) noted that teachers behave more like technicians skilled in managing and monitoring as opposed to teachers who direct instruction based on professional judgment. Daves, Morton, and Grace (1990), in their writing, indicated that strict reliance on teacher guides and basal readers is inconsistent with methodology in current teacher training and suggested that possibly teachers may be faced with a conflict between the way they were taught to teach and what their administrators expect. They strove to determine through their survey the answer to the question, "What are the influencing factors affecting instructional practices?"

Meyerson (1993) criticized studies that solely use inventories to establish teachers' theoretical bases on the grounds that "such instruments may not present a complete picture of what teachers believe, the circumstances under which decisions occur, or the factors that influence their decisions. As a result, these studies may not reveal entirely why teachers do what they do" (p. 155). She advocated reflective thinking which "allows teachers to examine their beliefs about their practice for the purpose of improving their teaching" (p. 155) and to "identify what influences their present teaching practices and to reflect on those influences...to find their own answers to...'why do I teach reading the way I do'" (p.165)?

Other researchers (Borko, Shavelson, & Stern, 1981;
Shavelson & Stern, 1981) suggested that the workplace of
teachers impacts decision-making due to it being an
overwhelming, complex environment. Borko, Shavelson, and
Stern suggested that teachers have access to a large amount
of information about their students from many sources, but
it is difficult to determine just what information teachers
use when making instructional decisions, how this
information is integrated to reach decisions, and how
institutional constraints, external pressures, and
individual differences between teachers affect these
decisions. Due to the complexity, according to Shavelson and
Stern, teachers (a) "simplify" in order to make the
environment rather predictable; (b) focus on activities with
which students will be involved; (c) maintain the classroom
activity flow, a primary concern; (d) disregard planning
models taught in teacher education, resulting in planning
that appears unsystematic and general; (e) accept the
textbook as the major source of content; (f) fail to adapt
lessons to student needs, minimizing conscious decision-
making; (g) establish routines with classroom management
foremost in mind; and (h) seek confirmation for their
choices, rather than evaluate possible alternatives.
Process-oriented teachers were more likely to change plans
than content-oriented teachers.

<u>Teacher Reflection</u>

Experience plus reflection equals growth (Posner, 1993). John Dewey argued as early as 1904 that the primary purpose of teacher education programs should be that of helping preservice teachers reflect upon the underlying principles of practice. He made an important distinction regarding teachers' practices when he identified reflective action, as opposed to routine action. He defined reflective action as behavior involving active, persistent, and careful consideration of any teaching belief or practice and the educational consequences (Dewey, 1933). Routine action, in contrast, was defined as behavior guided by impulse, tradition, and authority. Persons who teach from the routine perspective uncritically accept the defined practices of schools and set about to find the most efficient way to carry out these practices (Wedman & Martin, 1991). This line of thinking is also in agreement with prior mentioned research, such as Duffy's "pupil-centered" versus "content-centered," Kagan's "child-centered" versus "teacher-centered," and Shavelson and Stern's "process-oriented" versus "content-oriented."

Reflective thinking according to Dewey means "turning a subject over in the mind and giving it serious and consecutive consideration" (Dewey, 1933, p. 3). As stated earlier in this review, teachers often work under certain contextual constraints, mostly driven by tradition.

Reflective thinking allows teachers to examine critically the assumptions that schools make about what can count as acceptable goals and methods, problems, and solutions. It allows teachers to act in deliberate and intentional ways, devise new ways of teaching and interpret new experiences from a fresh perspective rather than being a "slave to tradition" (Posner, 1993).

Philip Jackson (as cited in Posner, 1993) argued that as necessary as reflective teaching appears to be, the "beehive of activity," the "crowded condition" of the classroom, and the "press of numbers and of time that keeps the teacher so busy" allows no time for reflection and that there may be no point to reflection if the teachers always have to do what they are told anyway. Jackson's reference here was to institutional constraints, the fact that teachers are rarely granted release time for reflection, that there is continual pressure to cover a specified curriculum and to ensure at least a minimal level of achievement for a diverse group of children. He argued that, "given these conditions, there is no time for reflection and that reflection, if attempted, could only lead to paralysis of action and therefore less effective response to immediate circumstance" (p. 22).

However, on the other hand, Jackson pointed out another aspect regarding teacher reflection:

The fact that the teacher does not appear to be very
analytical or deliberative in his moment-to-moment
dealings with students should not obscure the fact that
there are times when this is not true. During periods
of solitude...before and after his face-to-face
encounter with students, the teacher often seems to be
engaged in a type of intellectual activity that has
many of the formal properties of a problem-solving
procedure. At such moments the teacher's work does
look highly rational. This brief mention of the
teacher's behavior during moments when he is
not actively engaged with students calls attention to
an important division in the total set of teaching
responsibilities. There is a crucial difference it
would seem between what the teacher does when he is
alone at his desk and what he does when his room fills
up with students. (p. 22)

Posner posed the question, "Is reflection really

necessary?" He answered his question by stating that

although curriculum developers often attempt to produce

so-called teacher-proof curricula, these attempts have

generally been unsuccessful because teachers tend to "adapt"

rather than "adopt" curricula; they are selective about what

they will incorporate into their classrooms; and finally,

"the view of teachers that emerges from studies of

curriculum implementation is one of active professionals

constantly making educational decisions for their particular

classrooms" (p. 23).

Teachers operate neither on pure intuition nor on pure
rational analysis. Teachers neither blindly adopt the
materials and methods developed by 'experts,' nor
insist on reinventing the wheel. Instead, teachers
(especially effective ones) balance intuitive and
reflective thought, using any resources they can find
and adapting materials to suit their own purposes and
methods. (Posner, 1993, p. 23)

The Holms Group (1986) proposed that teachers should be "reflective professionals" whose thoughts, concerns, judgments, and decisions affect the way they teach and ultimately how students learn. Schon's (1987) study on the role of reflecting (in-action and on-action) on professional practice indicated that through reflection teachers are better equipped to understand and express their frames of references, leading to increased teacher effectiveness. Likewise, Smith (1982) argued that everyone constructs a theory of the world (such as teaching) and perceives and interprets future directions and events in light of this theory. New information is organized, reorganized, and acted upon so as to create order - a unified consistent description of the world. Theory acts as a filter in perceiving, understanding, organizing and acting upon experiences in that world. This may mean that teachers' frames of references or schemata are formed and are not easily changed without reflection. Also, according to Oberg (1987), teachers operate from a set of constructs that help define their frames of reference and that teacher hold certain beliefs about what is relevant with respect to their subject matter, teaching and learning.

Peterson and Comeaux (1987), in their discussion of the Holms Group recommendations regarding the reform of teacher education and the teaching profession, further presented the idea of teacher as a "reflective" or "thoughtful"

professional continuously engaged in the process of
learning. They quoted Clark and Peterson (1986):

> The emerging picture of the teacher as a reflective
> professional is a developmental one that begins during
> undergraduate teacher education and continues to grow
> and change with professional experience. The teacher
> education majors who would become professionals in this
> sense are firmly grounded in the disciplines and
> subject matter that they will teach...They have had
> both supervised practice in using their behavioral
> skills and strategies of teaching and they have also
> been initiated into the less visible aspects of
> teaching, including the full variety of types of
> planning and interactive decision making. The maturing
> professional teacher is one who has taken some steps
> toward making explicit his or her implicit theories and
> beliefs about learners, curriculum, subject matter and
> the teacher's role. ...These teachers have developed
> the confidence to depart from a planned course of
> action when they judge that to be appropriate. They
> reflect on and analyze the apparent effects of their
> own teaching and apply the results of these reflections
> to their future plans and actions. (pp. 292-293)

Goodman (1986) agreed that responsible teachers ask why
they are doing certain things in their classrooms. They
synthesize diverse ideas and apply the information they
learn, consistently taking into consideration the
implications of their practice concerning both their
students and society as a whole.

The term, metacognition, used by psychologists and
educators, simply means thinking about thinking.
"Metacognition in teaching includes the ability of teachers
to examine their own concepts, theories, and beliefs about
teaching, learning and their subject matter, and the ability
to monitor their decisions about what and how they teach.

In a sense, metacognition is a psychological approach to reflective teaching" (Posner, 1993, p. 23). Is it possible for teacher preparation programs to train teachers to be reflective - to "think about their thinking?" A review of the literature revealed a number of techniques used to prompt reflective thought and practice among preservice teachers.

Posner (1993) suggested that preservice teachers, during field experiences, use in-text questions and exercises and daily or weekly logs and/or journals. Questions and exercises in textbooks used in teacher education courses are designed to encourage reflective thought and self-analysis. Taking seriously these questions and exercises may lead students to develop a "perspective" that will help define their professional identity. Daily or weekly logs or journals provide a unique opportunity to keep track of events and to privately reflect on the personal and public meaning of those events. Posner suggested the following questions to ask oneself:

What happened?

Why did it happen?

What was my role?

What beliefs did my actions reflect?

Did my actions reflect beliefs and assumptions about which I was not aware?

Did the consequences of my actions raise doubts or reinforce my beliefs?

How should I want to act in the future on the basis of what happened?

Posner also suggested that preservice teachers during field experiences select one or two episodes that are significant to them, describe these in detail, as if trying to relive these experiences and then analyze the episodes. These episodes may have been classified as significant because whatever happened in some way bothered or excited the preservice teacher, or caused the preservice teacher to rethink initial ideas (goals, plans, perspectives) or affirmed the validity of an idea. To help preservice teachers reflect on these significant episodes, Posner suggested that they analyze them in the following way:

> Try to figure out what you accomplished, identify problems that emerge and how you plan to follow up, and distill from the episodes what you learned. This last point is most important. You may have learned what works in this situation and what does not. Describe what you conclude...you may have learned something about your philosophy of teaching (your perspective). Does this episode confirm your ideas or force you to reconsider them? Maybe some initial ideas you held rather dogmatically depend, to a large extent, on the situation in which you apply them. If so, what was it about the situation that affected the applicability of the ideas? Many experiences raise more questions than they answer. You might use your log to note questions that arise.... (p. 25)

Canning (1991) suggested that reflective writing assignments are a useful strategy in preservice teacher education to aid reflection and she developed a list of questions that prompt reflection. They included the

following:

Can you talk more about that?

Why do you think that happens?

What does this remind you of?

What if it happened this way?

Do you see a connection between this and _____?

What do you want to happen?

How could you do that? (p. 19)

Canning assigned weekly one-hour reflection assignments
which required preservice teachers to develop their own
professional positions. The students were asked to
integrate: (a) best advice from others; (b) their
observations; (c) past experiences; (d) beliefs; and (e)
individual goals related to the person the individual wants
to become. Preservice teachers also wrote about important
issues, looked for connections and conflicts among pieces of
knowledge, and affirmed their own participation in their
work. Due to lack of structure in their assignments, and
preservice having to figure out for themselves what was
critical to developing their individual voices, they
reported they learned to ask the prompting questions for
themselves and developed a form of internal dialogue
necessary for reflection.

Strahan (1990) developed a model appropriate for
analyzing preservice teachers' reflections on instruction.

This model guided the selection of organizers that described the preservice teachers' orientations and provided a vehicle for studying the evolution of their teaching perspectives. Strahan suggested that the process of reflection involves learning about one's orientations, the "implicit views of self and teaching that determine frames of reference, underlie principles of practice, and guide instructional decisions" (p. 9). Explicit levels of reflections, according to his model, are the practical precepts that the teacher uses to explain views and actions and instructional decisions that reflect conscious awareness of principles of instruction.

Gebhard (1993), in a paper presented at the Annual International Meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, described as a teacher educator, ways for preservice teachers to consider and reflect on their teaching through a variety of teacher development activities. His goal was "to provide the kind of knowledge teachers need to have to be able to make their own informed decisions" (p. 5). The activities consisted of (a) teaching and tutoring; (b) peer observation; (c) action research projects; (d) supervisory conferences; (e) teaching journals; and (f) seminar discussions. In addition to teaching, these activities provided preservice teachers with opportunities to reflect on their teaching through journal writing, talk with other teachers about their teaching

beliefs and practices, systematically observe other teachers (and themselves via videotaping), carry out action research projects, and collaborate with a supervisor over how to describe, analyze, and interpret teaching as well as how to generate their own teaching alternatives.

To help preservice teachers to become more reflective and analytical, Pape and McIntyre (1992) utilized interactive videodisc technology to enhance preservice teacher awareness and knowledge at the beginning of field experience level. They believed that an interactive videodisc program would counter negative aspects of field observation, particularly "untrained eyes and selective memories" that permit novices to "see what they want to see." By using unerasable video protocols of critical classroom events, preservice teachers would be helped to anticipate the range of problems and constraints that occur daily in classrooms. Through the use of the interactive videodisc program, a novice could analyze (on campus) a typical classroom but have the benefits of rewind, pause, volume control, laser pointer, instructors' insight, and group discussion.

According to the authors of this study, the data indicated that the interactive videodisc project was a success in at least two ways. First, students appeared to be more descriptive in their analysis of critical classroom events and able to use more evidence in supporting their

claims. And secondly, students' interviewed also revealed that they perceived the interactive videodiscs to make them more reflective in their analysis of classroom life.

Reading and Language Arts Instruction

The controversy having to do with learning to read seems to be a never-ending debate. According to Frank Smith (1992) teachers are once more being reproached for their failure to make children literate. They are urged to stop using the "wrong method" or concentrate on using the "right method" according to whichever view of learning one ascribes.

In studying "teacher-thinking," the mental processing underlying instructional behavior is investigated. Before teacher educators can systematically influence teaching behavior, there is a need to understand the relationship between teachers' thinking and their behavior. One approach to the study of teacher thinking is to view teachers as holding implicit theories or conceptual frameworks which guide instructional decision- making (Strahan, 1990). Barr and Duffy (1978) suggested that the connection between a teacher's implicit theory and his or her behavior is a relatively loose one, mediated by circumstances such as availability of resources, peer influence, and student characteristics. It has been assumed by researchers (Barr & Duffy, 1978; Deford, 1978; Harste & Burke, 1977; and Mitchell (1978) that reading instructional behavior, guided

by implicit theories of reading instruction, influence
students' reading behavior and students' conceptions of
reading (and possibly writing).

Most beliefs about how students learn to read, in all
likelihood, lie on a continuum between concepts that reflect
bottom-up models of reading and concepts that reflect top-
down models of reading. These beliefs or this teacher-held
belief system create images or mental pictures in the heads
of teachers about reading curriculum - what the curriculum
should look like when it is enacted in the classroom. What
is the teacher doing? What is the role of the teacher?
What are the students doing? What are the goals of reading
instruction? What does the classroom look like? What
materials, activities, and strategies are being used? Do
the students enjoy reading? Is the teacher enthusiastic
about teaching reading? How and is "reading" being modeled?
What does it mean to "read?" Answers to these questions and
more mirror the teacher's beliefs about reading and learning
to read.

The purpose of this study was to determine the beliefs
of a select group of elementary teachers pertaining to
reading instruction and how they made decisions regarding
the teaching of reading and language arts and whether
reflection on their teaching practices caused change. The
investigator was interested in learning just which factors
elementary teachers identified as impacting their beliefs,

their decisions, and their practices in teaching reading and language arts. To understand their beliefs it is necessary to discuss three classes of models of reading: bottom-up, top-down, and interactive. A brief definition of each type of reading model follows (Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1995, p. 31):

<u>Bottom-up Models of Reading:</u> These are models of reading that assume that the process of translating print to meaning begins with the print. The process is initiated by decoding graphic symbols into sounds. Therefore, the reader first identifies features of letters; links these features together to recognize letters; combines letters to recognize spelling patterns; links spelling patterns to recognize words; and then proceeds to sentence, paragraph, and text level processing.

<u>Top-Down Models of Reading:</u> These models of reading assume that the process of translating print to meaning begins with the reader's prior knowledge. The process is initiated by making predictions or "educated guesses" about the meaning of some unit of print. Readers decode graphic symbols into sounds to "check out" hypotheses about meaning.

<u>Interactive Models of Reading:</u> These are models of reading that assume that the process of translating print to meaning involves making use of both prior knowledge and print. The process is initiated by making predictions about meaning and/or decoding graphic symbols. The reader formulates

hypotheses based upon the interaction of information from semantic, syntactic, and graphophonemic sources of information.

A Comparison of the Three Models of Reading

The two major theoretical orientations that have stimulated much debate in the field of reading are the bottom-up and top-down approaches. (Gove, 1981; Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 1990; Vacca, Vacca & Gove, 1995; Zintz & Maggart, 1989). Gove and Zintz and Maggart basically define the models as follows: The bottom-up theory (often associated with Laberge and Samuels) views language as systematic and mechanistic. Reading is composed of discrete parts and can be separated for units of instruction. Advocates of this model describe the reader as starting with low level analysis of sensory input (features, letters, letter clusters, words) and proceed stage by stage to higher levels of linguistic analysis (sentences, paragraphs, selections). The skills approach commonly found in basal reader series in elementary school classrooms represent more closely a bottom-up approach, where emphasis in the beginning of instruction is on word recognition, not meaning. Later, emphasis is on learning to exercise a skill in reading rather than on reading to learn and understand. Phonics instruction is included in the skills approach. Heilman, Blair, & Rupley (1990) refer to the bottom-up approach as "text-based" meaning the essential element in

reading is the written text rather than what the reader brings to the text in the form of prior experiences. The essentially bottom-up model of Laberge and Samuels (1976) incorporated the idea of "automaticity." This concept suggests that humans can only attend to one thing at a time but may be able to process many things at once so long as no more than one requires attention. In reading, decoding and comprehending vie for the reader's attention. Readers must learn to process graphophonic information so rapidly that they are free to direct attention to comprehending the text material (Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1995).

The top-down approach which is associated with Goodman (Gove, 1991; Zintz and Maggart, 1989) views reading as "conceptually driven" and language as systems that are interrelated and interdependent. The reading act is viewed as a total process that cannot be broken down into parts without distorting the process. The major focus is on "meaning." Whole-language, language-experience, and literature-based approaches to reading and writing would all subscribe to the top-down theory. Since this is a 'pupil-centered' conception (Gove, 1981) it would include an integrated curriculum; reading predictable books to children; requiring a great deal of easy reading practice for children; necessary knowledge of phonics is necessary, but not extensive; involving students in meaningful activities in which students speak, listen, read, and write

(most likely initially using "invented spelling"); and placing importance on students' choosing their own reading materials and enjoying the materials they read or that is read to them. Heilman, Blair, & Rupley (1990) referred to the top-down approach as "reader-based." The focus is not on the text, but on the reader, whom they believe do not begin reading with a blank mind; they bring knowledge based on past experiences with language and the world. Because of this students do not give close attention to words. Instead they use their past experiences to predict meaning as they read, called hypothesis testing.

The interactive models of reading assume that the process of translating print to meaning involves making use of both prior knowledge and print. The process is initiated by making predictions about meaning and/or decoding graphic symbols. The reader hypotheses based upon the interaction of information from semantic, syntactic, and graphophonemic sources of information (Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1995). Both Duffy's (1982) and Deford's (1985) inventories used in this study measure teachers' beliefs or conceptions about reading with regard to these theories.

Basal Readers Approach vs Whole Language Approach

A discussion of the teaching of reading inevitably turns to how teachers teach reading - what do they do? The approaches by which children are taught to read have been the objects of a large number of research studies, but

unfortunately research comparing the reading approaches has been inconclusive. No single approach to teaching reading is successful with all children (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 1990). However, the debate has continued as to whether a basal approach, replete with skills and phonics, and a bottom-up theory of looking at learning to read is somehow more appropriate than a whole-language (language-experience or literature-based) approach, with its top-down theory and emphasis on language acquisition and that of reading as a communication process.

Basal readers for many years dominated instruction in most classrooms across the United States (Duffy, Roehler, and Putnam, 1987; Farr, Tulley, & Powell, 1987; Goodman, Shannon, Freeman, & Murphy, 1988; Shannon, 1989). These researchers suggested that the over-reliance on basal readers and the accompanying teacher's manual and support materials created situations in which the "basal" was in control rather than the teacher acting as an instructional decision-maker, planning and reflecting on reading and language arts instruction based on sound pedagogy and student needs. Shannon (1989) examined four hypotheses that have been offered to explain teachers' behaviors with relations to their decisions involving basal series: (1) teachers are not involved in reading instruction; (2) teachers believe that commercial reading materials can teach students to read if they closely follow the manual and use

the accompanying materials; (3) teachers believe that the basals embody scientific truth and (4) teachers believe that administrators expect them to use these materials.

Durkin (1984) provided some insights from her research into the way basals were used by elementary teachers in the teaching of reading. She found that very few teachers followed the text recommendation of introducing, presenting, teaching and practicing new vocabulary words. None of the teachers in her study reviewed or developed background information for their pupils. Rarely did the observed teachers present and discuss questions before their pupils read a story from their basal, even though the manual highly suggested presenting questions to guide pupils' reading and thinking. Silent reading was uncommon and recommendations to allow for this and to ask comprehension questions following a few passages or pages were ignored. Even though basal manuals do not typically recommend oral reading or rereading of every story assigned to the pupils, the observed teachers spent a considerable amount of time on oral reading. Manuals do not suggest that teachers use every one of the abundant practice assignments, however, fifteen of the sixteen observed teachers assigned all of the written practice activities found in the skill development portions (workbooks and worksheets). Finally, there was no indication that teachers made assignments in terms of the pupils' needs.

Although there have been criticisms aimed at basal programs, there are a number of advantages, however, to using the basal series including the following (Heilman, Blair, Rupley, 1990):

(1) a number of the first books used deal with the same characters, giving children a feeling of familiarity with the material and adding to their confidence in reading;

(2) books are sequenced in increasing difficulty to provide systematic instruction;

(3) graded materials permit teachers a great deal of flexibility in dealing with individual differences and in working with children grouped according to attained reading skills;

(4) teacher guides are available for each book or level, with step-by-step instructions, thus saving the teacher a lot of time;

(5) if used properly, basal reader series deal with all phases of the reading process, guarding against overemphasis of some aspects and neglect of others;

(6) practice of new skills is introduced in a logical sequence;

(7) review is provided in deliberate, well-thought out procedures;

(8) vocabulary is controlled to prevent frustration in beginning reading;

(9) prepared materials save teachers considerable time;

(10) diagnostic tests are keyed to materials teachers will use. (p. 327)

Heilman, Blair, & Rupley (1990) stressed important considerations for teachers when using a basal series. Suggestions in manuals should not be followed blindly nor should they be totally ignored. Teachers should use their

knowledge of their pupils' needs and capabilities to determine what to use, what to modify, and what not to use at all. Organization of a lesson may have to be modified so that it relates to pupils' existing knowledge. Worksheets and activities in workbooks should be chosen selectively; not all recommended need be assigned. Finally, alternatives for independent pupil work and practice need to be developed by the teacher.

Whole - Language

Because there is not yet unanimous agreement as to what constitutes "whole language," an operational definition will be used. For the purpose of this study whole-language is defined as a "child-centered, literature-based approach to language teaching that immerses students in real communication situations whenever possible" (Froese, 1991, p.vii). Whole-language is often referred to as a philosophy - a way of thinking about how children learn to read and to communicate. Research does not indicate that teachers, especially beginning teachers, start with a philosophy regarding the teaching and learning of reading and then carefully structure their methodology, materials, and strategies around it. Research does indicate, however, that teachers begin with decisions about content and activities and what they perceive to be expected of them rather than with specific objectives of what to teach and how to teach it; most often decisions about reading instruction is

pragmatic rather than philosophic (Froese, 1990; Duffy,

Roehler, & Putnam, 1987; Roehler & Duffy, 1981; Shannon,

1989). Durkin (1993) reminded us that "accomplished reading

can be best achieved when reading instruction occurs within

the context of literature, rather than through the

fragmentation and teaching of isolated skills" (p. 363).

She urged teachers to "replace mindless worksheets that

'drill and kill' with literature-based instruction" (p.363).

However, she advised,

> that those who abandon basal readers in favor of an
> exclusive use of trade books and environmental text
> should do so gradually. It is assumed that any teacher
> who contemplates this change is knowledgeable about
> reading and reading instruction; is widely read in the
> field of children's literature; and is industrious and
> well-organized. (p.363)

Heilman, Blair, and Rupley (1990) offered the following

description of whole-language:

> Whole-language is not a method of teaching reading
> instruction. It is a perspective or orientation toward
> the development of literacy. A basic assumption is
> that oral language is acquired through actual use in
> meaningful situations. Whole language advocates argue
> that language acquisition (including reading and
> writing) should be an integral part of the functioning
> of an individual within the environment. Whole
> language is based on the ideas that (a) the function of
> language is making meaning; (b) writing is a language
> activity, so what is true for oral language is true for
> written language; (c) cue systems of language
> (structural features) are present and interact in all
> instances of language; (d) use of language occurs in
> real-life situations; and (e) real-life situations are
> crucial to the meaning aspect of language. (p.31)

Summary

This review of relevant literature has focused on five areas of research that have implications for how beginning teachers make decisions regarding their orientations to reading and language arts instruction and to their instructional practices. These areas of research were (a) teacher beliefs, (b) teacher socialization, (c) teacher decision-making, (d) teacher reflection, and (e) reading and language arts instruction. The commonality throughout this literature appeared to be the belief that teachers are decision-makers who process information and act upon decisions within complex environments. The literature consistently demonstrated connections among what teachers believe and how they come to believe, how socialization of teachers affects their beliefs and decision-making, and how reflective thinking aids teachers in clarifying their theories of teaching; to help make explicit for them what is implicit and help them develop frames of reference and perspectives through which they can shape and direct their work of teaching.

Learning to teach reading is a complex task and further complicated by debates on the most appropriate models and approaches or methodology. The research for this study contributed information which indicated that teacher education training in reading and language arts has low impact on preservice teachers; they enter training with

preconceptions already in place about what a teacher of reading and language arts is and does, based on personal experiences in their own schooling. The lack of reflective thinking during course work and field-experiences, especially student teaching, and in the beginning years of classroom teaching fails to promote successful professional development in this area. As preservice teachers are trained currently and as schools seem to maintain the status quo, new teachers are simply socialized into the existing environment of the school. Try as it may, teacher education in its present state, may have relatively little control over beliefs, decisions, and practices of beginning teachers.

The study of the literature pointed out that research on teaching must examine not only teachers' behaviors, but also their judgments, plans and decisions in relation to that behavior (Shavelson, 1993) - the _why_ of what they do.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Selection of the Naturalistic Paradigm

This investigation was designed to provide insights

into a select group of beginning teachers' (during their

first and second years of teaching) views of their work and

the meaning they brought to it as it related to the teaching

of reading and language arts. The focus was primarily on

how first-year teachers described their beliefs about

learning to read and their instruction in the reading and

language arts area, how they described and negotiated

influences impacting them, and whether, based on reflection,

their beliefs and instruction changed in their second year

of teaching. This investigation was an attempt to develop an

interpretative framework for analyzing teachers' implicit

theories and their personally held system of beliefs and

principles that determined their cognitive frames of

references. The teachers' reflections on the role and

influence of their training institution, as well as the

impact of their school system and support personnel, all of

which were the same for all the teachers involved in the

study, were analyzed.

The research style was naturalistic as defined by

Bogdan & Biklen (1992). In this particular type of study

the researcher spent time with the subjects in their natural settings (the classroom) observing what they normally did in the course of their teaching. As time was spent with the subjects, the relationship became less formal and the subjects talked opening about their teaching and confided in the researcher.

As early as 1851 (as cited in Burgess, 1984), Mayhew in the preface of his report, <u>London Labour and the London Poor</u>, commented on publishing the history of a people "from the lips of the people themselves - giving a literal description of their labour, ... their trials, their sufferings, in their own 'unvarnished' language..."(Mayhew, 1851, p.iii). Goetz and LeCompte (1984) described educational ethnographic research as a means of providing "rich, descriptive data about the contexts, activities, and beliefs of participants in educational settings" (p. 17). Strahan (1983) noted that "the basic goals of ethnography are to elevate semiconscious understandings to consciousness, to make tacit knowledge more explicit, and to examine the validity of perceptions" (p. 203). He further acknowledged that the most valuable contribution of ethnography to education is the process itself because it is more than a data gathering procedure: "It is a way of seeing" (p. 203), of helping teachers learn more about their own perceptions and perspectives. Others have suggested that naturalistic inquiry is a way of thinking about or

trying to understand the real world or particular events
(Lincoln & Guba, 1985), or, more simply stated, a "snapshot
of reality" (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, pp. 370-371). This
particular paradigm attempts to present "slice of life"
episodes depicting how people feel, what they know, their
perceptions, beliefs, and understandings (Wolf & Tymitz,
1977).

Schwartz & Ogilvy (cited in Guba & Lincoln, 1985)
succinctly stated that "as we think, so do we act."
Qualitative research is emerging in teacher education as a
valuable research tool (Schnur & Golby, 1995). These
authors contend that there are strong reasons for proposing
case study as the professional method of choice because

> Professionals characteristically learn through the
> study of cases, and detached theoretical knowledge is
> of use to them to the extent that it informs the
> decisions they make within their own practice. The
> academic and professional worlds intersect at the point
> where theoretical knowledge informs practice. (p. 17)

The nature of this study was to develop an
interpretative framework for analyzing how novice teachers
described their beliefs and teaching and how they negotiated
the influences impacting them as they engaged in reading and
language arts instruction. The extent of such factors as
the reading and language arts component of their teacher
education program, their own perceptions, beliefs, frames of
references regarding teaching and learning and influences of

the school context were analyzed. William Ayers (Shubert & Ayers, 1992) stated that the

> secret of teaching is to be found in the local detail and the everyday life of teachers; teachers can be the richest and most useful source of knowledge about teaching; those who hope to understand teaching must turn at some point to teachers themselves. (p. v)

Likewise, Shannon (1995) in his attempt to encourage teachers to let their voices be heard, commented that although

> most teach behind closed doors with little or no adult supervision...teaching is not a private matter at all. It begins with students...includes their families, other teachers, community tax-payers, and more. The lives of children you teach and have taught can touch the lives of all people in the world...The best avenue is one that allows teachers to tell their own stories about their teaching and schooling to the public at large. (p. 465)

Procedures for this study were discussed under eight major headings: (a) background, (b) participants, (c) context of study, (d) design of the study, (e) data sources, (f) trustworthiness of the study, (g) data gathering and analysis and (g) reporting the study.

Background

Since the teachers in this study were all graduates of the same university and teacher education program, it is appropriate that a brief overview of their institution be given. Gardner-Webb University (GWU) is a private, coeducational university affiliated with the Baptist State

Convention of North Carolina. Its purpose is to "provide learning of distinction in the liberal arts and in professional studies within a caring community based upon Christian principles and values" (Undergraduate Catalog, 1993-94, p.8). Gardner-Webb is located in the Piedmont section of western North Carolina in the small, thriving town of Boiling Springs. The institution's progression, beginning in 1905, has been marked by four distinct phases: 24 years as a private high school, 41 years as a junior college, 9 years as a baccalaureate degree institution, and 10 years as a senior institution granting associate, baccalaureate and master of arts degrees, and in 1993, attaining university status. The University offers seven distinct degree programs and 27 major fields. Historically, the University has played significant roles in teacher education and in preministerial preparation for church-related vocations. Programs of instruction and experiences designed to prepare teachers and ministers continue to be prime objectives of the University. Further credibility is given to this statement due to the recent formation and accreditation of the Master of Divinity Program and the Gardner-Webb University School of Education, with Departments of Education, Psychology, and Health and Physical Education housed under these auspices.

Professors in the Department of Education, as well as all faculty involved in the teacher preparation program at

Gardner-Webb University, adopted as part of their knowledge base for teacher education, the model, "Educator as Theorist and Practitioner." Four areas or threads were the focus of the model: The Learner and Learning, Methodology, Social Context, and Professional Development (See Appendix A). This model was established as being descriptive of the faculty's purposes, attitudes, and goals in preparing professionals for productive service in teaching. The outcome should be educators who understand the implications of research on teaching and who are mentally questioning and reflecting on the efficacy of their performance and method of instruction. The participants in this study were required to take, as a part of their program of study, EDUC 302 - Reading Foundations; EDUC 312 - Reading Practicum: Diagnosis and Correction; EDUC 320 - Children's Literature; EDUC 305 - Language Arts in the Elementary School; and EDUC 430 - Methods of Teaching in the Elementary School.

Participants

The population at the beginning of the study, which began midway through the 1993-94 school year, consisted of four first-year elementary teachers from within one county school system who were all graduates of the teacher education program at Gardner-Webb University, Boiling Springs, North Carolina. These teachers were also followed through their second year of teaching. Each participant was individually approached and cordially invited to

participate. The study was conducted in a North Carolina county school system in District 8 with the approval of the superintendent of this Local Education Agency (LEA).

The participants had comparable academic backgrounds and experiences, having shared the same program of study in elementary education at Gardner-Webb University, and comparable personal histories in that they all grew up in adjoining communities, attended the same school system as elementary and high school students and came back to teach in that same particular system.

Each of these beginning teachers had been taught by the same professors for their reading and language arts classes, including this investigator who taught their EDUC 302, Reading Foundations course. The professors responsible for delivering the reading, language arts and communications skills component of the elementary studies program shared similar philosophies regarding the teaching of these areas. Each professor advocated, as indicated by syllabi, a belief that teachers should be instructional decision-makers, understanding theory and current research so as to be able to determine appropriate lesson plans, strategies, creative presentation methods, and ways of diagnosing and remediating problems in reading, without having to depend solely on

teaching guides accompanying commercial reading programs. Each of these professors advocated a whole-language or an enriched approach to reading, meaning, using the words of Froese (1991) "a child-centered, literature-based approach to language teaching that immerses students in real communication situations whenever possible" (p. vii). These professors shared the philosophy and tried to instill in their preservice teachers that reading is far more than a series of skills to be taught; it is a component of language in which the purpose is communication, involving listening, speaking, reading, viewing, writing, and dramatization. Immersing students in children's literature by reading to children daily and having children read and write on a continuing basis was highly stressed in courses. Having been colleagues of these professors for a number of years, the investigator was privy to information shared in classes and strategies modeled for preservice teachers. Preservice teachers were taught to offer experiences, through reading, writing, and hands-on activities that could make reading and language arts relevant, meaningful, and enjoyable. Motivation to read and write and finding pleasure in both were key elements, these professors espoused, in learning to read and write with the ultimate goal of having students become lifelong readers who read for enjoyment, as well as to learn.

The teachers invited to participate in this study were the total number of Gardner-Webb University graduates meeting the following criteria: (a) the teacher must be teaching in the Rutherford County School System; (b) the teacher must be in her first year of teaching at the beginning of the study; (c) the teachers must be teaching one of the grades K - 6; and (d) the teacher must have been taught by this investigator for her Reading Foundations course at GWU.

The elementary studies curriculum in the teacher education program at Gardner-Webb required four courses that pertained to the teaching of reading and language arts. The courses required in the reading and language arts component of the program were designed to prepare the preservice elementary teacher to teach reading and language arts and to understand theory undergirding the practice. Due to the tremendous role literature plays in the lives of children today (The National Study of Literature-Based Reading, 1993), emphasis in the curriculum was placed on the critical study of children's literature, as well as the interrelatedness of all modes of communication. Current literature on the teaching of reading and language arts was read and discussed. Current public school practices were observed and critiqued through field experiences involving observations, then later actual participation and teaching in the public school classrooms, and finally, culminated

with the student teaching experience. A major goal of the program was to help preservice teachers view reading holistically, not as a subject or a series of skills, but rather as a component of language in which the purpose is communication. The intent was that they become <u>reflective</u> instructional decision-makers, rather than <u>technicians</u>, as described in the literature, when teaching reading and language arts.

The subjects were informed both verbally and in writing as to the purposes of this study, the methodologies to be used and the nature and extent of their expected participation. They had the right to review the data and the researcher's interpretations of the data. A written consent form was signed by each participant. The researcher completed the Application for the Use of Human Subjects in Research and submitted it to the Institutional Review Board at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

<u>Context of the Study</u>

The Rutherford County School System was randomly chosen for this particular study from the four systems with which Gardner-Webb University works in the placement of student teachers and other field experiences. This system, possibly because of its close proximity to the university, its familiarity with the Department of Education's graduates, and its high degree of dedication in assisting the university in preparing preservice teachers, tends to employ

a large number of Gardner-Webb graduates as classroom
teachers. This county system served, in 1993, approximately
10,036 students in three high schools, 19 elementary schools
of differing grade level configurations, one Jr. High, and
one Middle School. All of the schools in this system were
accredited by the North Carolina State Department of Public
Instruction and the Southern Association for Colleges and
Schools.

Rutherford County is primarily an industrial community
with a per capita income of $11,287, a median household
income of $23,828 with approximately 9.0 percent of its
families living below poverty level and approximately 41
percent having no high school diploma (1990 Census). The
end-of-grade testing for Rutherford County Schools in 1993
indicated that third through seventh grades scored below the
50th percentile in reading (The Daily Courier, April 14,
1994).

For this study, the Coordinator of Elementary Education
in the Rutherford County School System was contacted and
asked to identify in their employment all the Gardner-Webb
graduates in their first year of teaching. The investigator
examined this list and determined the graduates who met the
criteria for the study. Six first-year teachers were then
invited to participate and four accepted. The following
elementary schools and grade levels in Rutherford County
were represented: Mt. Vernon Elementary (two of the

teachers in the study were employed here), kindergarten and second grade; Gilkey Elementary, first grade; Spindale Elementary, kindergarten.

The Rutherford County School System, according to their Coordinator of Elementary Education, used as its goals for reading instruction the goals of the North Carolina Standard Course of Study. The goal related to reading, in part, stated

> The reading program focuses on gaining meaning from a variety of printed material (e.g. textbooks, newspapers, magazines, reference materials, novels). The program is based on literature which is defined as a representation of life via language as well as what the reader brings to bear on the print through his/her own experiences and emotions. Reading and the development of reading skills should take place in the context of literature (North Carolina Standard Course of Study, p. 108).

This system's state-adopted reading program for the 1993-94 school year for grades 1 - 8 was the Silver-Burdette Reading Series (Ginn) and Circle of Childhood for kindergarten education. According to the Coordinator for Elementary Education, Rutherford County School System was moving toward a whole-language approach to reading and was in the process of "training" their teachers as to what that may entail.

Design of the Study

Earlier investigations provided theoretical propositions and structure for this study (Hamrick &

Strahan, 1988; Kagan, 1992; Smith, 1992; Spooner, 1991;
Strahan, 1990; and Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984). The
research strategy or design was a single case study
approach incorporating the following steps: (1) develop
theory based on previous theories; (2) select cases and
design data collection protocol; (3) conduct case
studies through interviews, observations and documents;
(4) write individual case reports, analyzing for
pattern-matching, replication, themes; (5) draw cross-
case conclusions; (6) modify theory; (7) develop
implications; (8) write one cross-case report (Yin,
1989).

When "how" or "why" questions are being posed, when the
investigator has little control over events as they are
happening, and when the focus is on a contemporary
phenomenon within some real-life context, the preferred
research strategy is the case study design (Yin, 1989). The
definition of the case study as a research strategy, as
explained by Schramm (1971), follows:

> the essence of a case study, the central tendency among
> all types of case study, is that it tries to illuminate
> a decision or set of decisions; why they were taken,
> how they were implemented, and with what result (cited
> in Yin, 1989).

Since this study attempted to describe how and why decisions
were made regarding instruction in reading and language
arts, this approach fit the question.

Characteristics of naturalistic inquiry include grounded theory and emergent design (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). According to Glaser & Strauss (cited in Patton, 1990), "Qualitative inquiry contributes to basic research through 'grounded theory,' essentially an inductive strategy for generating and confirming theory that emerges from close involvement and direct contact with the empirical world" (p. 153). The design, therefore, remained flexible during the collection of the data. Allowing for the emergent nature and development of an interpretative framework was necessary because meaning was determined by context of the data, called "thick description." Emergent design allowed for the unfolding of data, with newer and deeper meanings continuing to emerge and change throughout the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Because cognitions, reflections, beliefs, perceptions, and impressions (all descriptive data) of the participants of the study and the interactions between the investigator and the participants were not fully predictable, focusing only emerged as analysis, categorization, and interpretation of the data took place (Guba & Lincoln, 1981). The theoretical framework began to become focused through the use of the participants' own words and at other times by commenting on and interpreting the participants' perspectives, with each of these approaches allowing for the acknowledgement of the value of the participants' voices (Schubert & Ayers, 1992).

Construct validity was established through the use of multiple sources of evidence, establishing a chain of evidence, and having participants review draft case study reports. External validity was based on the research design and established the domain to which the study's findings could be generalized. To establish reliability, documentation was important throughout the study so that if this same study were conducted over again by another investigator, following the same procedures as described, the later investigator should arrive at similar findings and conclusions. Consequently, the design of this study, given the richness of the cases themselves, allowed major themes and relationships to emerge from the data, providing information for understandings and for extrapolating implications.

Data Sources

The investigator analyzed four elementary level teachers' reflections upon their instruction of reading and language arts during their first and second years of teaching and what they identified as their beliefs and influences impacting their instructional decisions in this area. Information was synthesized from the following sources. First year of study (participants' first year of teaching): (a) Teacher Biographical Data, (b) The DeFord Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile (TORP), (c) A Propositional Inventory: Propositions About Reading

Instruction, (d) Survey of New Teachers, (e) Structured
Interview, (f) Two Formal Observations, (g) Postobservation
Interviews, (h) Informal Visits, (i) Lesson Plans and Sample
Student Work, (j) Reflective Journals, (k) Reflective
Teaching Interview, and (l) Final Reflective Interview.
(See Appendices B-H) Following formal observations and as
part of postobservation interviews, member checks were
conducted to make sure participants' voices and actions were
interpreted correctly. Participants were also asked to read
drafts of individual case studies as they were prepared
after the Final Reflective Interview and offer feedback.

Second year of study (participants' second year of
teaching): (a) The Deford Theoretical Orientation to
Reading Profile (TORP), (b) A Propositional Inventory:
Propositions About Reading Instruction, (c) Survey of New
Teachers, (d) Beliefs About Reading Interview, (e) Two
Formal Observations, (f) Postobservation Interviews, (g)
Informal visits, and (h) Final Interview (Member Check).
Participants were asked to read final drafts of case study
and indicate if they felt they were portrayed appropriately
based on their reported data and the investigator's
interpretations of observations, interviews, journal
reflections, and surveys, and instruments.

The following are descriptions of the instruments
administered:
The DeFord Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile (TORP)

(see Appendix C) was administered to each teacher at the beginning of the study as a means of determining her theoretical orientations to reading (i.e., phonics, skills, or whole-language). It was administered again at the end of the study (at the end of their second year of teaching to compare changes). This instrument used a Likert Scale response system to determine a teacher's beliefs about practices in reading instruction. In the designing phase of this instrument, three phases of data collection were utilized to evaluate the reliability of the instrument: (a) administration to a sample of 90 teachers of known theoretical orientation; (b) comparison of responses by three judges from the field of reading as to their concordance on the profiles expected from phonics, skills and whole language respondents; and (c) observation of fourteen teachers by trained observers who in turn predicted the responses of the teachers on the instrument. Through use of descriptive data, factor analysis and discriminant analysis, the 26-item TORP was proven a reliable, (r = .98) valid instrument for discriminating teachers as to their theoretical orientation to reading (DeFord, 1985).

A Propositional Inventory: Propositions About Reading Instruction (see Appendix D) was also administered prior to the beginning of formal lesson observations and interviews as a measure to identify and describe the orientations of the teachers regarding reading instruction.

It was also administered again at the end of the study,
again to compare changes in teachers' orientations. This
instrument was designed to differentiate among five
orientations to reading: basal text, linear skills,
interest, natural language, and integrated whole. This
inventory is the outcome of a four-year project, Conceptions
of Reading, which was established to provide information
about how teachers use reading theories and models and other
conceptions as they plan and carry out reading instruction.
The nature of the methodology dictated that the over-all
goal of the project be to characterize how teachers think
about reading and their reading instruction. The first year
of the project focused on conceptualizing the scope of the
project and developing measures that would identify
teachers' conceptions of reading. Years two and three
involved field studies in which 23 teachers were observed
and interviewed to determine their conceptions and practices
of reading instruction (Duffy & Anderson, 1982).

The Beliefs About Reading Interview (Vacca, Vacca, &
Gove, 1995) (see Appendix J) was administered only in the
second year of the study, near the end of the teachers'
second year of teaching. This instrument was helpful in
determining both preservice and inservice teachers' beliefs
about reading as to whether they should be rated as "bottom-
up," "top-down," or "not enough information." The inservice
version was administered to the teachers in this study and

their responses were analyzed and rated according to the guidelines for analysis of their statements.

An "informal phase" of this study actually began during the fall of 1993, September through December, during the participants' first year of teaching. Their classrooms were visited informally on a number of occasions by the researcher who just observed, talked with the teacher about how things were going, read to the children on occasion, and sometimes edited student journals and listened to students read or tell their stories.

The "formal phase" of the study actually began in January, 1994. Teachers were asked to begin writings in their journals pertaining to their lesson planning and reflections of their teaching and lessons as it applied to reading and language arts instruction. These writings were brief descriptions of their reading and language arts instruction, evaluations of those lessons, and comments they chose to include. They were asked to add entries weekly throughout the research period. (Some were more faithful than others!)

The Teacher Biographical Data Form, TORP, the Propositions About Reading Instruction Instrument and the Survey of New Teachers (See Appendix E) were all administered during February and March 1994. Lesson observations, interviews, and collections of journals and lesson plans took place March through May, with the

Reflective Teaching Interview (See Appendix H) taking place
at the conclusion of the school year in June 1994. The main
purpose of that interview was to have the teachers "reflect"
on what they learned over the past year about the teaching
of reading and language arts. Questions were asked
pertaining to the development of their notions about reading
and language arts, whether their ideas (theories,
philosophies) had changed from the time they were students
at GWU and what kinds of experiences, in their opinion,
prompted those changes. They were asked to elaborate on
what influenced their decisions regarding their teaching
practices in reading and language arts and asked to
construct a "reflectivity web" as described by Meyerson
(1993). This activity involved (Part 1) the completion of a
concept web through which the teachers identified factors
that they felt influenced their reading and language arts
instructional decisions. Part 2 required the teachers to
provide written narrative explanations for each factor
included in their webs. Through the narratives and follow-
up discussions the teachers told the stories of how these
factors influenced their instructional decisions and whether
that influence was positive or negative. This exercise was
beneficial in that it provided a vehicle for the teachers to
reflect on their personal history and professional
experiences and recognize the foundations (making the
implicit explicit) for their beliefs and to be able to

explain why they did what they did.

The teachers were asked about their teacher education program; whether theories and practices espoused in teacher education were congruent with those of their school system, what teacher education could have done to better prepare them for teaching reading and language arts and what their school system could have done or provided to help them in this particular area. Finally, they were asked how they would teach reading and language arts differently in the upcoming school year and why and in what ways the journal writings and follow-up discussions of their lessons had contributed to their ability to reflect on their teaching. The Final Reflective Interview (see Appendix I) was done in August 1994, just prior to the beginning of the new school year. Questions included: (a) Now that you have had time to fully reflect on your past year of teaching in the area of reading and language arts, what do you plan to do differently? What are the basis for these decisions? (b) What are your concerns about changes you will make?

Each observation and interview was audiotaped and later transcribed and field notes were taken. Each observation ranged from approximately one to one and a half hours each. Follow-up interviews with guiding questions, lasting one to two hours, were conducted with the teachers following observed lessons to discuss particular points regarding their lessons and to explore issues.

Teachers were asked to submit lesson plans or copies of lessons from their planning books regarding the teaching of reading and language arts, at least once each week, January-May of 1994. They were also asked to submit any samples of their students' work (journals, worksheets, writings/drawings, etc.) as they deemed appropriate.

During the teachers' second year of teaching, the investigator observed informally on several occasions for brief periods. A formal lesson observation was conducted with each teacher in September 1995 with a follow-up interview. The TORP, Propositions About Reading Instruction Inventory, Survey of New Teachers, and the Beliefs About Reading Instruction Questionnaire were administered in April 1995. Final lesson observations occurred in May and their responses from the Beliefs About Reading Instruction Questionnaire were discussed. Each teacher read her case study analysis in June as a type of closure and member check. The investigator invited the participants to share their insights and reflections pertaining to their first two years of teaching, especially in the areas of reading and language arts.

Trustworthiness of the Study

> Trust and rapport in fieldwork are not simply
> a matter of niceness; a noncoercive, mutually
> rewarding relationship with key informants is
> essential if the researcher is to gain valid
> insights into the informant's point of view.
> Since gaining a sense of the perspective of

the informant is crucial to the success of
the research enterprise, it is necessary to
establish trust and to maintain it throughout
the course of the study (<u>Handbook on the Research
of Teaching</u>, p. 142).

Goetz and LeCompte (1985) stated that reliability poses
serious threats to the credibility of much ethnographic
work, but validity, in their opinion, may be its major
strength for the following reasons: First, time spent with
the participants allow for "continual data analysis and
comparison to refine constructs and to ensure the match
between categories and participant reality" (p. 221).
"Second, informant interviews, a major ethnographic data
source...are less abstract than many instruments used in
other research designs" (p. 221). "Third, participant
observation--the ethnographer's second key source of data--
is conducted in natural settings that reflect the reality of
the life experiences of participants..." (p.221). For this
study, the following techniques, described by Lincoln and
Guba (1985) were used: (a) prolonged engagement, (b)
persistent observation, (c) triangulation, (d) member
checks, and (e) author's journal.

Prolonged engagement ensures sufficient time to achieve
certain purposes: "learning the 'culture,' testing for
misinformation introduced by distortions either of the self
or of the respondents, and building trust" (Guba & Lincoln,
1985, p. 301). The investigator taught these participants

in a teacher education course and knew them as teacher education students and as student teachers prior to the study. Routine visits were made to their classrooms over a two year period resulting in both formal and informal discussions about their teaching. Sufficient time together allowed a trust relationship to develop to the point that these teachers who were once the investigator's students were not friends.

Another way to establish the adequacy of a "fact" or inference is through the use of repeated observations (Guba & Lincoln, 1981). Persistent observation lends credibility to a naturalistic study due to the amount of time and effort the investigator invests in repeated and continuous observation (Guba & Lincoln, 1981). This was accomplished through a number of formal and informal observations over a two year period.

Triangulation, according to Denzin (cited in Guba & Lincoln, 1981), forces the observer to combine multiple data sources, research methods, and theoretical schemes in the inspection and analysis of data. Yin (1989) described this same process to increase the reliability of the information in a case study as a "chain of evidence" (p. 102). In this study, the various instruments and questionnaires, structured and intermittent interviews, and written comments from journals and lesson plans served as multiple sources for data collection.

Member checks made by the investigator as part of the interviews allowed opportunities for the participants to react to the investigator's interpretations and to verify data. A final member check, done at the conclusion of the study, required each participant to read her case study and respond.

Guba and Lincoln (1981) referred to this process of going to the sources as "the backbone of satisfying the truth-value criterion" (p. 110) and state that "determination of credibility can be accomplished only by taking data and interpretations to the sources from which they were drawn and asking directly whether they believe - find plausible - the results" (p. 110).

The author's journal, the final technique, is applicable to all four areas - credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Following the guidelines set by Guba and Lincoln (1985), the journal contained (a) schedule of the study; (b) personal diary to record, reflect upon, and speculate about insight gained; and (c) a log to record decisions and rationales.

Data Gathering and Analysis

Using Strahan's Model for Analyzing Reflections on Instruction the investigator used the data acquired through surveys, inventories, interviews, observations, journals, reflectivity webs, and examples of the school work of the participants' pupils to synthesize, identify, and analyze

patterns of responses and answers to research questions. Inferences drawn revealed how novice teachers in their first two years of teaching made decisions about instruction in the area of reading and language arts. Included in those inferences were examples of certain incidents, quotes, and observations that appeared to justify, clarify, or give meaning or explanation to the detail of their work.

Early in the fall of 1993 the superintendent of the school system in which the investigation was to be conducted granted permission for the study and the investigator began what she termed an informal phase of the study. She informally visited the four classrooms of the participating teachers in order to get a feel for their normal routines, the "climates" of the classrooms, organizational patterns, and the types of reading and language arts materials and activities being used for instruction. These visits also provided opportunities for the investigator to simply become accepted by the pupils in the classrooms so that eventually their waving and hugging subsided somewhat. Informal discussions revealed that all the teachers appeared genuinely pleased to have been asked to participate in this study. Each participant, having known the investigator for three to four years, assured her that she was welcome in each classroom and may even to "put to work" on occasion, which sometimes was the case!

Record keeping began in January 1994 when the classroom teachers wrote in journals to note their lesson planning and their reflections regarding their teaching of reading and language arts. They were to include any comments relevant to their teaching, which could indeed be a form of evaluation or reflection on how a lesson might have been done differently to be more effective. They were to comment on why specific lessons were included and/or what factors or decisions were the basis for particular lessons.

The teachers completed a <u>Teacher Biographical Data Form</u> which provided germane information about each participant (e.g., sex, age, marital status, school in which employed). Questions on this form also provided information about teaching assistants, mentors, and whether they shared similar views with the teacher about the teaching of reading and language arts. The final questions on this form (#'s 22, 23, 24, and 25) addressed each teacher's personal definition of reading (#22); a stated philosophy or belief about the teaching of reading (#23); factors which shaped those beliefs (#24); and whether her practices, in her opinion, reflected her beliefs (#25).

During February and March of 1994 the participants completed two beliefs inventories, <u>The DeFord Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile</u> (<u>TORP</u>) (DeFord, 1985) and the <u>Propositions About Reading Instruction</u> (Duffy & Metheny, 1979). The <u>TORP</u>'s twenty-eight items used a 5-point Likert

Scale format from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree,"
to determine the respondent's theoretical orientation to
reading by determining if the overall score indicated an
orientation toward a phonics approach (0 - 65), a skills
approach (65 - 110), or a whole-language approach (110 -
140). The investigator classified respondents as having one
of the orientations based on overall scores established by
the author. According to Vacca, Vacca, and Gove (1995), a
phonics approach indicated a belief in the importance of
teaching the relationships between speech sounds and
letters. A skills approach indicated a belief that learning
to read successfully presumes the acquisition of a finite
but sizable number of skills and specific abilities. This
would be the approach generally found in basal series most
commonly used in public school classrooms. Finally, a
whole-language approach indicated the importance of the
integration of all language arts and the need to create
child-responsive environments for learning.

Duffy's and Metheny's (1979) Propositions About Reading
Instruction had 45 items to indicate level of agreement or
disagreement on a 6-point Likert Scale ("c" was neutral or
undecided). The five conceptions or dimensions measured by
this inventory reflected "dimensions of teacher decision-
making in reading" (p. 61). Kamil and Pearson (cited in
Duffy and Anderson, 1982) stated that "every teacher
operates with at least an implicit model of reading" (p. 1).

The dimensions measured by this inventory were: basal text, linear skills, integrated whole, interest, and natural language. The scores obtained via this inventory divulged the respondent as having a "mind-set" or using one of these dimensions as an "advance organizer" in her thinking about reading instruction. For the purpose of this study, basal text and linear skills were combined to mean that the teacher tended to subscribe more to basal/phonics/skills approach. This more traditional approach, considered a "technical" (Duffy & Roehler, 1986) or "routine action" approach to teaching (Wedman & Martin, 1991; Zeichner & Liston, 1987), corresponds with a "bottom-up" model of teaching reading which is essentially equivalent to phonics and skills instruction (Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1995). Integrated whole, interest, and natural language are terms associated with an integrated/language-experience approach, an approach considered to be more in keeping with a "top-down" model of teaching reading which embodies a whole-language perspective. The participants completed both of these inventories as a pretest (at the beginning of the study midway through their first year of teaching) and a posttest measure (at the end of the second year of teaching) and scores for both were reported. These inventories were administered as pretests and posttests measures to determine whether the participants' frames of reference and approaches to teaching, as expressed through these inventories, changed

over time and whether their teaching practices were indicative of their theoretical orientations.

A Survey of New Teachers (Daves, Morton, & Grace, 1990) was also administered in March of their first year of teaching as a pretest and again as a posttest at the conclusion of the study. This survey contained nine questions pertaining to the perceptions of novice teachers regarding beliefs and expectations of teaching reading. Teachers rank ordered variables they felt affected them, using a "1" to indicate what they considered the most important teaching variable. The reason for the pre and posttest was to determine if the teachers' perceptions changed over a period of time - from first year teaching through second year teaching, possibly due to reflection or acclimation.

The investigator interviewed participants using a structured interview (See Appendix F), then during the first year of their teaching observed them on at least two occasions. Interviews followed these observations (See Appendix G). Audiotapes and written transcriptions provided a record of the interviews. At the end of their first year of teaching, for the purpose of reflecting upon instructional decisions made regarding reading and language arts for the upcoming school year, a Reflective Teaching Interview was conducted with each participant in June, just after the closing of school.

The investigator observed the participants' teaching in
September 1994 and again in May 1995, conducted interviews
and administered the Beliefs About Reading Interview (Vacca,
Vacca, & Gove, 1995) at the end of their second year of
teaching. Based on their responses and the rating chart
accompanying the questions, the investigator identified
participants' conceptual. frameworks regarding their beliefs
about reading as "bottom-up," "top-down," or "interactive".

Reporting the Study

This case study was reported as outlined by Lincoln and
Guba (1985): (a) an explication of the problem, (b) a
thorough description of the context or setting, (c) a
thorough description of the transactions or process observed
that are relevant to the problem (thick description), (d) a
discussion of the saliencies or elements identified as
important at the site of the study, and (e) a discussion of
outcomes of the inquiry.

CHAPTER IV

· RESULTS

Introduction

Following is a detailed case study based on the design of Yin (1989). As indicated throughout, the focus of this study was to (a) have novice teachers describe their instructional decisions in the area of reading and language arts during their first year of teaching; (b) identify connections among their beliefs about reading and language arts instruction; (c) determine how novice teachers define and describe major influences impacting their instructional decisions in the area of reading and language arts; (d) determine, after a time of reflection, what teachers do differently in reading and language arts during their second year of teacher; and finally, (e) have teachers describe their instructional decisions in the area of reading and language arts during their second year of teaching. In essence, how did these teachers learn to teach reading and language arts?

Introduction of Participants

Four women participated in the study over a two year period: Kerrie, Pam, Ann and Vickie. Two of the participants, Pam and Vickie, aged 35 and 25 respectively, were married with children. Kerrie, aged 25, was unmarried

and Ann was a divorced 40 year old with older children.
Pam, Kerrie and Vickie were products of the same school
system which employed them as teachers; all were graduates
of the same teacher education program; all were employed in
the same school system as elementary teachers; and all were
in their first year of teaching when the investigation
began. The four participants, while at the university, had
been students of the investigator who had taught their
Reading Foundations Methods course and then had placed them
for their Reading Practicum and student teaching experiences
in the public schools. Pam, Kerrie, and Vickie did their
student teaching together in the same public elementary
school while Ann completed hers in an elementary school
within the same LEA.

Pam

Pam was from a small town in North Carolina. She went
to elementary school, middle school, and high school in the
same school district in which she now teaches. She was
married and the mother of two children, aged 9 and 11, at
the beginning of the study. Pam was considered a non-
traditional university student because she was 35 years old
when she graduated. She was considered an excellent student
based on her high GPA, her performance in classes and in
student teaching (grade 2), her evaluations, and her ability
to get along well with her peers, professors, and her
pupils. She was a cheerful person with a warm, sunny

disposition who laughed a lot. Before settling at GWU as a teacher education student, she attended three other universities and worked as a preschool teacher and did some substituting in the public school classrooms.

In her first teaching position she was hired as a first grade teacher at a small rural elementary school with 24 students. She was assigned a mentor as is required by the State of North Carolina and was paired with a teaching assistant with sixteen years experience. When Pam was asked to write her personal definition of reading, this was her response:

> To understand that printed material provides meaning and has a purpose. It can be used to give information that is real or used to expand one's imagination and take one to places not seen. It is a way to travel without ever leaving. It is pleasure - a key to locked and often closed doors.

In describing her beliefs regarding reading instruction and her personal philosophy of reading, she wrote,

> Children should be surrounded by print and read to often. Only through exposure will they become good readers. They have to learn that print relays messages that are important, fun, and interesting. Learning to read should be a goal that is reached because they want to learn to read. They have to learn to <u>love</u> books. This is often done by using simple picture books with rhyming words - easy to read and understand. Build upon this - <u>encourage</u> and confidence will grow.

Pam's classroom was very interesting to observe, but most difficult to get on audiotape! She usually had a lot

of things going on in class at the same time (using learning
centers), thus making it difficult to record everything and
hear anything! Although she had a schedule which she shared
with the investigator, she rarely followed it or her
sometimes written lesson plans. However, even with no
formal written plans, her classroom did not appear to be
unorganized nor unplanned, in fact, everything ran smoothly.
Pam used a lot of "teachable moments" based on a child's
question, or the children's responses to her questions, or a
significant observation in a piece of children's writing.

She wavered a bit in her teaching philosophy early on
due to the strong influence of her veteran assistant.
Concerning her influence Pam commented that "the assistant
was used to no noise, sit down work and quiet, respectful
second graders, and a quiet, very predictable teacher." She
explained further,

> She was more structured. She had been in the school
> system for sixteen years and had been with one
> particular teacher for seven years which was second
> grade. You come in and do your seatwork and you are
> VERY QUIET. I am on the other extreme and it's hard on
> my assistant...so I felt bad, I felt guilty, I felt
> like maybe I'm not doing what I'm really supposed to be
> doing. Even though my heart was in the centers
> [learning centers], I felt guilty. When I first went
> in, I thought well I won't start centers for awhile
> [because she disapproves]. I'll gradually go into this
> thing. And then I thought, no, this is my room. I'm
> going to start centers on Monday. And to hell with
> them! And that's what I did!

Pam was an enthusiastic, bubbly teacher who rarely sat
down and kept her students constantly involved and

interacting with each other and with her through using natural language of the children and children's books for reading, writing, speaking, listening, and art activities. She commented that all she needed to teach reading and language arts "was a good children's literature book" and that she could "build all kinds of lessons around the stories," which she did. The classroom was "littered" with children's work. She was eager to share their journals, drawings, and little "books" they had written. Art and written stories hung from clotheslines strung across the room and were attached to the window blinds with clothespins. They were posted on a "real" bulletin board inside the classroom as well as on a makeshift one in the back of the room. Their work spilled out into the hallway where it was displayed on the classroom door and on the wall of the hallway. Her students had created charts which depicted zoo animals, weather, transportation, and an interesting rather complicated one for first graders about dinosaur facts and illustrations. "Words" were randomly written on the chalkboard near the Writing Center (e.g., seashells, sand dollar, jellyfish, got, when, starfish, beach, rafts). Although Pam added several words each day to the list that she thought would be helpful to the children's writing, students were encouraged to use "invented spelling" - spell words the way "their brain tells them they might sound."

Ann

Ann was a forty year old from rural North Carolina. She was divorced and the mother of three teenagers, aged 14, 17, and 19. Ann had gone through her divorce proceedings while in her teacher education program at GWU and for awhile considered leaving the program. She was enrolled in the investigator's Reading Foundations Methods course at the time. Ann was encouraged by the investigator and other professors to continue, which she did and later expressed appreciation for the support. She had worked in the public school system as a teaching assistant for one year prior to beginning her university education. This experience gave her insight into a classroom from an assistant's standpoint.

In her first year of teaching Ann was assigned to second grade with 25 children in the same school in which she had done her student teaching. She was the only second grade teacher in this small older school located in a rural section of the county.

She, too, was assigned a mentor and a teaching assistant. She and one other GWU graduate, Kerrie, were hired at this school at the same time and used each other quite often as "sounding boards." Kerrie had been assigned a position in kindergarten and Ann commented that it helped to have someone nearby that had graduated from the same program so that when they talked they more clearly understood one another and were good support for each other.

Ann was asked to state her personal definition of reading on her <u>Teacher Biographical Data Form</u>. Her definition was rather short: "Transfer of information from one person to the next." She was asked to state her personal philosophy of reading instruction and asked about her beliefs regarding the teaching of reading. Again, her answer was succinct and did not really state a philosophy. She simply wrote, "Reading is the most important thing I teach. If my students can read well, they are a long way toward doing well in all other subjects." Her statement indicated the importance she placed on learning to read and how reading affects all other subject areas. Ann further stated on her <u>Teacher Biographical Data Form</u> that she believed, more than anything else, that her university teacher education program, including student teaching, shaped her beliefs about reading and language arts instruction. But she indicated that her practices during that first year of teaching were not indicative of her beliefs. When asked to talk about that she responded,

> ...some of the things I do in reading, I am not sure how they further good reading. I have begun to weed some of those things out. Maybe in the next few years my reading practices will be more reflective of what I believe. Toward the end of the year I have noted that they are more than at the beginning because I feel more comfortable with it. I think I have enough confidence in the other teachers now, that it's ok for me not to do things like the way they've always done them. For instance, yesterday, we didn't have enough teacher's manuals to go around for the Basal series, and somebody asked if I had one. I said, 'I don't have any of the

teaching manuals,' and they said, 'How do you teach reading?' I jokingly said, 'Very well, I hope.' I've read the manuals but I don't use the manuals.

And further,

As other teachers would give me books they would say we do this and we do that - that sort of thing, and so I didn't want to become such a radical that they would say, 'Have you lost your mind?' 'What are you doing?'...'Those kids next year won't be able to read a lick. She is down there doing something really weird!'...now near the end of the year I can get by doing things that I couldn't have done at the beginning...if at the beginning of the year they had come to me and asked how are you teaching reading, I would have felt intimidated by that.

In her structured interview (April, 1994) she was asked to talk about how the teacher education program, including student teaching, had helped shape her beliefs. She responded:

The reason I circled that one [on the TBDF] is because teacher education validated my own beliefs. I had some very important personal beliefs of how important reading was, probably because I have three children and I saw as they grew up how important it was to them to read and to read well. Because if they didn't read well, they were not likely to be successful at anything else. I enjoy reading...you can learn anything you want, become anything you want, through reading. When I got to college, it reinforced all kinds of beliefs and validated what in my heart I felt was right, validated it from a teacher's perspective.

And further,

The very first education course I took was Reading Foundations. I think that one validated my beliefs that reading was the most important thing that I was going to teach - reading and writing and all the

communications skills that go with it. I had five
reading courses [at GWU]) which tells me that teaching
reading must be pretty important!

However, again Ann's comments indicated that the
practices of the other teachers in her school, not her
training, impacted her own teaching to a great degree. In
the Reflective Teaching Interview she discussed the use of
basals and skills teaching and commented in response to the
following question:

> In reviewing the development of your notions about
> reading and language arts instruction, do you think
> your ideas have changed from the time you were a
> student [at the university] to the present time? If
> yes, what experiences produced these changes and when
> did they occur?

Ann responded,

> I guess I do things less radically than I thought I
> would. Children don't read enough in basal reading
> programs - really read - in school...If you go by our
> manual you'll end up reading one story and doing four
> days worth of skills!...I'm not convinced that teaching
> skills improves reading; I think possibly reading has
> improved the mastery of skills. But the problem is
> they don't get to read enough. I use the basal series
> because that is what all the teachers in our school do.
> Nobody told me I had to do that and part of the year I
> used trade books but I covered the basals, too. I
> didn't just not do them, so I am less radical that I
> thought I would be. More conservative. It's from
> getting into the school system. I do more what's done
> by other teachers.

When asked during this interview what she thought had
influenced her decisions regarding her reading instructional

practices, she again referred to her perceptions of what was expected by her colleagues. In doing so, she stated exactly the concerns of Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981) regarding the "washing out" of the university experience once the novice teacher is in the public school system. Ann commented,

> Colleagues [influenced my decisions]. Whether my children were learning or not learning [influenced my decisions]. If students were doing well in reading I let them use trade books, research projects. But for the others, I had a fear of them going to third grade and saying we didn't do such and such. As first year teachers, you have to be careful; can't afford to be reckless the first two or three years. You don't want to create the image that this crazy person just got out of college and knows more than we do! That creates an attitude. We've got to get along and share. We have to ease our way in. Can't afford to hurt feelings.

Ann's explanations pertaining to her practices, which she stated were not congruent with her beliefs, support research findings (Goodman, Shannon, Freeman, & Murphy, 1988), (Shannon, 1989), and (Stern & Shavelson, 1983) indicating that a beginning teacher's focus is largely confined to the classroom at hand with concerns about socialization pressures, transition from learner role to teacher role, curriculum planning, and relating to fellow teachers. She was adamant that no one had told her anything to do regarding her teaching, but she stated, "I know how it has always been done and I know how the other teachers do it, but nobody has told me that I have to do it this way." Yet she was already in the process of conforming.

Vickie

Vickie, also a product of the North Carolina School System, was a twenty-five year old wife and mother of a four year old son. She grew up locally and attended elementary (K-8) and high school in the same system where she was employed as a kindergarten teacher. She also worked in this system for a time as a second grade teaching assistant. Vickie was employed in the same elementary school in which she did her student teaching. Unlike her cohorts, she was not eligible for a teaching assistant because there were only 15 kindergarten students assigned to her classroom. According to Vickie, she and her mentor shared the same beliefs about reading readiness instruction. "We both believe in phonics instruction," she stated.

Vickie was hired in September after school had begun due to the arrival of a number of unexpected kindergarten children so she had no preparation time prior to starting with the children. Her classroom was a tiny room that had served as an office or conference room. It was only large enough to accommodate two tables for the children and some limited space for a few books and other teaching essentials. There was literally no room for the children to move about for any type of physical activities. Since two full walls were windows there was almost no space for displaying children's work or for "decorating" the room in a cheery, inviting manner.

Although Vickie was pleased to have a teaching position, and especially happy that it was kindergarten, she was obviously concerned about the lack of space, lack of teaching materials, no assistant, and a lack of direction for herself. Having no assistant meant that she was totally responsible for the fifteen pupils all day without even a bathroom break. She also believed that she had been given the children with "problems" - discipline and otherwise. Needless to say, that during the first year when she was observed by the investigator she often appeared frustrated and confused, lacking in self-confidence.

On Vickie's <u>Teacher Biographical Data Form</u> she indicated that her own schooling prior to university helped to shape her beliefs about teaching reading and that her practices did reflect her beliefs. In her structured interview she explained,

> Well, we did round-robin reading, you know? A lot of people hate that, but I didn't really see anything wrong with it. <u>I</u> learned to read! We did workbooks. The children seemed to remember things more when they write them down so I don't see that workbooks are a bad thing. I mean I don't think you should do five pages a day, maybe just one page to review the skills that you've learned.

In other interviews she explained,

> You know I keep asking myself - why am I wanting to do these word lists with my [kindergarten] kids. Why am I wanting them to learn how to memorize and how to spell them. I mean, they may not can do that. It kept hitting me that that's what I did in <u>second</u> grade...we

had spelling tests every Friday and that was the most
wonderful thing. I love to spell - I can spell
anything - ask me! So I keep thinking I want them to
be able to spell correctly. The thing I don't like
about whole language is that "invented spelling." I
hate it. I despise it. I guess maybe I could see it
in kindergarten, but I don't want to do it that way,
Certainly by first grade they need to learn how to
spell.

She continued reminiscing about her school memories,

We had those reading groups and I liked those. I loved
them. But I could read fairly well...

If they get it wrong [answers], I circle it and make
them go back and correct it...I guess I learned that in
second grade. She [teacher] would make them correct it
if it took two hours or all day. It had to be exactly
right or she would keep circling it. But I guess
that's how they learn!

The majority of the reading activities done in Vickie's

classroom were the trace, label, fill-in-the-blank variety.

When she did allow the children to draw and write after

hearing a story, she wrote for them, (usually one word) and

had them copy her writing and was always adamant that it had

to be exact.

Getting Vickie to write in her journal was a chore for

the investigator because she claimed she "did not have time"

considering all that was expected of her. Her frustration

was evident in an interview when she stated,

...my first year of teaching I felt like I was pulled
from here to there. I really didn't know which way
worked. I was trying a little bit of everything. I
tried word lists, I tried reading with the children, I
tried the dictionary, seemed like I tried everything.

Vickie seemed at a loss as to what to do and explained that she would have taught more like her cooperating teacher if she had first grade. Even if she had second grade, like when she was an assistant, she claimed she would have known more what to do. But with kindergarten, "It's sort of like they can't do this, so I have to learn what I can do. They can't read and answer questions; they can't _read_, you know."

Kerrie

At age 25, Kerrie represented a more traditional university student who entered GWU immediately after high school, progressed through the four-year teacher education curriculum, and began her teaching career soon after graduation. Of the participants, she was the only one who had never been married and did not have children. Her own pre-university education was in a local K-8 elementary school followed by graduation from a consolidated high school. Kerrie's older sister was a teacher and Kerrie, through the years, had enjoyed assisting her. She claimed that she just always knew that she would be a teacher. Her current teaching position was the only full-time job she had ever held.

Personally, Kerrie was considered by her teacher education professors and her current principal as the epitome of a kindergarten teacher. Patient, cheerful, positive, soft-spoken, diligent, creative, and conscientious, she was an excellent teacher education

student. Her love for children was obvious. In the fall
of 1993 Kerrie assumed her position as a kindergarten
teacher in the county where she was reared and in the school
system where she was educated. The school was small and
rural, the same one in which Ann had also assumed a position
as a second grade teacher. Kerrie had only thirteen
students in her classroom, an overload from the one
scheduled kindergarten class. A teaching assistant was
shared between the two kindergarten teachers and a first
grade teacher was assigned as Kerrie's mentor. Kerrie was
pleased that she and her mentor shared many ideas and
feelings about reading and writing as components of a
child's early school experience.

Kerrie believed that her practices were reflective of
her beliefs and that her beliefs about the teaching of
reading and language arts were influenced by expectations
from her school system, her mentor, and her colleagues. She
explained in an interview in the spring of 1994 that the
general feeling among the teachers at her school was that
reading and language arts should begin in kindergarten. The
principal had discussed his expectations with Kerrie and she
felt him to be supportive of her.

> He said he wanted my classroom to be mine and not be
> like any other in the school. What I think he meant by
> that was he didn't want it like the other kindergarten.
> He said he wanted them [students] to know their
> letters, know their numbers, know them in order and out
> of order, those sounds that the letters make, and to be

able to read...print, and read some of our reading
books by the end of the year. I made that my goal from
day one that these children would read by the end of
the year...He said that if we start them young and give
them all we can in kindergarten, they will want to
read.

She commented on her goals and her beliefs regarding reading

instruction.

Having the children experience the letters, the
alphabet...They would have a love for reading. They
would know how to choose a book.

The reading program here is a probably a happy medium
between teaching skills and whole language. Writing is
very important at our school. I feel that certain
skills should be taught even though I love the whole
language approach. I did incorporate a lot of whole
language. I would do a theme or unit...I did more
skills at the beginning. When I taught the alphabet, I
taught it as a skill because you have to have skills
like that before you can start reading. At the
beginning I was getting "big books" brought in. Before
they realized what they were doing, they were
reading!...While they were learning how to read I would
throw punctuation in so they could learn that also. We
were doing Charlotte's Web. They would draw a picture
and some could write a sentence with it...At the end of
the year, they were just thrilled to go get to read to
the first grade class. Out of thirteen children, I had
twelve reading by the end of the year.

In explaining how she came to develop her notions of

reading and language arts, Kerrie stated,

At the end of my classes and student teaching, I
thought I would be all whole language, but when I got
to the classroom, I did a combination of the two
[skills and whole language]. I really love the whole
language approach and themes. It is different from
what I was taught in school [her own elementary school
experience]. The most impact on my teaching reading
and language arts came from my mentor teacher. She

would tell me things she would like for these children to be able to do by the time they got to first grade. I would go through the <u>Standard Course of Study</u> and check things off.

Like Vickie, Kerrie had a happy memory regarding a teacher that she had in the third grade who made learning interesting and she found herself emulating her. She explained,

> It was the most wonderful year! A lot of the things that I would do this year, I would look back and think if that was just like her...I remember how she did her reading group. We would do skills and she would do other things with us. She was a traveler. She was always bringing us back things. She brought so many things in. I tried to do that this year.

Kerrie's classroom was a cheerful, colorful, inviting room where the children often gathered informally on their huge bright yellow rug for the teaching of various skills and experiencing books through paired reading, individual reading, and listening to Kerrie read from her rocking chair, which she did throughout the day. There was a nice selection of books on the shelves nearby from which the children chose freely what they would like to read and what they wished for her to read. She exposed her students easily and naturally to reading and writing.

<u>Analysis Across Cases</u>

Initially, individual case reports were written about each participant in a descriptive format. Through this process commonalities and unique characteristics of the

participants surfaced and participants began to cluster or
be categorized in terms of theoretical orientations to
reading and learning, instructional decisions, and
practices. The design of this study allowed for the
unfolding of data so that newer and deeper meanings
continued to emerge and change as the investigator worked
with the data. Based on the data and applying Strahan's
Model for Analyzing Reflections on Instruction (Figure 1),
the participants' explicit responses to surveys and
inventories and their implicit views of beliefs and teaching
were explored and reported.

Before the participants were clustered into two groups
and eventually reported on in a single case study format,
the investigator worked through three phases of the analysis
of the data to eventually reach the final analysis and a
much deeper understanding of the participants. The first
analysis of the data culminated in a descriptive case study
on each participant. Results from the data led the
investigator to describe through quotes and observed
incidents her interpretations of the unique characteristics
of each participant. As previously stated Strahan's Model
for Analyzing Reflections on Instruction was an important
tool in assessing explicit comments and behaviors to help
determine implicit views of self and teaching that led to
their decisions. Each participant was asked to read her case
study and comment on whether it did in fact describe factors

that influenced her decisions and her actual practices; was this a clear portrayal of her teacher-thinking and her actions based on her decision-making processes. The outcome of reporting in this manner was an understanding of each participant and her frames of reference.

The next phase of the analysis led to an even better understanding of each participant. As the investigator continued to study the data as it now appeared in the individual case studies, it became apparent that some commonalities existed among the participants as to their thinking about instruction and the type of instruction delivered in their classrooms. They were clustered according to the research base on teacher development describing teachers as either <u>technical</u> or <u>reflective</u> in their orientations. Two of the group appeared to be technical-type teachers while the other two appeared to be reflective-types. Again, this information was shared with the participants who agreed that these terms and their subsequent meanings applied to their views of self, teaching, and learning.

The final phase of the analysis of the data led the investigator to compile a holistic analysis of the technical teachers and reflective teachers under two categories (a) Orientations and Expressions Toward Instructional Decisions During the First Year of Teaching and (b) Articulation of Orientations During Second Year. These categories allowed

for the revealing of supportive data pertaining to the orientations of the teachers and their explicit reflections and practices during their first year of teaching (how they came to understand themselves in the role of the reading and language arts teacher); and then how they articulated those orientations in their second year to become more cognizant of what they were about and respond in a more focused manner in their decision-making.

ORIENTATIONS AND EXPRESSIONS TOWARD INSTRUCTIONAL DECISIONS DURING FIRST YEAR OF TEACHING
Ann and Vickie: Technical Orientations

Through analysis of the data, the investigator identified Ann and Vickie as possessing technical orientations toward reading and language arts instruction. The ways in which they identified and described major influences impacting their instructional decisions and explained how these decisions affected their practices closely resembled what the literature referred to as "routine action" teaching (Wedman & Martin, 1991), a "skills" perspective (Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1995) and "teachers as technicians" (Duffy & Roehler, 1986; Goodman, Shannon, Freeman, & Murphy, 1987; Roehler & Duffy, 1981; Shannon, 1989; Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1995; Wedman & Martin, 1991; Zeichner & Liston, 1987). Vacca, Vacca, & Gove (1995) described this type of teacher in this respect:

> Technicians usually are good at what they do, but what they do is often limited to specific methods of

prescriptive programs of instruction. Teachers who are
technicians often reduce the complexity of teaching and
learning to a set of instructional routines which may
include a variety of drill-and-practice techniques, a
heavy reliance on seatwork, and question-and-answer
recitations. (p.15)

This type of teacher orchestrates assignments and manages

programs to a great degree. They tend to focus on the

lesson plan rather than the students. Those who teach from

the "routine action" perspective, according to Wedman and

Martin (1991), are usually guided by impulse, tradition, and

authority and "uncritically accept the defined practices of

schools and set about to find the most efficient and

effective way to carry out these practices" (p.33). It

makes sense, then, that this kind of teacher would perhaps

be more skills oriented, using a traditional approach to her

teaching of reading. Teachers as technicians most likely

hold bottom-up and interactive conceptual frameworks of

reading emphasizing the teaching of skills in a sequential

and orderly manner, teaching letters, letter/sound

relationships, vocabulary words, and viewing accuracy in

spelling and in recognizing words as important (Vacca,

Vacca, & Gove, 1995).

Analysis of their responses on the Deford Orientation

to Reading Profile indicated both Ann and Vickie were skills

oriented. According to Duffy's Propositions About Reading

Instruction no clear preferences between whole-language

components and basal/skills components were indicated for

either. In their classrooms both used components of each approach. They commented about the importance of whole-language components while still tending to use most of their instructional time for more skills related activities. Vickie's lowest score was with "natural language," perhaps indicating that she was less interested in an approach such as language experience or having children dictate stories. She only allowed the children to copy her writing, insisting they do it over if it was not exact. Her highest score was "integrated whole" which may have implied an interest or belief in creating themes in which she pulled her curriculum together. She had a list of themes or units posted on the wall that the kindergarten teachers had decided on based upon the <u>North Carolina Standard Course of Study</u>. She read to the children from children's literature books and discussed the stories with them as part of these units.

According to Ann and Vickie's perceptions, they had freedom from their principals to make their own decisions and use any approach to the teaching of reading, giving them the opportunity to exercise their beliefs or philosophies. Ann chose to continue the established basal program, in spite of the fact that the students in the past in her school scored particularly low on standardized reading tests. At one time she stated that "reading is probably the weakest thing we do here." Her concern for the program and for the children were evident in comments.

> They [the teachers] will tell you it [reading] is a
> weakness here. I have my own ideas about why. I don't
> think the children get a good start. We are a good
> grade behind at every level. Children are not where
> they ought to be. The tests scores last year were on
> grade level until we got to 7th and 8th grades. They
> dropped below the projective. ...I'm not sure the
> children here get a good beginning.

Ann discussed the importance of the North Carolina

Standard Course of Study as an influencing factor in what

she taught, still insisting that "nobody told me anything I

had to do." She remembered that her principal had said that

"students in the 6th grade don't do poorly on the 6th grade

writing test just because of the 6th grade teacher...it's a

building process all through the years...beginning in

kindergarten." Ann realized that although her students

would not be tested, she felt a responsibility and an

expectation from her principal to teach writing "because my

students will be tested eventually." Her reasons for

teaching writing appeared to be based on eventual test

scores and not on any particular philosophy that she held.

Vickie wasn't sure of her role and based her decisions

on her own past experiences and what her colleagues around

her were doing. She explained her classroom activities in

the following manner:

> Well, sometimes I did whole group; sometimes I did
> centers. Sometimes we were structured; sometimes we
> weren't. Sometimes I worked with these kids while
> those were over playing, because I didn't have an
> assistant to read to them or do something. I guess my

> peers, my colleagues, have influenced what I do...I'm a
> little guinea pig, trial and error, I try every-
> thing...see what's working, see what's not. If it's
> not I just stop it.

The investigator found it difficult to determine
exactly what Vickie believed about the teaching of reading
and language arts at the kindergarten level. It appeared
her background experiences had played a major part in her
decisions about what she thought she should be doing, as
indicated earlier. Her lesson plan was simply her daily
schedule. She explained her rationale as to what she did
and why in the following quote:

> Well, actually I looked in the combination classes. I
> looked in Miss N.'s class and it was very
> unstructured - everything in her room. They didn't
> have desks, everything was hands-on, and they didn't do
> any real writing [indicating they <u>did</u> use "invented"
> spelling]. I looked in Ms. S.'s class and she is
> exactly the opposite. <u>The</u> most structured person. At
> least <u>five</u> worksheets a day had to go home. The kids
> worked and worked and worked themselves to death and
> they did a lot of whole group things. I thought, well,
> I just couldn't really decide. I liked them both.

Vickie commented that the teachers she had "modeled"
after had been teaching 20+ years and when she had asked of
them how they knew what to do their responses had been
"that's just how we've always done it."

The <u>Survey of New Teachers</u> revealed that Ann held
reservations about not spending more time using children's
literature, learning centers, and time for silent reading
while other responses indicated she spent a great deal of

time using basals, round robin reading, and workbooks/
skills. Vickie, too, spent instructional time using
children's literature, writing activities, and
workbooks/skills, but indicated that she would like to place
more emphasis on basal readers and children's literature.
This survey also indicated Ann's and Vickie's perceptions of
what they believed administrators, parents, and other
teachers expected of them. They agreed, that with the
exception of the administrators, others expected them to
maintain the status quo by continuing to rely on workbooks,
skills sheets, and teaching from the basal series.

Ann's and Vickie's Reflectivity Concept Webs (See
Figures 2 and 3) indicated what they considered major
factors impacting their reading and language arts
instructions. Ann listed (a) university courses; (b) her
own children's reading education; (c) her own personal love
and respect for reading and writing; (d) her principal's
emphasis on improving writing scores at her school; (e)
fellow teachers; and (f) the State adopted reading series.
Vickie listed as major factors (a) her own elementary
training (basals, reading groups, word lists, skills
sheets); (b) colleagues; (c) lack of reading materials (no
children's literature books and no funds to purchase; (d)
university studies; (e) NC Standard Course of Study; and (f)
having no teaching assistant (limiting her options of
methods). And finally, the Beliefs About Reading Interview

My own childrens' reading education

My love and respect for reading and writing

College courses relating to teaching Language Arts

Major Factors that have influenced the way I teach reading and Language Arts

Principal's emphasis on improving writing

Other teachers in my school

Reading series used in my school

Center's
self-discovery method

books
reading groups
word lists
skill sheets

hard to keep
one group busy
and work with other

colleagues

My own elementary training

Having
no
assistant

Major Factors that have
influenced the way I teach
reading and Language Arts

lack of
(reading) materials

no reading
books

College
Studies

Standard Course
of Study

Knowledge
of ABC's, rounds

portrayed Ann's orientation toward reading as interactive or moderate top-down and Vickie's as interactive, supporting evidence that although they mostly appeared to be "technical" teachers, they realized the importance of components of the whole-language approach and incorporated elements into their lessons.

Ann had stated on her Teacher Biographical Data Form that she believed, more than anything else, that her university teacher education program, including student teaching, shaped her beliefs about reading and language arts. She explained that all the teachers in her school relied on the basal approach for the teaching of reading and language arts, basically going step-by-step through the teaching manuals. Since the university experience, as perceived by Ann, impacted her beliefs and her colleagues impacted her practices, and no one really told her what was expected, Ann was asked how she reconciled this to decide how to conduct her reading and language arts program in her own second grade classroom. How did she decide what to do?

> Well, I thought about being radical, and I decided the first year of teaching that it probably would not be a good idea because of the way the system is set up. I really believe that beginning teachers, although it is not verbalized because of initial certification, and because nontenured teachers are treated differently from tenured teachers, I think that you are very careful not to change things, not to do something that would rock the boat...cause trouble or call attention to yourself. I think I began my reading program just like it had been done with those basal readers and yet incorporated writing and other activities or other things to go around it. I was so afraid somebody would

> say, 'You know they [students] never read the second
> grade reading book.' Yet nobody verbalized that. The
> principal, in fact, gave me reign to 'do what you think
> you need to do.' Almost more freedom than I can
> handle!

Ann described how she used basals and that the children will

have read "all of the stories in there."

As previously mentioned Ann had indicated on her

Reflectivity Concept Web that her own "love and respect for

reading and writing" was a major factor influencing her

teaching although she never really explained the connection.

During the school year she was able to buy from some funds

$1000.00 worth of trade books and she seemed pleased that

she now had these books, so that "when my children finish

their assignments, they are expected to go and get a book to

read." However, when asked if she ever talked with the

children about the books they read she replied, "No, I have

not had the time to do that. It is a time problem." Ann

did incorporate some journal writing and there was at least

one writing assignment during the week that would be edited

and revised.

Vickie obviously considered her first year of teaching

to be a complex and difficult task and she was frustrated

and floundering. The investigator had known Vickie to be a

bubbly, happy person with a ready smile. During her first

year of teaching her personality changed so that she was not

as friendly, although always kind. Data showed that she was

skills oriented and used much of her instructional time
using workbooks/skills sheets and children's literature
(read by the teacher). She tried to impose on her
kindergarten students assignments and expectations that she
recalled from her own elementary years at higher grade
levels.

Kagan's (1992) study on teacher development
corresponded well with Vickie's professional development.
Kagan had indicated that novices' "attitudes toward pupils
grow more custodial and controlling" and that they design
instruction "to discourage disruptive behavior" not to
promote learning. Further,

> Candidates come to programs of teacher education with
> personal beliefs about classrooms and pupils and images
> of themselves as teachers...these prior beliefs and
> images are associated with a candidate's biography:
> his or her experiences in classrooms, relationships
> with teachers and other authority figures,
> recollections of how it felt to be a pupil in
> classrooms. (p.154)

Vickie wrote in her first journal entry, "It's hard to teach
a class with so many discipline problems and no assistant."
And in February she wrote, "I don't feel like I'm as
prepared as I need to be." It appeared from Vickie's last
journal entry in April of her first year of teaching that
she was still unclear about her role in teaching reading or
reading readiness. She stated in her journal,

> I think that [regarding reading] a combination
> memorization, repetition, phonics may be the answer.
> I've been experimenting with all three. This sure is a
> hard year!...What do I teach first and then what order?
> Do I go on if they don't know or do I go back to
> it?...I would have liked to have read more with them.
> I think some could have really blossomed if I had the
> time to sit down with them.

ARTICULATION OF ORIENTATIONS
DURING SECOND YEAR OF TEACHING
Ann and Vickie: Technical Orientations

Ann's final interview during her first year of teaching

revealed plans for the next school year. She was excited

and intended to use different strategies for teaching

reading and language arts. She had commented that her

journal writing for this study and the interviews and

conversations had helped her to reflect on her teaching in

reading and language arts and as she "reflected," she was

"convinced she needed to change." She stated,

> If we had not done this, I would not have reflected.
> Maybe I would change without help of reflection, but
> this has helped me to question why did I do this?...It
> caused me to think.

She believed that the administration wanted more trade

books in the classrooms and encouraged them to read more to

the children, but "they fail to tell us where to get the

books without more money." She had searched for the

suggested books indicated by the basal series but found they

were too expensive for her to buy. She was disappointed

that current children's literature books were so scarce in

the school library, and supposed that this, too, was due to lack of funds.

Ann's plans for the upcoming school year included a classroom without straight desks (she had nice neat rows her first year) and several learning centers, which she did not have her first year. There were plans for centers for math, science, art, reading and writing; lots of cooperative learning and sharing of ideas among students; book talks; having 4th and 5th grade students come down and read with her 2nd graders; lots of writing and sharing ideas; and research projects designed so that students could work together.

Ann tried to institute her plans during the second year of teaching. However, she had been moved to a mobile unit from her large classroom and physical space hindered the arrangement of her learning centers and students' desks, but she was still able to incorporate "center work" and allow students to work cooperatively at times. Ann confided that she was still undecided about how to teach reading.

> There is no one best way to teach reading. Hit them all! Children are so different. Whole language is not the answer; skills are not either. I guess I'm in the middle. I am undecided about how to teach reading. I keep thinking change. I've decided that you have to do what's best for your particular students that year...I keep changing my mind about what to do. I don't think I have access to enough reading literature materials to use. There are too few books in the library to accommodate the school. I only have two good readers in this class. On the skills test from Silver-Burdette one made 100% and the other made 95%. It's like they

> internalized the skills - they weren't formally taught.
> Seems if you are a good reader, you know skills well.
> If not, they didn't know the skills when taught them
> and reading didn't improve with the teaching of skills.

Ann was optimistic that a committee had been formed by the principal to look at different ways of teaching reading in her school. The idea was that the teachers would communicate and collaborate with each other and learn more about what each teacher does at each grade level. Information could be shared so that teachers understood what was expected and had been taught in each grade level. Portfolios would also be kept on each student with examples of their writing for each teacher to chart development. Ann believed that this was a positive move in the right direction so that teachers would at least communicate and then perhaps "change" would take place, warning that it would come "slowly."

Strahan's Model for Analyzing Reflections on Instruction (1989) provided a means of describing Ann's orientations regarding reading and language arts and her frames of reference forming the basis for her instructional decisions. Ann implicitly operated from a skills conceptual framework and a concern for the opinions of her colleagues which guided her decisions to use basals and skills sheets. Her interactive or moderate top-down approach to reading explained her plans to use literature and writing and her belief that students need to "read more." (See Table 1)

Table 1

Ann's Orientations and Frames of Reference Toward Teaching Reading/Language Arts

End of First Year of Teaching	End of Second Year of Teaching

According to the Deford Orientation to Reading Profile:

Skills oriented (Scored 85 on a range of 65-110)	Skills oriented (Scored 88 on a range of 110-140)

According to Duffy's Propositions About Reading Instruction:

No clear preference indicated;
reported less interest in skills
and interest; reported most
agreement with natural language
 	
  - Basal text (+2)
  - Linear skills (-1)
  - Interest (-1)
  - Natural language (+5)
  - Integrated whole (+1)
	No clear preference indicated;
	reported less interest in skills
	and interest; reported most agree-
	ment with natural language; scores
	also increased for integrated whole
	  - Basal text (+2)
	  - Linear skills (-2)
	  - Interest (-2)
	  - Natural language (+6)
	  - Integrated whole (+6)

According to Survey of New Teachers
(Daves, Morton, & Grace, 1990)

Believes her <u>undergraduate reading courses</u> encouraged her to use language experience, writing activities, and free silent reading	Believes her <u>undergraduate reading courses</u> encouraged her to use language experience, children's literature, and writing
Believes <u>Administrators</u> encourages writing activities, children's literature, computer-assisted instruction	Believes <u>Administrators</u> encourages writing activities, language experience, free silent reading
Believes fellow <u>teachers</u> think it best to use basal readers, language experience, writing activities	Believes fellow <u>teachers</u> think it best to use basal readers, workbooks/skills, writing activities
States <u>parents</u> do not comment on what they believe is best to use	Believes <u>parents</u> think it best to use basal readers, workbooks/skills, writing activities
Spends much of instructional time using basal readers, writing activities, language experience	Spends much of instructional time using silent reading, writing activities, basal readers
Concerned she may be spending too much time using basal readers, round robin reading, and workbooks/skills	Concerned she may be spending too much time using round robin reading, basal readers, workbooks/skills
Concerned that she may not be spending enough time using children's literature, learning centers, silent reading	Concerned she may not be spending enough time using children's literature, writing centers, language experience
If she could improve the way she taught, she would place more emphasis on children's literature, learning centers, writing activities	If she could improve the way she taught, she would place more emphasis on children's literature, learning centers, writing activities

Table 1 (continued)

Ann's Orientations and Frames of Reference Toward Teaching Reading/Language Arts

End of First Year of Teaching	End of Second Year of Teaching
To confidently make adjustments in the way she teaches reading, she would need support of principal, parents, curriculum director	To confidently make adjustments in the way she teaches reading, she would need the support of parents, resource for new ideas, a graduate course in reading money to purchase children's lit books

Reflectivity Concept Web
(Meyerson, 1995)

Major factors impacting her reading
and language arts instruction:
- GWU courses related to reading and
  language arts
- Her own children's reading education
- Love and respect for reading and writing
- Principals emphasis on improving writing scores
- Fellow teachers
- Adopted reading series

Beliefs About Reading Interview
(Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1995)

Orientation toward reading tended
interactive or moderate top-down
as indicated by comments:
Question: Main   Instructional
Goal:
- Teach them to recognize words;
  decode words (BU)

Question: Teacher Responses When
Students Make Oral Reading Errors:
- I correct it (BU)

Question: Most Important
Instructional Activities:
- Writing (TD)
- Reading trade books (TD)
- Book talks (TD)
- Journals and written assignments
  (TD)

Question: Introducing   New
Vocabulary Words:
- I don't do anything at all (TD)
- Tell them no definitions (TD)

By the end of Ann's second year of teaching she appeared more confused and perhaps a little less confident than during her first year. The makeup of her class as far as maturity and capability was so different from her first year of teaching that she seemed uncomfortable in trying some of strategies she had planned. She commented in her Beliefs About Reading Interview that she had very immature students - "three and four year olds parading as seven year olds." She noted that this group of second graders "made me doubt my ability to teach." Ann claimed she had more difficulty "controlling" this group of children.

During the investigator's observations it was noted that she still used the basal series as her main program of teaching reading along with the added centers. She stressed again and again in her interviews and journal that skills and phonics generalizations should and must be taught. She seemed to recognize the literature-based approach in theory, but had difficulty fully accepting and applying this approach, questioning its validity over the basal/skills approach.

Of the four participants in this study, Vickie made the most dramatic progress in terms of change. The TORP, Duffy's Propositions About Reading Instruction, Survey of New Teachers, and a Beliefs About Reading Interview was administered at the end of Vickie's second year of teaching. The TORP still indicated that she was skills oriented and

Duffy's <u>Propositions About Reading Instruction</u> indicated still no clear preferences. The <u>Survey of New Teachers</u>, in comparing the pretest with the posttest, showed few changes. (See Table 2) During her first year, Vickie perceived her administrators as not encouraging her to use any particular methodology or program. Her posttest revealed that now she believed they were interested in her using language experience, writing activities, and learning centers. She based this belief on curriculum materials designed by her system's curriculum specialists and given to kindergarten teachers near the end of the school year during her first year of teaching. Vickie indicated on this survey that she spent much instructional time during her first year using workbooks/skills sheets with some writing and children's literature but had added "language experience" during her second year. Her response to the statement, "If I could improve the way I teach reading, I would place more emphasis on..." indicated a heavier emphasis on writing activities and language experience, followed by workbooks/skills.

Vickie's <u>Beliefs About Reading Interview</u>, administered at the end of her second year of teaching, revealed that her orientation to reading was an interactive approach. In this interview she again expressed her beliefs about the importance of phonics and skills instruction as well as the importance of shared book experiences, paired reading, reading to the children, having the children pair for

Table 2

Vickie's Orientations and Frames of Reference Toward Teaching Reading/Language Arts

End of First Year of Teaching	End of Second Year of Teaching

According to the Deford Orientation to Reading Profile:

Skills oriented (Scored 73 on a range of 65-110)	Skills oriented (Scored 75 on a range of 110-140)

According to Duffy's· Propositions About Reading Instruction:

No clear preferences indicated; seemed less interested in working with children's natural language	No clear preferences indicated; since natural language scores are lowest for pre/post, less interest in language experience approach

- Basal text (+7)
    - Linear skills (+6)
    - Interest (+6)
    - Natural language (+1)
    - Integrated whole (+8)
	- Basal text (+5)
	    - Linear skills (+9)
	    - Interest (+5)
	    - Natural language (+3)
	    - Integrated whole (+7)

According to Survey of New Teachers
(Daves, Morton, & Grace, 1990)

Believes her <u>undergraduate reading courses</u> encouraged her to use children's literature read by teacher, children's literature instructional	Believes her <u>undergraduate reading courses</u> encouraged her to use language experience, learning centers, children's literature read by teachers
States doesn't know what <u>Administrators</u> encourage; never been told language experience, writing activities, learning centers	Believes <u>Administrators</u> encourage language experience, writing activities, learning centers
Believes fellow <u>teachers</u> think it best to use workbooks/skills, writing activities, learning centers	Believes fellow <u>teachers</u> think it best to use writing activities, learning centers, language experience
Believes <u>parents</u> think it best to use workbooks/skills, writing activities, basal readers	Believes <u>parents</u> think it best to use basal readers, workbooks & skills, learning centers
Spends much of instructional time using children's literature, writing activities, workbooks/skills	Spends much of instructional time using language experience, workbooks/skills
Not concerned about spending too much time on any activities	Concerned that she may be spending too much time using learning centers and silent reading
Concerned that she may not be spending enough time using silent reading, children's literature, language experience	Concerned that she may not be spending enought time using workbooks/skills, basal readers, writing activities
If she could improve the way she taught, she would place more emphasis on basal readers, children's literature	If she could improve the way she taught, she would place more emphasis on writing activities, workbooks/skills, language experience

Table 2 (continued)

Vickie's Orientations and Frames of Reference Toward Teaching Reading/Language Arts

End of First Year of Teaching	End of Second Year of Teaching
To confidently make adjustments in the way she teaches reading, she would need support of assistant, fellow teachers, resource for new ideas, additional materials	To confidently make adjustments in the way she teaches reading, she would need the support of fellow teachers, parents, principal

Reflectivity Concept Web
(Meyerson, 1995)

Major factors impacting her reading
and language arts instruction:
- Her own elementary training
  (basals, reading groups, word
  lists, skills sheets)
- Colleagues
- Lack of reading materials
  (no children's lit - no funds to buy)
- College studies
- N.C. Standard Course of Study
  (Goals: Knowledge of ABC's, sounds/
  phonics)
- Having no teaching assistant
  (almost always work with whole groups)

Beliefs About Reading Interview
(Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1995)

Orientation toward interactive philosophy as indicated by comments:

Question: Main Instructional
Goal:
- Drilled phonics (BU)
- Sound out words (BU)
- Beginning sounds (BU)

Question: Teacher Responses When
Students Make Oral Reading Errors:
- Look at the word again; try to
  pronounce it correctly (BU)

Question: Most Important
Instructional Activities:
- Reading to the children (TD)
- Shared book experiences (TD)
- Paired reading (TD)

Question: Introducing New
Vocabulary Words:
- Not necessary (TD)

Question: What A Reading Test
Should Do:
- I can't think of anything
  (NI response)

reading with fifth graders, having them listen to stories and follow with discussion. She was still, however, adamant that children should learn to write "on the line" with "correct spelling," or do it over!

It was interesting to observe Vickie during her second year of teaching and compare those observations with the previous year. She had truly made a lot of progress personally and professionally. She was finally in a regular, quite large classroom in which she had her centers beautifully organized. The room was bright and cheerful with a big rocking chair and a huge colorful rug just perfect for "lying and sitting on while stories are read." She had a teaching assistant because she had a larger number of students and the two of them worked well together. This year the walls were covered with children's art and writing, albeit "copied" writings and not original stories. Charts with poems were evident as were shelves with lots of books, but most not kindergarten nor first grade level, due to "lack of funds." Vickie appeared happier, more confident, and much more organized.

Vickie's frames of reference for teaching her first year had most likely been her own personal experiences with schooling and the influence of her colleagues and she confided that discussions about that, through this study, had helped her to reflect on her actions and make some needed changes in her teaching. The changes brought more

appropriate instruction for her kindergarten students. She confessed that she had craved feedback. "I wanted to know am I doing this right or do you know a better way to do this or could you watch one of my lessons and tell me if I am on the right track or out in left field?" Her scheduled evaluations by her principal did not provide the kind of information or help she claimed she needed and she recommended seminars for first year teachers to share ideas, discuss problems, and affirm each other.

Vickie came to know herself in the role of a technical teacher. Previously she was confused to the point of not knowing what she believed about reading nor how she should be preparing her students; now she was more focused, understanding better why and where her decisions originated.

ORIENTATIONS AND EXPRESSIONS TOWARD INSTRUCTIONAL DECISIONS DURING FIRST YEAR OF TEACHING
Pam and Kerrie: Reflective Orientations

Dewey (1933) made an important distinction regarding teachers' practices when he identified "reflective action" as opposed to "routine action." His notion was that the process of learning was most important; teachers were to serve as facilitators for learning; and textbooks and content were not sole sources of knowledge. Schon (1983, 1987) and Wedman and Martin (1991) built on Dewey's ideas. Schon defined reflective teaching as

> giving the kids reason: listening to kids and
> responding to them, inventing and testing responses
> likely to help them get over their particular
> difficulties in understanding something, helping them
> build on what they already know, helping them discover
> what they already know but cannot say, helping them
> coordinate their own spontaneous knowing-in-action with
> the privileged knowledge of the school. (p. 19)

He suggested that reflective teachers are "artists of teaching" enabling them to deal with unique and uncertain situations found outside of their technical knowledge, choosing an appropriate strategy to utilize before the "teachable moment" passes.

Reflective teaching provides a framework for preservice and inservice teachers to examine their work through "active, persistent, and careful consideration of any teaching belief or practice and the resulting educational consequences" (Wedman & Martin, 1991, p. 33). They defined reflective action as "questioning, analyzing, evaluating, and reconsidering schooling practices in relations to the teacher, learner, curriculum, school environment, and schools and society" (p. 33).

Peterson and Comeaux (1987) reviewed the recommendations of both the Holmes Group and the Carnegie Commission Task Force and indicated that these groups seemed to suggest that an appropriate image of the teacher is one as a reflective or thoughtful professional who possesses several important qualities: (a) the teacher is continuously involved in the process of learning, inspiring

and facilitating higher-order learning in her students; (b)
the teacher's cognitions, judgement, and learning processes
become important dimensions for evaluating the teacher
(ability of reflective practice and quality of reflection);
(c) the teacher's thoughts, knowledge, judgements, decisions
will have a profound effect on the way teachers teach and
students' learning and achievement in the classroom. These
"qualities" imply that new assessment approaches are needed
to evaluate this type of teacher.

An analysis of the data using Strahan's Model for
Analyzing Reflections on Instruction (1990) suggested that
Pam and Kerrie were "reflective teachers" as opposed to
technical teachers. Both designed much of their instruction
based on their beliefs about teaching and learning and
knowledge of their students' interests and needs, using a
variety of sources. Neither were totally dependent upon any
particular program for direction. The TORP for Kerrie and
Pam initially indicated a skills theoretical orientation for
both. An analysis of Duffy's Propositions About Reading
Instruction suggested that Pam believed in using children's
interests, natural language, and an integrated approach to
teaching reading and language arts, with a strong negative
orientation toward the teaching of skills, per se. Kerrie's
scores showed a high level of interest in an integrated
approach, also. Meyerson's (1993) Reflective Activity
Concept Web revealed that during their first year of

teaching, both Pam and Kerrie attributed influences impacting their instructional decisions to university courses, student teaching experiences, and their cooperating teachers. Pam indicated her teaching assistant, her own practical knowledge and beliefs, and student responses were factors, as well, while Kerrie named her principal's expectations and the North Carolina Course of Study as important factors. (See Figures 4 and 5) Both participants indicated on the Survey of New Teachers (Daves, Morton, & Grace, 1990) that they spent much of their instructional time using language experience and children's literature, and that if they could improve their teaching would put even more emphasis on language experience, writing, learning centers, and children's literature.

Pam began her first year of teaching with confidence and optimism about her abilities to teach reading and language arts. Based on her experiences in her university courses and student teaching experience she held a philosophy or an orientation toward whole-language teaching. She had indicated on her Teacher Biographical Data Form that she believed the university teacher education program helped, more than anything else, shape her beliefs about the teaching of reading and language arts and she believed that her practices in the classroom indeed reflected her beliefs. She described herself basically as a "whole-language" teacher, but one that included skills as her lessons called

Inservice workshop affirmed my beliefs

What I believe based on personal and practical knowledge

GWU courses related to reading and lang. arts

Major Factors that have influenced the way I teach reading and Language Arts

My students' responses to reading and writing act.

St. teaching - whole-lang. classroom

Cooperating teacher

My teaching asst.

Principal's expectations

First Grade teacher's help and request

Major Factors that have influenced the way I teach reading and Language Arts

Staying on track with Standard Course of Study

Student Teaching experience

Experience and knowledge gained at GWU

for them. She said she believed two practices to be the foundation of her reading and language arts program: reading good children's literature daily and writing daily using "invented spelling" and editing. She commented in an interview:

> ...reading and writing go hand-in-hand. If you can read, you can write; if you can write, you can read what you have written. I'm talking language experience here! My kids do lots of writing...Do you want to know how we started out at the very first of the year? Everyday we'd go to the carpet. We do skills (a poem chart) and then we get through with all that mess and I would pick a children's literature book to go along with it [theme or unit of study] and then we'll read the book and sometimes it may have a repetitive pattern in it and they'll read with me. We talk about the front and the back; the author and the illustrator. All of this is just part of the whole-language approach. They really got into that! By the end of the year you probably noticed that they were writing 'author' and were writing <u>their</u> names and they were trying to write 'illustrator' and then their names.

She further commented about the journal writing:

> ...at the first of the year we dictated. One of the first stories was <u>Johnny Appleseed</u>. We discussed it, did the social studies part of his travel, planted apples here and there, then we did the journal part. At that point, all they wanted to do, could do, was draw, but they wanted to tell me what to write. All they could do was put a string of letters together. But that's the beginning - that string of letters! It meant something to them. Of course <u>you</u> couldn't read what they wrote, but they could and they dictated so that I could write for them. It takes about an hour...it's time consuming.

When asked where she thought her "beliefs" about this approach to teaching came from, she commented, "It came from

reading all those journal articles about the whole-language approach. I wouldn't have known anything about it otherwise! It was all those articles you made me read." Pam was referring to reading courses in her teacher education program at GWU. Actually Pam knew something of whole-language prior to studying at GWU by having a daughter in a whole-language classroom. She had commented previously about "desks going out, tables coming in; teacher's desk going out and things going on the chalkboard, carpet time allotted for and centers coming in. It was a totally new outlook on teaching."

The investigator had met Pam for the first time when she enrolled in her Reading Foundations course at GWU. Pam was already interested in whole-language and wanted to learn more about this philosophy. She steered her assignments in Reading Foundations in that direction - specifically, her research readings and reactions and her position paper. Eventually, she asked to do her student teaching in a whole-language classroom. Her request was granted.

When Pam began teaching in her own first grade, she was anxious to try the approach she had learned as a student, but she encountered difficulty almost immediately due to the beliefs of her teaching assistant and her mentor. Her mentor was a "...strong basal person. She breaks them down into small groups and everybody in that group is on the same skills chart and everybody does the same worksheets. I

didn't want to do it that way." Pam's assistant had sixteen years with very traditional teachers and her comments and demeanor indicated to Pam that she obviously was not teaching "correctly." Referring to the influence of her teaching assistant Pam pointed out that "she even took the teacher's manual and showed me, 'Look, this is what you are supposed to do!'"

Pam confessed that she tried to follow the teacher's manual and use the basal and its accompanying materials, but she wanted to use more children's literature and do more journal writing, which was at odds with her assistant's way of thinking about reading and writing. So she fluctuated back and forth with real concerns.

In January and February of her first year of teaching she attended two district workshops based on the communications assessments that first and second teachers were required to do. This seemed to be an important turning point for Pam. Her belief in using the pupils' natural language for writing and using an abundance of children's literature for reading were reaffirmed. She wrote in her journal that

> ...the instructor backed up and reinforced everything I
> believe about teaching reading...They told us that
> young children need to have lots of hands on
> experiences, that they should not be taught how to
> spell with "formal" spelling tests, and that literature
> should be used as a basis for teaching. When I am able
> to use these types of techniques, I am at my happiest.

In one interview Pam discussed her inner conflict as
she had tried to make decisions regarding her reading and
language arts instruction:

> It's not that you really feel guilty, it's almost like
> you feel like, what if I am wrong? Yeah, what if I'm
> wrong and it really won't work? But I knew it would,
> or I wouldn't have done it. I think it was ridiculous
> that they had the workshop in January when you need it
> in October or November. Especially first year
> teachers; you need to know that you do have some sense
> after all. That you're not as crazy as you think you
> are. By January I had decided, well, maybe Mrs. M.
> [the assistant] is right! It was a fear that we are
> half way through the year and what if they walk out of
> here at the end and they can't read? But they had this
> workshop in January and I went and it was wonderful
> because I saw immediately that these are my people...I
> know what they are talking about! As a matter of fact,
> I came back and told Mrs. M., 'Get ready, I found out
> that I am right and this is the way we are supposed to
> be doing this!'

It was obvious watching Pam that she enjoyed the
reading and writing (especially journal writing) experiences
in her classroom. She read to the children daily and pieces
of literature were used as springboards for writing. The
children quickly became involved with the stories and just
as quickly, with no hesitation nor grumbling, began writing
in their journals when the topic was assigned. They were
anxious for their teacher or the assistant to read, help
edit, and allow them the opportunity to read their stories
to their classmates. The following is an example of a
typical lesson observed by the investigator: Beginning at
10:15 am the children assembled themselves on the carpet

near their teacher and Pam told them she was going to read

two books to them, <u>If You Give A Mouse A Cookie</u> and <u>If You</u>

<u>Give A Moose A Muffin</u>. She explained that after hearing the

stories, "...we'll compare...we'll look for first, second,

third...and we'll find the problem in the stories." She

read and followed up with lots of questions such as, "How do

you think he felt?" "Why do you think that?" "How do you

know?" "Look at this picture...what do you think...?" The

children compared the two stories, voted on which book they

liked best, using "tally marks" to equal the number of

children present. Then from approximately 10:45 am until

11:40 am the children wrote stories in their journals

similar to the ones they had just heard, with Pam and her

assistant helping them edit as they finished their writing.

The children read their completed stories to their

classmates.

Pam expressed concerns regarding her decision to

operate from this framework. She recognized the

difficulties that her style of teaching and her philosophy

regarding reading instruction could cause for her students

at the next grade level. Her principal had told her that

"he thought new ideas are great. I could do anything as

long as I was doing my job." But in her journal she

recorded:

> In order to know my kids will survive in second grade I
> often feel like I am walking on a very fine line. The

success I have had with their writing journals proves that, dictation, followed by sounding out - editing - and tons of try, sound it out, go back and fix it, what do <u>you</u> think, etc. REALLY WORKS!! But I have to know that when they leave my nest they better know how to read a worksheet, put their name at the top, and fill in the blanks or dot the circles. So everyday I try to give them a blend of both worlds.

Pam came up with the idea of "Imagination Station" to help prepare the children for a more structured second grade experience. Because she knew some of what was expected of the children in second grade, after their spring vacation she had them pretend they were "getting ready for second grade" by learning how to "number their papers" and take formal spelling tests, how to fill in blanks, circle, and underline on skills sheets. She did this

> ...partly because I thought, well, what if they go to second grade and they don't know how to number a paper or know the high-frequency words even though most of them were already spelling the high-frequency words right, I wanted to be sure. You know, this was the back-up. It's like a security blanket so they can't say 'you didn't' and I can say 'yes, I did.'

Pam wrote in her journal about this concern:

My use of ditto sheets has increased as the year has gone on. Usually, I throw out a couple of sheets that reinforce the skills covered from the skills chart. I do this as a whole group, not in reading groups. The main reason I do this is so I can say I have covered the charts and skills and they have done some sort of skills sheet. My kids need to know how to read these sheets and follow directions because they will have them next year. However, I don't spend a lot of time with those sheets.

Pam expressed confusion about whether there were
actually mandates about how reading should be taught in her
school system. She stated, "I think that the school system
[administrators] expects one thing and the teachers expect
another and nobody is coming together." She further
commented:

> ...from what I'm gathering, from what I'm hearing from
> the workshops, they want us to do more hands-on
> writing, use more literature...what I don't understand,
> they want you to do all of this, yet, they buy the
> basal series with all the pull-out sheets...They _say_
> they don't want all these teachers doing ditto sheets,
> so why is everybody doing ditto sheets? It's like
> we've got to do all that stuff...they buy that stuff
> and I say, well, don't we _have_ to use it?

Regardless of her questions about how reading was
"supposed" to be taught, it was obvious Pam believed in her
approach and was clearly proud of the development of her
students in the area of reading and writing during her first
year of teaching. Commenting on their reading and writing
skills, she noted

> ...they can write in their journals and they have
> something to say, not just Dick and Jane. They are
> confident enough. One of the greatest things that I
> really love is Brandy, when she wrote all of those
> three page stories! When she finally got it polished
> and she came up and I read it and I told her this is
> what I'm after, she said, 'Don't you think I deserve to
> read it to somebody?' She was so proud of herself!

Her student, Brandy, was an example of a child afraid to
write for fear of making spelling errors. She would write

only a few words at the beginning of the school year, then erase until there were actually holes in her paper if she misspelled a word. Pam finally convinced her that her ideas were more important than the spelling and that as she became more confident in her writing, the spelling could be corrected. At the closing of the year Brandy was so confident of her writing that she was writing several pages at a time and felt her work "deserved to be read."

The investigator interviewed Pam in June using the Reflective Teaching Interview and asked her to reflect on her first year of teaching and plans for her second year. Her responses indicated that she was finally comfortable in her role teaching reading and language arts from a top-down theoretical framework and would continue using a whole-language approach during her second year of teaching. The workshops that she attended in January and February were a confirming experience. Armed with her beliefs from her undergraduate studies, her student teaching experience, her practical knowledge and the responses of her own students as indicated by Meyerson's Reflectivity Concept Web, she had resolved the conflicts caused by her assistant and her perceived notions about what her colleagues (especially second grade teachers) and the "system" expected.

Kerrie's frames of reference were similar to Pam's. She indicated that she operated from a top-down theoretical base. An analysis of her comments and teaching episodes

depicted a skills orientation combined with a whole-language

perspective in which she incorporated language experience

and a literature-based approach. Her personal definition of

reading from her Biographical Data Form was "getting meaning

from words; being able to reveal meaning from words." She

stated that "reading is the most important thing taught in

school. If a child can read, he or she can do anything.

Without knowing how to read, a child is handicapped and

limited..." She believed that her practices were reflective

of her beliefs.

Kerrie decided on her own particular reading and

language arts program for her kindergarten by pulling from

many sources. She described the variety of materials that

she used to teach reading and language arts, such as blank

charts that she made herself, illustrated dictionaries that

the children created as they learned new words, big books,

troll books, flash cards, bingo and other games, puzzles,

and some skills sheets. Kerrie explained,

> I actually use the things I made in your class
> [referring to the investigator's class], the big book,
> the unit, things you had us do when you had us read,
> the mini lessons. The language arts class also helped,
> as did the field experiences and reading practicum.

There were challenges, however, in the way she chose to

teach.

> Just getting it all organized together. I never wanted
> to make anything boring for the children. Another

challenge was that the children were learning so quickly.

Kerrie's journal entries demonstrated a pattern of enthusiasm and excitement regarding her student's performance and progress. There were frequent references to the teaching of "letter sounds", rhyming words, reading from various children's literature books, drawing and writing, reading games, and field trips. Kerrie's classroom was "print-rich" with quite a number of children's books, most of which she had purchased for her classroom. The investigator noted that between activities the children freely chose books to read individually or to each other in pairs or small groups. Sometimes they read to the investigator.

At least twice each day Kerrie settled into her rocking chair with the children on the floor near her for story time. During these times she asked the children to make predictions, to note the main characters, the setting of the stories, and the main story lines. She fostered expression and acceptance of their ideas in a non-threatening atmosphere. She introduced the concept of authorship and guided the children in writing about topics contained in the books and stories they read. Twelve of Kerrie's thirteen students read fluently by the end of the school year.

Kerrie, as a "reflective teacher," developed her own ideas about appropriate teaching for kindergarten students

from her university courses, her student teaching
experience, and her own goals for her students. The
Elementary Coordinator for this particular school system
informed Kerrie that "Circle of Childhood" was the adopted
curriculum for the kindergarten teachers in this system.
Kerrie's cohort in the other kindergarten in her school,
with her many years of teaching experience, faithfully
followed this program. However, Kerrie chose not to follow
this program and explained in her <u>Reflective Interview</u> that
in planning her lessons she set her goals and objectives,
pulled materials together to meet her objectives, and
"reflected on what was just taught."

<div align="center">

ARTICULATION OF ORIENTATIONS
DURING SECOND YEAR OF TEACHING
Pam and Kerrie: Reflective Orientations

</div>

The investigator observed Pam and Kerrie at the
beginning and ending of their second year of teaching.
DeFord's <u>TORP</u>, Duffy's <u>Propositions About Reading
Instruction</u>, and the <u>Survey of New Teachers</u> (Daves, Morton,
& Grace, 1990) were administered again at the end of the
second year as was a <u>Beliefs About Reading Interview</u> (Vacca,
Vacca, & Gove, 1995) for inservice teachers. (See Tables 3
and 4) Unlike Vickie's and Ann's, the data showed that
Pam's instructional decisions by the end of her second year
of teaching were based solidly on a whole-language
orientation consistent with the idea of "reflective"

Table 3
Pam's Orientations and Frames of Reference Toward Teaching Reading/Language Arts

End of First Year of Teaching	End of Second Year of Teaching

According to the Deford Orientation to Reading Profile:

Skills oriented (Scored 83 on a range of 65-110)	Whole language oriented (Scored 120 on a range of 110-140)

According to Duffy's Propositions About Reading Instruction:

Positive orientations to
    - interest (+10)
    - natural language (+13)
    - integrated whole (+10)
	Strongly Positive orientations to
	    - interest (+18)
	    - natural language (+18)
	    - integrated whole (+14)

Strongly negative orientations to
    - skills (-9)
	Strongly negative orientations to
	    - skills (-10)

Negative orientation to
    - Basal text (+2)
	Negative orientation to
	    - Basal text (+4)

According to Survey of New Teachers
(Daves, Morton, & Grace, 1990)

Believes her underqraduate reading courses encouraged her to use language experience, children's literature, and writing	Believes her underqraduate reading courses encouraged her to use language experience, children's literature, and writing
Believes Administrators encourages language experience, writing activities, learning centers	Believes Administrators encourages language experience, writing activities, children's literature
Believes fellow teachers think it best to use basal readers, workbooks & skills, round robin reading	Believes fellow teachers think it best to use language experience, basal readers, writing activities
Believes parents think it best to use basal readers, workbooks & skills, language experience	Believes parents think it best to use basal readers, workbooks & skills, language experience
Spends much of instructional time using language experience, children's literature, writing activities	Spends much of instructional time using language experience, children's literature, writing activities
Concerned she may be spending too much time using workbooks, skills sheets, round robin reading, basal readers	Satisfied that time is appropriate for language experience, children's literature, and writing
Concerned that she may not be spending enough time using writing activities, workbooks, learning centers	Satisfied that time is appropriate for language experience, children's literature, and writing
If she could improve the way she taught, she would place more emphasis on language experience, writing centers, learning centers	If she could improve the way she taught, she would place more emphasis on language experience, writing activities, children's literature
To confidently make adjustments in the way she teaches reading, she would need support of principal, fellow teachers, parents, and teaching assistant	To confidently make adjustments in the way she teaches reading, she would need the support of principal, fellow teachers, school board

Table 3 (continued)
Pam's Orientations and Frames of Reference Toward Teaching Reading/Language Arts

End of First Year of Teaching	End of Second Year of Teaching

Reflectivity Concept Web
(Meyerson, 1995)

Major factors impacting her reading
and language arts instruction:
- GWU courses related to reading and
  language arts
- Student teaching in a whole language
  classroom
- Modeled cooperating teacher
- What she believed based on personal/
  practical knowledge
- Teaching assistant (beliefs, expectations)
- Pupil responses to reading and writing
  activities (positive learning experiences)

Beliefs About Reading Interview
(Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1995)

Strong orientation to top-down
philosophy as indicated by
comments:

Question: Main   Instructional
Goal:
- Believe in literature-based
  instruction (TD)
- Kids would have a love for
  literature (TD)
- See a purpose in what we do with
  books (TD)

Question: Teacher Responses When
Students Make Oral Reading Errors:
- I leave them alone (TD)
- Okay not to know every word (TD)

Question: Most Important
Instructional Activities:
- Reading to the children (TD)
- Centers around book theme (TD)
- Journals (TD)
- Reading and writing around
  literature book (TD)
- Story writing (TD)

Question: Introducing   New
Vocabulary Words:
- Not necessary; they will figure
  it out from the context or
  picture clues (TD)
- Can get meaning even if they
  don't know every word (TD)

Question: What A Reading   Test
Should Do:
- Have the kids read, ask
  questions (TD)
- Have they been read to at
  home (TD)

Table 4

Kerrie's Orientations and Frames of Reference Toward Teaching Reading/Language Arts

End of First Year of Teaching	End of Second Year of Teaching
According to the Deford Orientation to Reading Profile:	
Skills oriented (Scored 70 on a range of 65-110)	Skills oriented (Scored 79 on a range of 110-140)
According to Duffy's Propositions About Reading Instruction:	
Positive orientation to - Integrated whole (+11)	Strongly positive orientations to - Integrated whole (+15) - Interest (+10) Negative orientation to - Linear skills (+1)
According to Survey of New Teachers (Daves, Morton, & Grace, 1990)	
Believes her <u>undergraduate reading courses</u> encouraged her to use language experience, basal readers, writing	Believes her <u>undergraduate reading courses</u> encouraged her to use language experience, basal readers, and writing
Believes <u>Administrators</u> encourage her to use language experience, basal readers, writing	Believes <u>Administrators</u> encourage language experience, basal readers, writing
Believes fellow <u>teachers</u> think it best to use basal readers, workbooks/skills, language experience	Believes fellow <u>teachers</u> think it best to use basal readers, workbooks/skills, language experience
Believes <u>parents</u> think it best to use basal readers, workbooks/skills, language experience	Believes <u>parents</u> think it best to use basal readers, workbooks & skills, language experience
Spends much of instructional time using language experience, learning centers, workbooks/skills	Spends much of instructional time using language experience, learning centers, children's literature
Concerned about spending too much time on children's literature, learning centers	Concerned that she may be spending too much time using children's literature, learning centers
Concerned that she may not be spending enough time using writing activities, language experience, children's lit experience	Concerned that she may not be spending enought time using workbooks/skills, language experience
If she could improve the way she taught, she would place more emphasis on writing activities, children's literature	If she could improve the way she taught, she would place more emphasis on writing activities, computer-assisted instruction
To confidently make adjustments in the way she teaches reading, she would need support of principal, parents, fellow teachers	To confidently make adjustments in the way she teaches reading, she would need the support of principal, parents, fellow teachers

Table 4 (continued)

Kerrie's Orientations and Frames of Reference Toward Teaching Reading/Language Arts

End of First Year of Teaching	End of Second Year of Teaching

Reflectivity Concept Web
(Meyerson, 1995)

Major factors impacting her reading
and language arts instruction:
- Principal's expectations
- First grade teacher's help
- N.C. Standard Course of Study
- Student teaching experience
- Experience and knowledge gained at GWU

Beliefs About Reading Interview
(Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1995)

Orientation toward
top-down philosophy as indicated
by comments:

Question: Main Instructional
Goal:
- Encouraged them to read (TD)
- Learn all their letters and
  beginning sounds (BU)
- Know clues to figure out words
  (BU)

Question: Teacher Responses When
Students Make Oral Reading Errors:
- I just let them go on (TD)
- Don't want to interfer with
  comprehension (TD)

Question: Most Important
Instructional Activities:
- Reading to the children (TD)
- Writing/dictating (TD)
- Discussion around books (TD)
- Big books (TD)

Question: Introducing New
Vocabulary Words:
- Figure them out from context
  or picture clues (TD)

Question: What A Reading Test
Should Do:
- What kind of exposure to books
  (TD)
- Whether they were read to at
  home (TD)
- Aware of print (TD)

teaching. This orientation was depicted in her attitudes toward the practice of choosing literature that was of interest to the children, involving the children in lots of language experience activities, and using an integrated approach to teaching, designing her own lessons based on her understanding of learning and effective teaching. As indicated from her comments and teaching practices throughout the two years she had consistently reflected upon, questioned and analyzed her instructional decisions. She grew in self-assurance and confidence, demonstrating qualities of a much more experienced teacher.

Kerrie demonstrated both implicitly and explicitly her top-down belief system and reflective manner of teaching through the following: (a) instructional goals she emphasized for reading and writing; (b) materials she selected and used for instruction; (c) inviting environment in which to learn; (d) and practices, strategies, and approaches she used to teach reading and writing.

Kerrie's principal was so impressed with her teaching that she was assigned to the position of the one kindergarten teacher in her school, replacing a teacher with many years of experience. Kerrie continued her literature-based approach during her second year of teaching, but it was noted that she became more structured in her approach, perhaps due to having a larger number of students to manage. She continued to express satisfaction and confidence with

her teaching techniques.

<u>Summary of Results</u>

Central to this study was the question, how did these four novice teachers from the same teacher education background learn to teach reading and language arts? An analysis of their professional work yielded implicit and explicit answers to this question. In keeping with findings of other research studies these participants indicated that their beliefs about reading and learning to read were affected by the beliefs of colleagues and administrators, curriculum guidelines such as the <u>North Carolina Course of Study</u>, available materials, student teaching and cooperating teachers, personal biographies, and university courses. All of the participants named university courses and colleagues as major influencing factors impacting their instructional decisions and teaching practices.

Two of the participants, Pam and Kerrie, indicated a more <u>reflective</u> perspective in their orientations toward the teaching of reading and language arts while the other two, Ann and Vickie, showed a tendency toward a more <u>technical</u> perspective. Pam and Kerrie tended to subscribe to a more top-down model of teaching reading with a whole-language/literature based approach. They emphasized student teaching experiences, professional knowledge gleaned from university courses, experiences and interactions with their own students, and workshops (in Pam's case), as the basis

for their instructional decisions.

Pam and Kerrie demonstrated a high confidence level in their professional knowledge and their abilities to teach and a self-assurance about their beliefs and theoretical orientations. They commented continuously about the progress and development of their students as evidence of their beliefs to deliver appropriate instruction, regardless of tradition. Ann and Vickie, on the other hand, were more skills oriented and reflected quite often on teaching materials, curriculum, and expectations as important to their instruction. They were less confident, showed less congruency between their stated beliefs and their practices, and were concerned about survival, management of students, and covering certain materials and skills in a traditional approach. They tended to focus on the "work" aspect of teaching (e.g., work space, materials, organization, test scores/guidelines, orderliness, product-oriented) whereas, Pam and Kerrie focused on "students" (e.g., progress, development, enjoyment, excitement of learning, promotion of ideas, creative thinking/writing, immersion in written language, oral communication/interaction, process-oriented).

All four teachers expressed evolving views of teaching. Pam and Kerrie described their second year of teaching as a time of confidence building with relatively few changes in their practices. They viewed their first year of teaching as successful, validating their beliefs regarding students,

learning, and teaching. Vickie grew more confident, having acquired a much larger classroom and an assistant. Her attitude toward teaching appeared changed and she was somewhat more open to ideas and information presented in her teacher education courses relevant to reading and writing. She involved this particular group of children in centers work, with more emphasis on actual reading, writing, and oral communication.

Of the four teachers, Ann was most convinced that she "needed to change." She fluctuated in her thinking about whole-language and skills approaches and indicated positive aspects in each but with no clear conception as to how to implement. She stated,

> If we had not done this [study] I would not have reflected. Maybe I would change without the help of reflection, but this has helped me to question why did I do this or that. I think we get caught up in our day to day schedule. This has helped me to talk about what I am doing...it caused me to think.

She planned for different teaching strategies and to change the physical set-up of her classroom to allow for informal groupings of desks for cooperative learning and center time. She planned to allow time for reading more than just the basal selections. However, she appeared confused and confided that she was still undecided about how to teach reading. "I keep thinking change," she said.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This final chapter summarizes the investigation, conclusions drawn, and implications for further research and specifically, further research in teacher education.

General Summary of Results

As indicated throughout this study, the purpose of this investigation was to have teachers (a) describe their instructional decisions in the areas of reading and language arts; (b) identify connections among their beliefs about reading and language arts; (c) define and describe major influences impacting their instructional decisions in reading and language arts; (d) reflect upon their first year of teaching and explain what they would do differently in their second year of teaching; and (e) describe their instructional decisions in the area of reading and language arts during their second year of teaching.

This was a unique study in that the investigator, who was one of the participants' teacher educators, was able to follow four of her students through their first two years of teaching at the elementary level. A case study approach was utilized to portray these beginning teachers' reflections about their beliefs and their decisions regarding the teaching of reading and related language arts. Teachers'

beliefs and teaching practices were examined throughout this investigation through the techniques of inventories, surveys, observations, interviews, journal reflections, reflectivity webs, and examples of pupils' schoolwork. Using Strahan's Model for Analyzing Reflections on Instruction, the teachers' implicit views of themselves and their practices became more explicit, accentuating the frames of reference from which they operated. Connections between their beliefs, factors impacting their decisions, and their teaching practices became clearer as the data unfolded. Data revealed two clusters of teachers consisting of two teachers each who shared similar beliefs about reading and related language arts and made similar decisions that affected their instruction.

Teaching is inherently complex and beginning teaching is especially difficult for a host of reasons. These four teachers were not unique in the problems they encountered nor in the ways they perceived their roles. The participants identified with the learning-to-teach and professional development literature in that such factors as student biography, perceived expectations of colleagues and administration, the student teaching experience and the role of the cooperating teacher were major factors impacting their instruction in reading and language arts. Two of the teachers in this study, Ann and Vickie, were identified as teachers having a "technical" or "teacher as technician"

perspective toward teaching as described in the literature. Both were skills oriented, exhibiting "bottom-up" behaviors in their approaches to reading instruction. They were more lesson and product-oriented and their decisions were guided more by tradition, authority, real and/or perceived expectations of colleagues, and in the case of Vickie especially, personal beliefs and images of teachers and classrooms associated with her biography.

The other two teachers, Pam and Kerrie, were described as "reflective" in their approaches to teaching, subscribing to a more whole-language philosophy. Their instruction was not guided by any particular program, other than the objectives from the North Carolina Standard Course of Study, but instead focused on their students' needs and interests and the process of learning. They placed emphasis on learning centers revolving around reading, writing, and communication skills involving children's literature. Pam and Kerrie demonstrated a self-assurance about their beliefs and theoretical orientations and demonstrated a high confidence level in their abilities to make decisions pertaining to their students and to their teaching.

Although all four teachers graduated from the same teacher education program and were employed in the same school system where the expectations according to their principals were basically the same for all the participants, they held different belief systems and engaged in

instruction in different ways, with two of the four
espousing the same philosophy regarding reading instruction
as did their teacher education program.

·Conclusions

Strahan (1989, 1990, 1991) suggested orientations
toward teaching began to form while teachers are students
(at the elementary and high school levels) and grow clearer
during preservice education (i.e., university courses and
student teaching). Kagan (1992) stated that candidates come
to programs of teacher education with personal beliefs about
classrooms and pupils and images of themselves as teachers
as part of their biography, their experiences and
relationships in classrooms and other authority figures.
Oberg (1986) claimed that reflecting on "teaching practices
can enlarge teachers' awareness of their own practice and
eventually their capacity to direct it more fruitfully." (p.
55) These researchers encapsule what a plethora of others
have said about teacher development: "Learning to teach"
begins long before the culminating experiences of practica
and student teaching. It begins with beliefs and images
brought with preservice teachers from their own early
elementary days. It continues as practitioners reflect
(some more critically than others) on their own professional
actions and beliefs. According to Oberg, "each teacher
interprets her situation with her own unique set of
constructs" (p. 57) and

> what a teacher focuses on most (learners, activities,
> or subject matter) indicates which constructs will be
> superordinate for her. People cannot necessarily
> verbalize their constructions; in the same way teachers
> cannot always verbalize their intentions...a teacher's
> actions are based on the set of constructs she uses to
> interpret her professional world. (p. 57)

The participants in this investigation each came with

their own set of constructs. Each of the four participants

came to the GWU teacher education program with

preconceptions about teaching reading as indicated by their

Reflectivity Webs and other comments. They recalled and

mentioned such factors as their own personal experiences

with schooling, special classroom teachers and specific

teaching episodes. During their professional development at

the University they discussed GWU teacher education courses,

student teaching and their cooperating teachers as

influencing factors. Finally, the context of the public

school as it related to colleagues, principals, teaching

materials (or the lack of them), reading curriculum

guidelines, real or perceived expectations, and responses to

students' learning were instrumental in the beginning years

of their professional careers as teachers.

Of the four teachers, Ann and Vickie were identified

through analysis of the data as "teachers as technicians"

based on the literature (Duffy & Roehler, 1986; Goodman,

Shannon, Freeman, & Murphy, 1987; Roehler & Duffy, 1981;

Shannon, 1989; Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1995; Wedman & Martin,

1991; Zeichner & Liston, 1987). They taught from the "routine action" perspective, as described by Wedman and Martin (1991), in which their actions were guided by impulse, tradition, and authority, more readily accepting the defined practices of the schools. They proved to be more skills oriented in the teaching of reading, subscribing to a bottom-up model of reading theory and this orientation was also indicated on their TORP results. Vickie's biography or elementary schooling, as well as no real image of self as teacher with her own philosophy, seemed to guide her decisions and actions. Ann's perceived expectations from principals and colleagues appeared to be the major influencing factor in her teaching of reading and language arts. Each commented about the importance of literature-based instruction, as they remembered it from their University courses and the philosophy of their teacher education program, but still tended to use most of their instructional time for skills related activities and adherence to (in the case of Ann) the State adopted reading program.

During her second year of teaching, after reflection via of this investigation, Vickie became more focused in her role as a "technical" teacher. Although characterized as "technical" with "bottom-up" viewpoints, she added learning centers and more time spent reading children's literature to her instructional time. Ann, however, during her second

year, seemed to be experiencing cognitive dissonance in which she was wrestling with the idea of her image as a technical teacher and plans for a more whole-language type classroom. For the investigator, Ann was a perfect example of Zeichner's and Tabachnick's (1980) thinking on the teacher education experience being "washed out." During her time at the University as a student she exemplified the kind of preservice teacher who most likely would hold a top-down, whole-language orientation to teaching. Ann, in her second year of teaching, was still struggling with her own philosophy and what she considered best practice.

Unlike Vickie and Ann, Kerrie and Pam identified with the reflective teaching literature, in which the process of learning is more important than the product of learning. Beginning with Dewey's (1933) ideas on "reflective action" and extending to researchers of today (Peterson and Comeaux, 1987; Schon, 1983, 1987; Wedman & Martin, 1991) reflective teaching provides a framework for teachers to examine their work through questioning, analyzing, evaluating, and considering school practices in relations to the teacher, learner, curriculum, school environment, schools and society. Reflective teachers are characterized by their beliefs about teaching and learning, pulling from a variety of sources and varying instruction based on students' needs and interests.

Kerrie and Pam planned their teaching of reading and language arts based only on the objectives of the <u>North Carolina Standard Course of Study</u>. They followed no set program, relying instead on an integrated approach to learning beginning with children's literature and selecting skills to teach as warranted. From all indications, they believed in their ability to make instructional decisions about teaching and their students' learning. A quote from the Holmes Group (cited in Peterson & Comeaux, 1987) described the kind of teachers Kerrie and Pam had become:

> competent teachers empowered to make principled judgments and decisions on their students' behalf... who possess broad and deep understandings of children, the subjects they teach, the nature of learning and schooling, and the world around them...who exemplify the critical thinking they strive to develop in students. (p. 132)

Peterson and Comeaux quoted the Carnegie Commission Task Force and the Holmes Group as suggesting that the appropriate image of the teacher is one as a reflective or thoughtful professional, continuously engaged in "learning to learn," inspiring and facilitating higher-order learning in her students.

Both Kerrie and Pam attributed influences impacting their teaching to university courses, student teaching experiences, and their cooperating teachers who had been excellent role models.

During their second year of teaching they became more self-assured and confident with their orientations to teaching based on their students' progress in the areas of reading and writing. As indicated by Oberg (1986) and Strahan (1989, 1990, 1991) these four teachers implicitly operated from a set of constructs or orientations which were eventually identified and made explicit. They were then able to reflect on these frames of references that guided their instructional decisions and make conscious decisions about their practices.

Implications for Further Research

John Goodlad (1990) believed it important to understand what "was going on in the minds of students as they transcended their student status in identifying with the demands and expectations of teaching" (p. 212). Other educational researchers, as well, have focused on preservice teachers' perspectives and orientations toward teaching (Hamrick & Strahan, 1988; Kagan, 1992; Oberg, 1986; Smith, 1992; and Strahan, 1990, 1991). However, there are relatively few studies that link beginning teachers' experiences and reading and language arts instruction, which is the bulk of the instruction at the elementary level. First year teachers are obviously beginners who are still feeling their way in the classroom and developing the skills and craft of the profession. They make up anywhere from five percent to fifteen percent or more (Knowles, 1988) of

the teaching force, and many encounter great difficulties in trying to teach reading and language arts. A National Institute of Education report (cited in <u>Becoming a Nation of Readers)</u> concluded that:

> The conditions under which a person carries out the first year of teaching have a strong influence on the level of effectiveness which that teacher is able to achieve and sustain over the years; on the attitudes which govern teacher behavior over even a forty year career; and indeed, on the decision whether or not to continue in the teaching profession. (pp. 109 - 110)

Berger and Buckman (cited in Rosenholtz, 1989) proposed that "people come to define their work through their workday realities...and [learn] how they are expected to behave" (p. 3). And further, Baker (1984) stated that "in order to have an influence on practitioners, we must study what is useful to them and to their work..." (p. 455).

Teachers beliefs about reading instruction and learning to read can be affected by colleagues, policies, curriculum guidelines, publishing and testing industry, and public opinion. Oberg (1986) and Kagan (1992) in their professional development and learning-to-teach literature suggested that the improvement of practice will depend on the study of cognitions, beliefs, and mental processes that underlie teachers' behaviors and by allowing professionals to reflect critically on their own professional actions and beliefs.

Implications for Teacher Education

If the goals of teacher education are to develop critical thinkers and reflective practitioners, then there are four basic implications of this study. First, at the university level, teacher education courses and programs must be designed so as to address the personal beliefs and images of teachers, teaching, and classrooms that preservice teachers bring with them. For the most part, these prior beliefs are associated with their biography and the preservice teachers assume they will teach as they were taught (Kagan, 1992; Mahlios & Maxson, 1995). Pajares (cited in Mahlios & Maxson, 1995) stated that "unexplored entering beliefs may be responsible for the perpetuation of antiquated and ineffectual teaching practices" (p. 192). Kagan and Mahlios and Maxson indicated that to better understand the processes by which preservice teachers and beginning teachers create images of teacher and teaching and the factors that influence them, research should focus on which changes come about due to interaction within the teacher education program. Attention should be given to which opportunities, activities, and experiences are most critical in helping preservice teachers identify, articulate, confront, and correct preexisting beliefs.

Secondly, beginning teachers need to enter their first year of teaching with a clear image of self as teacher (Kagan, 1992) and with a clear understanding of their

beliefs regarding the teaching of reading and language arts. Preservice teachers should be assisted in identifying and defining these beliefs in teacher education courses and refining and confirming them during their student teaching experience. According to Vacca, Vacca, and Gove (1995) "Empowered teachers use their beliefs about reading and learning to read to make instructional decisions," "...to exercise professional judgment in making choices and decisions" and to determine "what is best practice" (p. 9).

Kagan (1992) contended that preservice teachers often use information provided in university course work to confirm rather than confront and correct preexisting beliefs. If we believe that conscientious teachers reflect seriously on their work; that they think and feel carefully about what they do and why they do it; and use their experiences to fashion responses to similar situations, then teacher educators should focus on ways to teach preservice and beginning teachers how to monitor their underlying assumptions which guide their practice. Research should stress interaction, using a collaborative teaming approach or school-university linkages (teachers, teacher educators, cooperating teachers and public school based administrators and personnel) to provide opportunities for questioning and reflecting on teaching. Beginning teachers need to be understood by those who can influence and support their emerging careers. Theodore Sizer (cited in Goodlad, 1990)

was quoted as saying,

> Teacher educators can thus only save their souls by
> joining with their colleague professionals in the
> schools in an effort to redesign the ways that students
> and teachers spend their time in order that effective
> teaching and thus learning can take place. (p. 178)

Since preservice teachers most often identify the
student teaching experience as having the most impact on
their professional development and research indicates they
most often emulate their cooperating teachers (Copeland,
1979; Deal, 1989; Funk, 1982; Goodlad, 1986, 1990; McAulay,
1960; Seperson & Joyce, 1973; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984;
Theis-Sprinthall, 1980; Zeichner, 1980; and Zeichner &
Tabachnick, 1981), it is imperative that collaboration take
place between the university and public schools so that only
excellent role models are selected. Further research on
matching cooperating teachers and student teachers based on
theoretical orientations toward reading may also be
beneficial.

Thirdly, teacher education research should be carried
out across the professional continuum -- from preservice
through first and/or second years of teaching, and possibly
throughout the inservice career. There is a real need for
first year teachers especially to have follow-up support
from their university teacher education professors through
visits, observations, and scheduled seminars. Teaching
approaches, ingrained during the struggling first year of

teaching may or may not be best teaching practices and future professional growth may be limited by a reluctance to relinquish the practices which sustained them through their first difficult year. It is during this time, also, that beginning teachers are concerned with "fitting in" with colleagues, understanding the workplace, and trying to meet real or imagined expectations. University support can help build confidence by listening to concerns, encouraging reflection, validating, and confirming beliefs and practices.

And finally, through teacher education research a heavier emphasis should be placed on acknowledging the value of teachers' voices. There is a lack of participation of teachers in research (Schubert & Ayers, 1992). By allowing them to tell their own stories and by interpreting their perspectives much can be learned about what gives meaning and direction to the lives of teachers. Research should focus on great retired teachers who have a wealth of wisdom to share and inservice teachers whom have been allowed to remain silent and invisible.

The following quote from Albert Einstein (cited in Goodlad, 1990) stresses the importance of preparing teachers who are reflective professionals, who not only are knowledgeable in their subject areas, such as reading skills, but understands the larger responsibility to learning and instilling the joy of learning and reasons for

learning that come with teaching.

> It is not enough to teach a man a specialty. Through
> it he may become a kind of useful machine, but not a
> harmoniously developed personality. It is essential
> that the student acquire an understanding of and a
> lively feel for values. He must acquire a vivid sense
> of the beautiful and of the morally good. Otherwise,
> he--with his specialized knowledge--more closely
> resembles a trained dog than a harmoniously developed
> person. He must learn to understand the motives of
> human beings, their illusions, and their sufferings in
> order to acquire a proper relationship to individual
> fellowmen and the community. (p. 227)

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Anderson, R., Hiebert, E., Scott, J., & Wilkinson, I.
(1985). Becoming a nation of readers: The report of
the commission on reading. Washington, DC: The
National Institute of Education.

Baker, E.L. (1984). Can educational research improve
educational practice? Yes! Phi Delta Kappan, 65(7),
453-455.

Barr, R., & Duffy, G. Teachers' conceptions of reading:
The evaluation of a research study (Research Series No.
17). East Lansing: Michigan State University,
Institute for Research on Teaching, 1978.

Bawden, R., Buike, S., & Duffy, G. (1979). Teacher
conceptions of reading and their influence on
instruction (Research Series No. 47). East Lansing:
Michigan State University, Institute for Research on
Teaching.

Borko, H., Shavelson, R.J., & Stern, P. (1981). Teachers'
decisions in the planning of reading instruction.
Reading Research Quarterly, 16(3), 449-466.

Bogdan, R.C., & Biklen, S.N. (1992). Qualitative research
for education: An introduction to theory and methods.
Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Bragg, F.A. (May, 1989). I read and write. Essence, 20(1), 148. (From ProQuest Periodical Abstracts, 1995, Abstract No. 00380430)

Brodbelt, S., & Wall, R.E. (1985). Student teacher socialization: Role model influences. Paper presented at the meeting of the Eastern Educational Research Association Conference. Virginia Beach, VA.

Bullough, R.V., Jr. (1989). First-year teacher: A case study. New York: Teachers College Press.

Burgess, R.G. (1984). In the field: An introduction to field research. Boston: George Allen & Lenwin.

Calderhead, J. (Ed.) (1987). Exploring teachers' thinking. London: Cassell Educational Limited.

Calderhead, J. (1988). The development of knowledge structures in learning. In J. Calderhead (Ed.), Teachers' professional learning (pp. 51-64). Philadelphia: Falmer Press.

Canning, C. (1991). What teachers say about reflection. Educational Leadership, 48(6), 18-21.

Carroll, L. (1984). Alice in wonderland and through the looking glass. Grosset & Dunlop.

Clark, C.M., & Yinger, R.L. (1978). Research on teacher thinking (Research Series No. 12). East Lansing: Michigan State University, Institute for Research on Teaching.

Cochran-Smith, M.   (1991).   Learning to teach against the

 grain.   Harvard Educational Review, 61(3), 279-310.

Copeland, W.D.   (1978).   Processes mediating the

 relationship between cooperating-teacher behavior and

 student-teacher classroom performance.   Journal of

 Educational Psychology, 70(1), 95-100.

Copeland, W.D.   (1979).   Student teachers and cooperating

 teachers: An ecological relationship.   Theory Into

 Practice, 18(3), 194-199.

Cornett, J.W.   (1988).   A teacher's personal practical

 theories and their influence upon curriculum decisions.

 Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American

 Educational Research Association (New Orleans, LA,

 April, 1988).

Costa, A.L., & Garmston, R.J. (1987).   Student teaching:

 Developing images of a profession.   Action in Teacher

 Education, 9(3), 5-11.

Daves, K.S., Morton, J.L., & Grace, M.   (1990).   Novice

 teachers: Do they use what we teach them? Reading

 Horizons, 30(2), 25-34.

Deal, T.E., & Chatman, R.M.   (1989).   Learning the ropes

 alone: Socializing new teachers.   Action in Teacher

 Education, 11(1), 21-29.

DeFord, D. (1985).   Validating the construct of theoretical

 orientation in reading instruction.   Reading Research

 Quarterly, 20(3), 351-367.

Dewey, J. (1933). How we think. Boston: D.C. Heath & Co.

Donner, J. (1989). The voice of words. New Woman, 19(5), 182. (From ProQuest Periodical Abstracts, 1995, Abstract No. 00378490)

Duffy, G. (1982). Fighting off the alligators: What research in real classrooms has to say about reading instruction. Journal of Reading Behavior, 14(4), 357-373.

Duffy, G., & Anderson, L. (1982). Conceptions of reading project final report (Research Series No. 111). East Lansing: Michigan State University, Institute for Research on Teaching.

Duffy, G., & Anderson, L. (1984). Editorial comment: Guest commentary teachers' theoretical orientations and the real classroom. Reading Psychology, 5(1-2), 97-104.

Duffy, G., & Metheny, W. (1979). Measuring teachers' beliefs about reading (Research Series No. 41). East Lansing, Michigan State University, Institute for Research on Teaching,

Duffy, G., & Roehler, L.R. (1986). Improving classroom reading instruction: A decision-making approach. New York: Random House.

Duffy, G., Roehler, L.R., & Putnam, J. (1987). Putting the teacher in control: Basal reading textbooks and instructional decision making. The Elementary School Journal, 87(3), 357-366.

Durkin, D. (1984). Is there a match between what elementary teachers do and what the basal manuals recommend? The Reading Teacher, 37, 734-744.

Durkin, D. (1993). Teaching them to read (6th ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Erikson, F. (1986). Qualitative methods in research on teaching. In M.C. Wittrock (Ed.), Handbook of Research on Teaching (3rd ed.). New York: Macmillan.

Farr, R., Tulley, M.A., & Powell, D. (1987). The evaluation and selection of basal readers. The Elementary School Journal, 87(3), 267-281.

Feder-Feitel, L. (1991). The right to read. Creative Classroom, 36-42.

Froese, V. (Ed.). (1991). Whole-language: Practice and theory. MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Frymier, J. (1987). Bureaucracy and the neutering of teachers. Phi Delta Kappan, 69(1), 9-14.

Funk, F. et al. (1982). The cooperating teacher as the most significant other. A competent humanist. Action in Teacher Education, 4(2), 57-64.

Gebhard, J.G. (April, 1983). <u>Exploring practical teaching</u> <u>opportunities</u>. Paper presented at the annual International Meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Atlanta, GA.

Glaser, B. (1978). <u>Theoretical sensitivity: Advances in</u> <u>the methodology of grounded theory</u>. Mill Valley, CA: Sociology Press.

Goetz, J.P., & LeCompte, M.D. (1984). <u>Ethnography and</u> <u>qualitative design in educational research</u>. San Diego: Academic Press.

Goodlad, J.T. (1990). <u>Teachers for our nation's schools</u>. CA: Jossey-Bass, Inc.

Goodman, J. (1986). Making early field experiences meaningful: A critical approach. <u>Journal of Education</u> <u>for Teaching</u>, <u>12</u>, 109-125.

Goodman, K.S., Shannon, P., Freeman, Y.S., & Murphy, S. (1988). <u>Report Card on Basal Readers</u>. Katonah, NY: Richard C. Owen Pub.

Gove, M.K. (1981). The influence of teachers' conceptual frameworks of reading on their instructional decision-making. (Doctoral dissertation, Kent State University). <u>University Microfilm International</u>, Ann Arbor, MI.

Gray, P. (Sept., 1993). Adding up the under-skilled. <u>Time</u>, <u>142</u>, 75. (From <u>ProQuest Periodical Abstracts</u>, 1995, Abstract No. 01686053

Grossman, P.L. (1992). Why models matter: An alternate view on professional growth in teaching: <u>Review of Educational Research, 62</u>(2), 171-179.

Guba, E.G., & Lincoln, Y.S. (1981). <u>Effective evaluation: Improving the usefulness of evaluation results through response and naturalistic approaches</u>. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Guba, E.G., & Lincoln, Y.S. (1985). <u>Naturalistic inquiry</u>. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Guralnik, D.B. (Ed.). (1978). <u>Webster's new world dictionary</u> (2nd college ed.). Mexico: William Collins + World Publishing Co.

Hamrick, J.C., & Strahan, D.B. (1988). Looking through the eyes of the teacher: Preservice educators' views of students and themselves. <u>Middle School Research Selected Studies</u>, 38-51.

Harste, J.C., & Burke, C.L. (1977). A new hypothesis for reading teacher research. In J.A. Vacca, R.T. Vacca, & M.K. Gove (2nd ed.), <u>Reading and learning to read</u>. New York: NY. HarperCollins.

Heilman, A.W., Blair, T.R., & Rupley, W.H. (1990). <u>Principles and practices of teaching reading</u> (7th ed.). New York: Merrill.

Heilman, A.W., Blair, T.R., & Rupley, W.H. (1994). <u>Principles and practices of teaching reading</u> (8th ed.). New York: Merrill/Macmillan.

Hollingsworth, S. (1989). Prior beliefs and cognitive change in learning to teach. American Educational Research Journal, 26(2), 160-189.

Hoy, W.K., & Woolfolk, A.E. (1989). Supervising student teachers. In A. Woolfolk (Ed.), Research perspectives on the graduate preparation of teachers (pp. 108-131). New Jersey: Englewood Cliffs.

Jacobson, R.L. (Aug., 1993). Computers' role in fight for adult literacy may be stymied by professional problems. Chronicle of Higher Education, 39, A16-A17. (From ProQuest Periodical Abstracts, 1995, Abstract No. 01636874)

Kagan, D.M. (1988). Beliefs and behaviors of kindergarten teachers. Educational Research, 30(1), 26-35.

Kagan, D.M. (1992). Professional growth among preservice and beginning teachers. Review of Educational Research, 62(2), 129-169.

Karmos, A., & Jacko, C. (1977). The role of significant others in student-teaching experiences. Journal of Teacher Education, 28, 51-55.

Knowles, G. (1988). A beginning teacher's experience: Reflections on becoming a teacher. Language-Arts, 65, 702-712.

Kreyche, G.F. (July, 1988). Ill-literacy in America. USA Today, 117, 98. (From ProQuest Periodical Abstracts, 1995, Abstract No. 00203716)

Laberge, D., & Samuels, S.J. (1976). Toward a theory of automatic information processing in reading. In H. Singer & R. Ruddell (Eds.). Theoretical models and process of reading (2nd ed.). Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association.

Leu, D.J., & Kinzer, C.K. (1987). Effective reading instruction in the elementary grades. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill.

Lincoln, Y.S., & Guba, E.G. (1985). Naturalistic inquiry. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Livingston, C., & Borko, H. (1989). Expert-novice differences in teaching: A cognitive analysis and implications for teacher education. Journal of Education, 36-42.

Lortie, D.C. (1975). Schoolteacher. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Mahan, J.M., & Lacefield, W.E. (1976). Changes in preservice teachers' value orientations toward education during year-long, cluster, student-teaching placements. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Research Association. San Francisco, CA.

Mahan, J.M., & Lacefield, W. (1978). Educational attitude changes during year-long student teaching. Journal of Experimental Education, 46(3), 4-15.

Mahlios, M., & Maxson, M. (1995). Capturing preservice
teachers' beliefs about schooling, life, and childhood.
Journal of Teacher Education, 46(3), 192-199.

McAulay, J.D. (1960). How much influence has a cooperating
teacher? Journal of Teacher Education, 11(1), 79-83.

McCuen, G.E. (Ed.) (1988). Illiteracy in America. Hudson,
Wisconsin: GEM Publications.

Mead, J.V. (1992). Looking at old photographs:
Investigating the teacher tales that novice teachers
bring with them (Report No. NCRTL-RR-92-4). East
Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher
Learning. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED
346 082)

Meyerson, M.J. (1993). Exploring reading instructional
decisions through a reflective activity: A first step
in the change process. Journal of Educational and
Psychological Consultation, 4(2), 153-168.

Munby, H. (1982). The place of teachers' beliefs in
research on teacher thinking and decision making, and
an alternative methodology. Instructional Science, 11,
201-225.

Munby, H. (1984). A qualitative approach to the study of a
teacher's beliefs. Journal of Research in Science
Teaching, 21(1), 27-38.

National Commission on Excellence. (1983). A nation at risk. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Nespor, J. (1987). The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching. Journal of Curriculum Studies, 19(4), 317-328.

Nespor, J., & Barylske, J. (1991). Narrative discourse and teacher knowledge. American Educational Research Journal, 28(4), 805-823.

Niles, J., & Harris, L. (Eds.) (1984). Changing perspectives on research in reading/language processing and instruction. 33rd Yearbook of the National Reading Conference.

Oberg, A. (1986). Using construct theory as a basis for research into teacher professional development. Journal of Curriculum Studies, 19(1), 55-65.

Oberg, A. (1987). The ground of professional practice. In J. Lowyck (Ed.), Teacher thinking and professional action. Lisse: Swets & Zeitlinger.

Pape, S., & McIntyre, D.J. (1992). Utilizing video protocols to enhance teacher reflective thinking. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association of Teacher Educators. (Orlando, FL, Feb., 1992).

Patton, M.Q. (1990). Qualitative evaluation and research methods (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Peterson, P.L., & Comeaux, M.A. (1987). Assessing the teacher as a reflective professional: New perspectives on teacher evaluation. Paper presented at the Rutgers Invitational Symposium on Education. (New Brunswick, NJ, May, 1987).

Posner, G.J. (1993). Field experience: A guide to reflective teaching (3rd ed.). New York: Longman.

Putnam, J., & Duffy, G. (1984). A descriptive study of the preactive and interactive decision making of an expert classroom teacher (Research Series No. 148). East Lansing, MI: Institute for Research in Teaching (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED251451

Report cards grade county schools. (1994, April). The Daily Courier, pp. 1, 11.

Roehler, L.R., & Duffy, G. (1981). Classroom teaching is more than opportunity to learn. Journal of Teacher Education, 32(6), 7-11.

Rosenholtz, S.J. (1989). Teachers' workplace: The social organization of schools. New York: Longman.

Salzillo, F., & Van Fleet, A. (1977). Student teaching and teacher education: A sociological model for change. Journal of Teacher Education, 28(1), 27-31.

Samuels, S.J. (1976). Hierarchical subskills in the reading acquisition process. In J.T. Guthrie (Ed.), Aspects of reading acquisition. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Schnur, J.O., & Golby, M.J. (1995). Teacher education: A
university mission. Journal of Teacher Education,
46(1), 11-18.

Schon, D.A. (1983). The reflective practitioner: How
professionals think in action. New York: Basic Books.

Schon, D.A. (1987). Educating the reflecting practitioner.
San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Schubert, W.H., & Ayers, W.C. (1992). Teacher lore:
Learning from our own experience. New York: Longman.

Seperson, M.A., & Joyce, B.R. (1973). Teaching styles of
student teachers as related to those of their
cooperating teachers. Educational Leadership, 146-151.

Shannon, P. (1989). Broken promises: Reading instruction
in twentieth-century America. MA: Bergin & Garvey.

Shannon, P. (1995). Kissing and telling, teaching and
writing. The Reading Teacher, 48(6), 464-466.

Shavelson, R.J., & Stern, P. (1981). Research on teachers'
pedagogical thoughts, judgments, decisions, and
behavior. Review of Educational Research, 51(4), 455-
498.

Shulman, L.S. (1984). The practical and the eclectic: A
deliberation on teaching and educational research.
Curriculum Inquiry, 14, 183-200.

Shulman, L.S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations
of the new reform. Harvard Educational Review, 57(1),
1-22.

Smith, F. (1982). Understanding reading: A psycholinguistic analysis of reading and learning to read (3rd ed.). NY: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.

Smith, R.L. (1992). The evolutions of preservice teachers' orientations during early field experiences and initial teacher education courses. (Doctoral dissertation, University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1992).

Spodek, B., Saracho, O., Peters, D. (Eds.) (1988). Professionalism and the early childhood practitioner. Teachers College Press. Columbia University, New York.

Spooner, M.M. (1991). An interpretive inquiry into student teachers' reflections on instruction. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Strahan, D.B. (1983). The teacher and ethonography: Observational sources of information for educators. The Elementary School Journal, 83(3), 195-203.

Strahan, D.B. (1989). Experienced and novice teachers' reflections on instruction: An analysis of semantic ordered trees. Teaching and Teacher Education, 5, 53-67.

Strahan, D.B. (1990). From seminars to lessons: A middle school language arts teacher's reflections on instructional improvement. Journal of Curriculum Studies, 22, 233-251.

Strahan, D.B. (1991). A developmental analysis of preservice teachers' orientation toward themselves, their students, and their subject matter. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Stern, P., & Shavelson, R.J. (1983). Reading teachers' judgments, plans, and decision making. The Reading Teacher, 280-286.

Tabachnick, B.R., & Zeichner, K.M. (1984). The impact of the student teaching experience on the development of teacher perspectives. Journal of Teacher Education, 35(6), 28-36.

Templin, T.J. (1979). Occupational socialization and the physical education teacher. Research Quarterly, 50(3), 482-493.

The Institute for Academic Excellence. (1993). National study of literature-based reading. Madison, WI: Author.

Theis-Sprinthall, L. (1980). Supervision: An educative or mis-educative process? Journal of Teacher Education, 31(4), 17-20.

Undergraduate catalog (1993-94). Boiling Springs, NC: Gardner-Webb College.

Vacca, J.A., Vacca, R.T., & Gove, M.K. (1991). Reading and learning to read (2nd ed.). New York: HarperCollins.

Vacca, J.A., Vacca, R.T., & Gove, M.K. (1995). Reading and learning to read (3rd ed.). New York: HarperCollins.

Wedman, J.M., & Martin, M.W. (1991). The influence of a reflective student teaching program: An evaluation study. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 24(2), 33-40.

Wildman, T.M., et al. (1989). Teaching and learning to teach: The two roles of beginning teachers. The Elementary School Journal, 89(4), 471-493.

Wilson, S.M. (1990). The secret garden of teacher education. Phi Delta Kappan, 72(3), 204-209.

Wiseman, D. (1992). Learning to read with literature. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Wood, N.L. (Aug., 1988). Be a super supervising teacher. Instructor, 14.

Yee, A.H. (1969). Do cooperating teachers influence the attitudes of student teachers? Journal of Educational Psychology, 60(4), 327-332.

Yin, R.K. (1989). Case study research: Design and methods. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Zeichner, K.M. (1980). Key processes in the socialization of student teachers: Limitations and consequences of oversocialized conceptions of teacher socialization. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Research Association, Boston: MA.

Zeichner, K.M. (1980). Myths and realities: Field-based experiences in preservice teacher education. Journal of Teacher Education, 31(6), 45-53.

Zeichner, K.M., & Tabachnick, B. (1981). Are the effects of university teacher education "washed out" by school experience? <u>Journal of Teacher Education</u>, <u>32</u>, 7-11.

Zeichner, K.M., & Tabachnick, B. (1985). The development of teacher perspectives: Social strategies and institutional control in the socialization of beginning teachers. <u>Journal of Education for Teachers</u>, <u>11</u>, 1-25.

Zeichner, K.M., & Tabachnick, B.R., & Densmore, K. (1987). Individual, institutional, and cultural influences on the development of teachers' craft knowledge. In J. Calderhead (Ed.), <u>Exploring teachers' thinking</u> (21-59). London: Cassell Educational Limited.

A P P E N D I C E S

A P P E N D I X   A

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF THE MODEL

Educators in the last decade of the 20th century face formidable demands as they try to serve the needs of their students to be accountable to their employers, to respond to policy changes, and to contribute to improving conditions in their profession. The model of the Educator as Theorist & Practitioner was established as descriptive of our purposes, attitudes, and goals in preparing professionals for productive service in this decade and beyond. Again, it is important to note that the person remains a unified whole as both theorist and practitioner.

There are many times in one's career when the behavior of the educator should be characterized by full commitment, confidence, and enthusiasm in the course of action that has been chosen. In teaching in the classroom, for example, a teacher should consciously submerge all doubts and qualification as he or she works toward achieving the objectives that have been articulated. The teacher should behave as though the method used is without doubt, exactly the right one for the purpose at hand. Concurrent with the enthusiasm and savoir faire publicly displayed, this teacher is mentally questioning and reflecting on the efficacy of the performance and the method. While he or she is "on stage" there should be no outward appearance of questioning and reflecting that is taking place simultaneously. In much

the same way, in public roles which require collaboration and consultation, the educator is seen to be confident, cooperative, energetic, and effective. The educator suspends disbelief and is willing to operate with limited information when on stage, but is concurrently thoughtful and reflective as he or she anticipates the need to garner more information to serve as bases for wise decisions (Stephens, 1956).

There are also occasions in an educator's day when the quality of caution must appear to be paramount. Hesitation, uncertainty, doubt, willingness to withhold judgment, and demand for more evidence characterize the educator in certain places and at certain times. The educator must know the implications of major research on teaching and must understand that findings cannot be accepted as detailing best practice until they have been replicated with consistency. The educator reads research in a questioning and reflective frame of mind. He or she is not easily "taken in" by fashion and fad, but rather demands demonstration of internal and external validity, reliability, and usefulness as applied to work of the school. The educator applies these same criteria in evaluating curriculum decisions for his or her own students. Hypotheses about personal best practice are continually formed and tested before final decisions as to their efficacy are made. As a contributing member of a school

faculty, the educator behaves in much the same way in terms of what is best for students and for the profession (Stephens, 1956). (See Greene, 1978; Zeichner & Liston, 1987; Hunt and Joyce, 1967; and others; refer to listing in Meredith, pp. 1-3 for other sources to list.)

The roles of practitioner and theorist are complementary, not contradictory. The educator should be sufficiently self-aware to recognize when, where, and with whom to behave in a particular mode. The roles differ in terms of emphasis on particular qualities to be displayed as the occasion and audience warrant. The educator as theorist & practitioner is an integrated profession who is able to behave appropriately in context.

In the teacher preparation program at Gardner-Webb College we seek to empower students to live out the roles of theorist & practitioner through coursework, personal influence, field-experiences, and modeling.

Components of the Knowledge Base

The knowledge base for teaching is a codified aggregation of knowledge, skill, understanding, and technology, and also of ethics and disposition (Shulman, 1987). The knowledge base is also what we do as college faculty to spread enlightenment among the students who come to us. The knowledge base undergirding our model of Educator as Theorist & Practitioner focuses on four areas or

threads: The Learner and Learning; Methodology; Social

Context; and Professional Development

1.   The Learner and Learning

     a.   The Learner

     No matter what the specific medium may be, effective

     teaching has as a result the acquisition of knowledge

     by a learner. The educator is responsible for helping

     the student make connections between information

     encountered and what the student already knows. The

     distinction between information and knowledge is an

     important one for Robert Ebel:

> Knowledge . . . is not synonymous with
> information. Knowledge is built out of
> information by thinking. It is an integrated
> structure of relationships among concepts and
> propositions. A teacher can give his students
> information. He cannot give them knowledge. A
> student must earn the right to say "I know" by his
> own thoughtful efforts to understand.
> (Ebel, 1972)

     All programs at Gardner-Webb are concerned with

     empowering potential educators to take into account

     information about human development and learning (see

     Standard I.E. (19)). The purpose and goals of the

     Teacher Education Program center on the learner and the

     process of learning (see, for example, Goals C, D, H,

     I, and O).

     All learning experiences offered through the Teacher

     Education Program take account of developmental status

of the learner, and they also take account of the

uniqueness that each learner may bring to school.

b.   Learning

Formally defined, learning is conceived as any

relatively permanent change in understanding and

behavior that results from experience or practice.   All

Teacher Education Program offerings are set so as to

empower prospective educators to understand the process

of learning and to manipulate variables affecting the

learning of their future students.

2.   Methodology

The second area in the curriculum is methodology.   The

critical nature of this thread for teacher preparation

was suggested by N.L. Gage:

> Generations of teacher education students have
> been given inadequate grounding in how to teach.
> They have not been taught how to organize a
> course, how to plan a lesson, how to manage a
> class, how to give an explanation, how to arouse
> interest and motivation, how to ask the right kind
> of questions, how to react to students' responses,
> how to give helpful correction and feedback, how
> to avoid unfair biases in interacting with
> students -- in short, how to teach.   (N.L. Gage,
> Hard Gains in the Social Sciences, 1985, pp. 27-
> 28, quoted in Handbook of Research in Teacher
> Education, p. 48).

As any number of scholars have repeatedly stresses,

prospective teachers must be extremely well-grounded in

the subject matter they intend to teach (cite Gideonese

and other references here).   In fact, such knowledge is

the sine qua non for teaching. Teachers must not only
know factual information, but also the structure of
their subject matter. The structure of the discipline,
the principles of conceptual organization, and the
principles of inquiry are, according to Bruner, the
substantive knowledge that teaching professionals
should have. (See also J.J. Schwab, "The Structure of
the disciplines: Meaning and significance. In G.W.
Ford & L. Fugno (Eds.), The Structure of Knowledge and
The Curriculum. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1964).
In addition, to having broad and deep knowledge in
their subject matter, teachers must also be expert in
the transformation of information to a form which can
be understood by their students (G. Fenstermacher,
"Philosophy of Research of Teaching: Three Aspects.
In M.C. Wittrock (Ed), Handbook of Research of Teaching
(3rd ed., pp. 37-49). New York: Macmillan). They
also need to develop effective teaching methods,
effective classroom management practices (Evertson &
Emmer; Glasser; Canter; Driekurs), ways and means to
plan and deliver instruction, effective means to
evaluate learning and to use data collected to adjust
and revise their professional practices, and they must
be knowledgeable about various teaching strategies,
materials, instructional technologies (Joyce & Weil),
and methods to achieve learning goals for their

students.

The educator as practitioner must also possess
knowledge of research on teaching effectiveness since
it forms the basis of many policy decisions made at the
state level. This research, summarized by Brophy and
Good (1986), Gage (1986), and Rosenshine and Stevens
(1986), identifies specific teaching behaviors that
correlate with student performance on standardized
tests. The educator as theorist can be brought to
recognize problems of validity and generalizability in
much of this research, but the teacher as practitioner
must possess the relevant competencies that have found
their way into educational policy (Shulman, "Knowledge
and Teaching: Foundations of the New Reform," Harvard
Educational Review, 57 (Feb., 1987), 1-22).

3.   Social Context

The third area of the curriculum is social context.
This broad area concerns the significance of education
as a cultural institution. The importance of social
context was underscored by Gideonese:

> Teaching candidates must be deeply versed in the
> intellectual underpinnings of their profession.
> They must know the history of schooling and its
> evolving character. They must understand the
> connections between different kinds of societies
> and the institutions those societies evolved or
> created to carry out cultural transmission . . .
> Teachers and other professional educators must
> understand the philosophical issues embedded in
> the practices of schooling, especially schooling

> in a free society. They must understand how our
> educational institutions are supported, how the
> profession is organized, and what its past and
> emerging struggles have been. (p. 26)

Schools in American society do not operate in a vacuum.
In his book with the provocative title, What Are
Schools For, Goodlad listed eleven mega-goals for
schools, including enculturation, citizenship, moral
and ethical character, autonomy, and self-realization.
These goals illustrate that cultures use education to
ensure perpetuation of the culture (Goodlad,   ).
Several goals adopted by the teacher education faculty
are concerned with social context: to foster knowledge
of the role of the school in a democratic society; to
foster knowledge of the philosophical, social, and
historical contexts in which professional educators
operate; and to foster an understanding of the impact
of family dynamics on learning readiness (Goals, E.,
F., and N.).   Social context is important to the
curriculum in the following areas: contextual aims,
historical and philosophical perspectives; sociological
implications; and governance, organization, and support
of public schools.

4.   Professional Development
The fourth area of the curriculum emphasizes the
continuing need to refine knowledge and skills as one
gains experience in the profession. In a sense this

area represents the life of a teacher as a scholar. A
scholar never ceases learning. The educator as
Theorist & Practitioner continues to deepen subject
matter knowledge and to refine professional skills.
Programs for the education of professional educators
must, according to John Goodlad, "1) carry the
responsibility to ensure that all candidates
progressing through them possess or acquire the
literacy and critical-thinking abilities associated
with the concept of an educated person and 2) provide
extensive opportunities for future teachers to move
beyond being students of organized knowledge to become
teachers who inquire into both knowledge and its
teaching" (Kappan, Nov. 1990, p. 191).

Several goals adopted by the education faculty speak to
the importance of professional development: to foster
effective communication skills, to foster knowledge and
skills in using the scientific method, and to foster an
understanding of the necessity for life-long
professional learning (Goals, B., M., and P.).

Integral parts of professional development for the
educator as Theorist & Practitioner are reflective
practice, critical thinking, ethics of teaching,
independent learning, interactional analysis, and
communication skills.

Perhaps the ideal result of our efforts around in this

area would be the universal understand among our graduates of a Chinese proverb: "Learning is like rowing upstream; not to advance is to drop back."

A P P E N D I X   B

TEACHER BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

1. Name _____

2. Age _____

3. Race _____

4. Gender (circle one)   male   female

5. High School Attended _____
    county/city/state

6. Middle School Attended _____
    county/city/state

7. Elementary School Attended _____
    county/city/state

8. Marital Status (circle one) married   single   divorced

9. Children (circle one)   yes   no   Age(s) _____

10. University Attended _____
    county/city/state

11. Year Graduated _____

TEACHING AND OTHER EXPERIENCES

12. Work experience prior to present position:

13. In what school system did you student teach? _____
    Grade level? _____ What was the cooperating
    teacher's predominant approach to reading? _____
    _____

14. Present teaching assignment _____

    School System _____ State _____

15. Grade Level: _____ No. of Students _____

16. Length of Time in Present Position _____

17. Do you have a teaching assistant? _____ Yrs. Exp. ____

18. Do you have a mentor at your school site? _____

19. Do you and your mentor seem to share the same beliefs about reading instruction? _____ Explain:

_____

_____

20. Since graduation from college, have you attended workshops, in-service, or university courses pertaining to reading instruction? _____ Please list:

21. If yes to question #19, were viewpoints presented similar or different from those presented in your university undergraduate courses? _____ Please explain:

22. Please state your personal definition of reading:

23. Please state your personal philosophy of reading instruction. What are your beliefs regarding the teaching of reading?

24. What do you believe, more than anything else, has helped to shape your beliefs? Circle one:
University teacher   Education program, including student teaching   Expectations from school system which employs you   Mentor and/or colleagues   Your schooling prior to the university (especially elem.)

25. Do you think your practices reflect your beliefs?
Circle one: yes   no

A P P E N D I X   C

PLEASE NOTE

Copyrighted materials in this document have not been filmed at the request of the author. They are available for consultation, however, in the author's university library.

Appendix C
TORP
Pages 211-214

UMI

A P P E N D I X   D

PROPOSITIONS ABOUT READING INSTRUCTION

Directions: For each of the following 45 items, please indicate your level of agreement (or disagreement) by circling one of the five letters. In all cases, A means strongly agree, B agree, C neutral or undecided, D disagree and E strongly disagree. IMPORTANT: If you cannot decide upon a response to a particular item after 30 seconds, you should circle C for undecided and go on to the next item.

---

strongly agree	agree	neutral or undecided	disagree	strongly disagree

1. I believe that student success in reading should be determined primarily by noting progress from easier reading materials to harder reading materials.

    A   B   C   D   E

2. I believe that teachers should directly teach the basic skills of reading to those students who need them.

    A   B   C   D   E

3. I believe that some of the best reading materials are those which help children solve problems of importance to them.

    A   B   C   D   E

4. I believe that an important indicator of reading growth is how often a pupil voluntarily uses reading in his daily life.

    A   B   C   D   E

5. I believe that contextual clues are one of the most important word recognition aids and should receive more instructional emphasis than sight words or phonics.

    A   B   C   D   E

6. I believe that basal textbook materials are an important part of good instructional programs in reading.

    A   B   C   D   E

7. I believe that primary grade reading should emphasize decoding skills more than comprehension.

        A   B   C   D   E

8. I believe that reading success should be measured primarily by noting how well the student uses his reading ability for other classroom activities.

        A   B   C   D   E

9. I believe that the teacher's role is to help children learn to love reading by allowing frequent free reading and by conducting individual book conferences and workshops.

        A   B   C   D   E

10. I believe that reading instruction should focus heavily on comprehension, even at the beginning stages of reading.

        A   B   C   D   E

11. I believe that an important criteria for grouping students is the level basal textbook each is able to read.

        A   B   C   D   E

12. I believe that most all children should be systematically taught to use phonics skills.

        A   B   C   D   E

13. I believe that the goal of developing comprehension is best achieved by giving students realistic reading problems which they see as meaningful in their lives.

        A   B   C   D   E

14. I believe that reading instruction should emphasize the higher-level comprehension processes typically found in good children's literature.

        A   B   C   D   E

15. I believe that a very important measure of reading success is the degree to which students use reading as a communication process.

   A   B   C   D   E

16. I believe that considerable instructional time should be devoted to conducting guided reading lessons using selections such as those found in textbooks or excerpts from children's books.

   A   B   C   D   E

17. I believe that a carefully structured skills guide should be used when teaching reading to insure that each separate skill is mastered.

   A   B   C   D   E

18. I believe that reading groups should be formed as the need for them arises and should be disbanded when the need has been met.

   A   B   C   D   E

19. I believe that we should spend less time teaching students how to read and more time in getting him interested in reading.

   A   B   C   D   E

20. I believe that reading materials should help children learn to read in a natural manner similar to the way they learned to speak.

   A   B   C   D   E

21. Children who have similar skills should be grouped together for instruction.

   A   B   C   D   E

22. I believe that reading groups should be based on the students' interests.

   A   B   C   D   E

23. I believe that teachers should spend more instructional reading time on helping children use language as a communication process.

        A   B   C   D   E

24. I believe that word recognition should emphasize the new vocabulary words associated with each new text.

        A   B   C   D   E

25. I believe that a significant part of a teacher's time should be spent in teaching basic reading skills.

        A   B   C   D   E

26. I believe that word recognition instruction should not become more important than involving pupils in real-life reading tasks.

        A   B   C   D   E

27. I believe that comprehension should be taught by asking questions about the text being read.

        A   B   C   D   E

28. I believe that one effective way to determine pupil reading success is to note how many skills he has learned.

        A   B   C   D   E

29. I believe that a significant amount of the instructional time in reading should be spent on purposeful, real-life projects and activities which call for the use of reading.

        A   B   C   D   E

30. I believe that word recognition instruction is not as important in reading as providing children with stimulating, interesting materials to read.

        A   B   C   D   E

31. I believe that if grouping is used, student assignment to groups should reflect more emphasis on meaning cues in reading.

        A   B   C   D   E

32. I believe that the teacher's role in reading is to assign pupils to appropriate materials and direct them as they complete the material.

            A   B   C   D   E

33. I believe that fewer children would have difficulty learning to read if we stopped teaching reading during self-contained reading periods, and, instead, taught it as a part of all subjects.

            A   B   C   D   E

34. I believe that children should be allowed to choose the stories and books they want to read during the regular reading period.

            A   B   C   D   E

35. I believe that the teacher's role is to emphasize the communication aspects of reading more than the skills.

            A   B   C   D   E

36. I believe that a basal text should be used to teach reading.

            A   B   C   D   E

37. I believe that reading is a difficult process which must usually be taught in a step-by-step sequence if we are to develop good readers.

            A   B   C   D   E

38. I believe that the teacher's role is to involve students in realistic reading tasks which illustrate the functional utility of reading.

            A   B   C   D   E

39. I believe that reading is not difficult for most children to learn if they are provided with stimulating and lively materials to read.

            A   B   C   D   E

40. I believe that reading instruction should focus more on the use of meaning cues and less on skill instruction.

            A   B   C   D   E

41. I believe that I should spend equal amounts of time with the low, middle, and high reading groups.

        A   B   C   D   E

42. I believe that reading is composed of a series of hierarchical skills which must be taught sequentially and then used in combination if one is to read successfully.

        A   B   C   D   E

43. I believe that reading instruction should be taught so that students can use reading successfully in all curricular areas.

        A   B   C   D   E

44. I believe that reading would not be such a problem today if we made greater efforts to interest children in the reading of good children's literature.

        A   B   C   D   E

45. I believe that too much emphasis is being placed on skills (especially decoding skills) in reading programs today.

        A   B   C   D   E

A P P E N D I X   E

SURVEY OF NEW TEACHERS

Please answer questions one through nine by rank ordering <u>only</u> those variables which affect you. For example, do not rank all the variables for each question, rank only those which apply to your situation. Use the rank of 1 for your most important teaching variable, and mark all teaching variables that are not applicable with an N/A.

Example: When I was in first grade, my teachers used
_____ basal readers   _____ workbooks, skillbooks
_____ language experience   _____ writing activities
_____ computer assisted inst.   _____ learning centers
_____ round robin reading   _____ child.'s lit.-read by
                                              teacher
_____ free, silent reading   _____ child.'s lit.-
                                     instructional

1.   To teach children to read, my undergraduate reading
     courses strongly encouraged me to use
     _____ basal readers   _____ workbooks, skillbooks
     _____ language experience   _____ writing activities
     _____ computer assisted inst.   _____ learning centers
     _____ round robin reading   _____ child.'s lit.-read by
                                                   teacher
     _____ free, silent reading   _____ child.'s lit.-
                                          instructional

2.   Administrators encourage me to use
     _____ basal readers   _____ workbooks, skillbooks
     _____ language experience   _____ writing activities
     _____ computer assisted inst.   _____ learning centers
     _____ round robin reading   _____ child.'s lit.-read by
                                                   teacher
     _____ free, silent reading   _____ child.'s lit.-
                                          instructional

3.   The majority of my fellow teachers think it is best to
     use
     _____ basal readers   _____ workbooks, skillbooks
     _____ language experience   _____ writing activities
     _____ computer assisted inst.   _____ learning centers
     _____ round robin reading   _____ child.'s lit.-read by
                                                   teacher
     _____ free, silent reading   _____ child.'s lit.-
                                          instructional

4. The parents of my students seem to think it is best to use

_____ basal readers	_____ workbooks, skillbooks
_____ language experience	_____ writing activities
_____ computer assisted inst.	_____ learning centers
_____ round robin reading	_____ child.'s lit.-read by teacher
_____ free, silent reading	_____ child.'s lit.-instructional

5. I find that I spend much of my reading instructional time using

_____ basal readers	_____ workbooks, skillbooks
_____ language experience	_____ writing activities
_____ computer assisted inst.	_____ learning centers
_____ round robin reading	_____ child.'s lit.-read by teacher
_____ free, silent reading	_____ child.'s lit.-instructional

6. I am concerned that I may be spending too much time using

_____ basal readers	_____ workbooks, skillbooks
_____ language experience	_____ writing activities
_____ computer assisted inst.	_____ learning centers
_____ round robin reading	_____ child.'s lit.-read by teacher
_____ free, silent reading	_____ child.'s lit.-instructional

7. I am concerned that I may not be spending enough time using

_____ basal readers	_____ workbooks, skillbooks
_____ language experience	_____ writing activities
_____ computer assisted inst.	_____ learning centers
_____ round robin reading	_____ child.'s lit.-read by teacher
_____ free, silent reading	_____ child.'s lit.-instructional

8. If I could improve the way I teach reading, I would place more emphasis on

_____ basal readers	_____ workbooks, skillbooks
_____ language experience	_____ writing activities
_____ computer assisted inst.	_____ learning centers
_____ round robin reading	_____ child.'s lit.-read by teacher
_____ free, silent reading	_____ child.'s lit.-instructional

9. In order to confidently make an adjustment in the way I teach reading, I would need the support of (don't forget to rank responses)

_____ my principal   _____ parents

_____ my curriculum director   _____ additional inservice

_____ a reading consultant   _____ a graduate course in reading

_____ fellow teachers   _____ a resource for new ideas

_____ school board   _____ additional materials

_____ librarian   _____ other (list)

Daves, K.S., Morton, J.L., & Grace, M. (1990). Novice teachers: Do they use what we teach them? Reading Horizons, 30(2), 24-34.

A P P E N D I X   F

TEACHER STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

Teacher Philosophy of Reading and Language Arts

1. In question #24 of your biographical data, you stated that _____ helped to shape your beliefs regarding reading and language arts instruction. Please explain.

2. In question #25 of your biographical data, you stated that your teaching practices in reading and language arts do _____ or do not _____ reflect your beliefs. Please explain.

3.* What things were most crucial in your reading education at the University that influenced your beliefs about the teaching of reading? (Probe for courses, instructors, books/articles, teaching experiences)

4.* In reviewing the development of your notions about reading and language arts, do you think your ideas have changed from the time you were a student to the present day? (If yes, probe for specific times and experiences that produced these changes.)

5. Of the teachers you had yourself at one time or another, especially in elementary school, which do you consider outstanding? Could you describe one of them for me? Do you model after this teacher in any way now that you are a teacher?

6. What, in your opinion, has had the most impact on your teaching practices in reading and language arts?

<u>Teacher Information on Present Reading and Language Arts Program</u>

1.* How would you define/describe your present reading program?

2.* How did you come to decide on this particular reading and language arts program for your class? (Probe for sources, e.g. individual decision, other teacher recommendations, principal, curricular mandate, etc.)

3.* What do you think the school system expects you to teach? Does your school (or system) have mandates concerning materials and the reading and language arts program you are to use in class? (If yes, probe for degree and type of mandated program and materials.) What is the basis for these mandates?

    a. Do you feel these mandates satisfy your notions about how reading and language arts should be taught and the materials to be used? (If yes, elaborate. If no, what do you feel needs to be added or changed? What approach or method would you use?)

4.* What kind of reading materials are you using in class? (Probe for type, e.g. teacher/commercial made, and the nature - skills, literature, big books, etc.)

5.* How did you come to decide on the materials you are using for reading and language arts? (Probe for sources)

6.* What kind of reading and language arts activities are you mostly using? (Probe for centers, projects, games, writing activities, etc.)

7. What challenge(s) does this particular way of teaching present?

8.* What three most important things (goals) are your trying to accomplish in reading and language arts this year?

9. What do you perceive as your most challenging decisions in your reading and language arts program in terms of 1) your program, and 2) your lessons?

10. In your opinion, does your principal and support personnel approve of your practices in reading and language arts? Explain, please.

NOTE:* These questions adapted from Duffy, G. & Anderson, L. (1982). Conceptions of Reading Project Final Report. Michigan: Michigan State University, The Institute for Research on Teaching (Research Series No. 111).

A P P E N D I X   G

GUIDING QUESTIONS FOR POSTOBSERVATION INTERVIEW
AND FOLLOW-UP OF JOURNALS AND LESSON PLANS

1. What was your main objective for this lesson? (If not stated) Where did this objective originate? In other words, why did you do this?

2. Where did your plans for this lesson originate? (Probe for teacher's manual, part of a unit, modeling after another teacher/cooperating teacher, idea originated in student teaching, etc.)

3. What was involved in the planning of this particular lesson? Try to reflect on your thinking as you actually planned this lesson and tell me about it.

4. How and why did you decide on the materials you used? What was your rationale?

5. Why was it important to carry out the lesson in the way that you did? Were there particular reasons for the decisions you made in constructing this lesson? What was your rationale?

6. Is there a connection between this particular lesson and your beliefs (or philosophy) regarding reading and language arts instruction? If so, describe that connection, please. If not, why not?

7. By planning differently, could you have met your objective(s) for this lesson by using a different approach? Can you discuss another way of presenting this lesson that would more closely fit your ideas about teaching and learning? What would be involved in your planning and what concerns would you have?

8. Is there a connection between this particular lesson and
    your preservice reading instruction training? If so, can
    you describe that connection? If not, why do you think
    your preservice training was not appropriate, for
    whatever reason, for this lesson?

9. In what way(s) did your preservice training in reading
    and language arts prepare you or not prepare your for
    teaching this particular lesson or objective?

10. In your journal/lesson plan/planning book you stated...
    Obviously this is important to you so please elaborate.
    Why do you think you did this or why do you feel this
    way? How did you make these particular decisions?

A P P E N D I X   H

REFLECTIVE TEACHING INTERVIEW

This interview will be conducted individually and audiotaped
with each teacher the week of June 13 for the purpose of
reflecting upon instructional decisions made regarding reading
and language arts and planning for the following year.

1. Share with me, please, what you learned this past school
   year about the teaching of reading and language arts.

2. In reviewing the development of your notions about
   reading and language arts instruction, do you think your
   ideas have changed from the time you were a student to
   the present time? If yes, what experiences produced
   these changes and when did they occur?

3. Thinking back over this school year, what do you think,
   more than anything else, has influenced your decisions
   regarding your practices in teaching reading and language
   arts?

4. On your biographical data sheet you noted that your
   teaching practices do _____ do not _____ reflect your
   beliefs about reading and language arts instruction.
   Please explain. Is it important to you for these to be
   congruent? How would (does) that help you to be a more
   effective teacher?

5. In your opinion, were the theories and practices of your
   teacher education program in the area of reading and
   language arts congruent with those of your school system?
   Please explain.

6. What could your teacher education program have done or
   provided, in the area of reading and language arts, to
   have helped to better prepare you for teaching in this
   area?

7. What could your school system have done or provided to
   better prepare you for teaching reading and language
   arts?

8. Will you teach differently in the fall? How and why?

9. Has your writing (journal) and the follow-up discussions
   helped you? If so, in what way(s)?

10. Has it helped you to focus on your reflections and the
    "whys" of your instructional decisions in reading and
    language arts? If so, in what way(s)?

11. **What has been most helpful to you during this investigation?**

A P P E N D I X   I

FINAL REFLECTIVE INTERVIEW

This interview will be conducted individually and audiotaped in the summer with each teacher after she has had the opportunity to read her case study as described by the investigator. The purpose of this final interview is to make sure that each participant in this study is portrayed as accurately as possible according to her perceptions and to clarify any misconceptions.

The following question will serve as the guide for the interview:

1. Does this case study accurately depict

    a. your beliefs?

    b. what you consider to be the sources of influences that impacted upon your teaching?

    c. how you negotiated those influences?

    d. your instructional practices in the area of reading and language arts?

A P P E N D I X   J

BELIEFS ABOUT READING INTERVIEWS
INSERVICE TEACHERS

1. Of all the goals for reading instruction that you have in mind as a teacher, which one(s) do you think you have made good progress toward accomplishing this year? Explain why.

2. What do you usually do when a student is reading orally and makes an oral reading error? Why?

3. What do you usually do when a student is reading orally and doesn't know a word? Why?

4. You probably use different kinds of strategies and activities in teaching reading. Which ones do you feel are the most important for your students? Why?

5. What kinds of activities do you feel students should be involved in for the majority of their reading instructional time? Why?

6. Here are the typical steps in the Directed Reading Activity (DRA) as suggested in basal reader manuals; (1) introduction of vocabulary; (2) motivation or setting purposes; (3) reading; (4) questions and discussion after silent reading; and (5) skills practice for reinforcement. Rank these steps in order from most important to least important (not necessarily in the order you follow them.)

7. Is it important to introduce new vocabulary words before your students read a selection? Why or why not?

8. Suppose your students were tested to provide you with information that helped you decide how to instruct them in reading. What did diagnostic testing include and what kind of information did it give you about your individual students?

9. During silent reading, what do you hope your students do when they come to an unknown word?

10. Look at the oral reading mistakes that are underlined on the transcripts of three readers. Which of these three readers do you judge as the best or most effective reader?

                                           channel
READER A: I live near this.canal. Men haul things up

             channel
  and down the canal in big boats.

                                    2. candle
                                    1. ca
READER B: I live near this canal. Men haul things up

             candle
  and down the canal in big boats.

                                    2. candle
                                    1. ca
READER C: I live near this canal. Men haul things up

             cannel
  and down the canal in big boats.

   Vacca, J.L., Vacca, R.T., & Gove, M.K. (1995). Reading
and Learning to Read. (3rd ed.). New York: HarperCollings.