SUPPORTING STUDENT SUCCESS

2007 CEDER YEARBOOK

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SUPPORTING STUDENT SUCCESS

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FOREWORD

Adam Martinez
&
Jack Cassidy

The *2007 CEDER Yearbook* is a peer-reviewed compilation of papers delivered at the Fourth Annual CEDER Conference held on February 17-18, 2006. *"Supporting Student Success"* was the overarching theme and title of the conference, which attracted more than 320 attendees. Three conference sub themes focused on *Supporting Academic Success, Supporting Hispanic Student Success,* and *Supporting Students Emotionally.* These sub themes provided the structural division of this yearbook into its three basic parts by the same names. Chapter 1, delivered by Dr. David Chard, one of our keynote speakers, prefaces this volume and is entitled *"Fluency and its Relationship to Reading Comprehension: Promoting Success for all Students."*

The eighteen papers included in this volume were selected by the Editorial Advisory Committee for the 2007 Yearbook based on a number of criteria, including the importance and timeliness of the topic, theoretical grounding, rationale, and contributions to the field. These manuscripts are intertwined by several distinct threads (literacy; instructional effectiveness; learning theory; teacher preparation; leadership; and student support: motivation and assessment) that weave a framework for *Supporting Student Success*.

Literacy is a central thread or unifying element of Chapters 3, 4, 12, 14, and 15. In Chapter 3, Garrett, Schaum, Zunker, and Crowder address the accessibility of nonfiction texts in the elementary classroom. In Chapter 4, Grote, Pearce, and Marroquin describe the efforts of the America Reads Challenge program at the Early Childhood Development Center at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi and discuss characteristics of tutoring success and outcomes. In Chapter 12, Crowder and Griffith relate the life-changing power of literacy as experienced by two Hispanic women "of courage." In Chapter 14, Sarmiento-Arribalzaga presents research on grouping strategies for literacy development of bilingual children. In Chapter 15, Valadez, Ybarra, and Lara address Hispanic children's literature in the kindergarten to fifth grade classroom.

Instructional effectiveness and learning theory are a key focus of Chapters 5, 6, and 13. In Chapter 5, Harris, Skinner, and Stocks describe the evaluation and selection process for textbooks. In Chapter 6, Jones, Torti, and Foote provide research on children's engagement in authentic learning experiences, inspired by the Reggio Emilia learning theory. In Chapter 6, Lucido presents case study results of three successful dual language programs in three states highlighting the characteristics of the administrators, teachers, and effective instructional practices. Lucido reflects the concerns of the other authors in these threads on instructional effectiveness and learning theory when he poses a final

challenging question: "Are we preparing our children to be economically, socially, and linguistically viable in our 'shrinking' world?"

Teacher preparation and leadership are central threads to Chapters 2, 8, 9, and 10. In Chapter 2, Bolick and Hill present results of Project Teach, a study designed to assess whether teachers are adequately prepared for the classroom and the state exit exams through Centers for Professional Development of Teachers. In Chapter 8, Oliver, Nelson, and Ybanez present the results of a preliminary grounded theory study designed to assist in developing a model for supervision in counseling programs. In Chapter 9, Sailors argues that teachers need situated and contextualized support to help their success at improving literacy development. The paper reports on effective aspects of professional development models and presents an intervention study. In Chapter 10, Sorenson presents analyses of barriers that discourage lead teachers from seeking administrative roles, specifically the principalship, in public schools by "assessing political and institutional context roles," and he provides research on factors that can contribute positively to "home grown" recruitment. In support of student success, these authors demonstrate a concern and present solutions for improving teacher and leadership preparation. Sailors captures this spirit: "Just as teachers are encouraged to see their students as individual learners and to meet the instructional needs of their students on an independent basis, so too, should teachers be viewed by those who provide professional development for teachers."

Student support, motivation, and assessment are central threads to Chapters 7, 11, 16, 17, and 18. In Chapter 7, Marinak summarizes a multi-year (2001-2006) action research project that includes attributes for design and delivery of a response to intervention model at the middle school level. In Chapter 11, Bohling, Melrose, Bonnette, and Spaniol present research on the efficacy of Bioelectric Impedance Analysis as an alternative method for determining body composition in Hispanic youth, with implications for student success in the well-being of students. In Chapter 16, Hwang presents strategies for motivating at-risk students using the America Reads Program. In Chapter 17, Nelson and Low describe the significance of emotional intelligence and its relationship to college success and conclude with recommendations for additional research. In Chapter 18, Potter presents various categories of teacher behaviors that can influence student motivation and engagement in the classroom. These authors affirm the importance of attention to individual needs in order to facilitate effectively student success and motivation.

In conclusion, the manuscripts included in the *2007 CEDER Yearbook* reflect research aimed at improving student success. The research presented here is an attempt to begin to address the demographic changes highlighted by Dr. Steve Murdock, one of the conferences keynote speakers and demographer for the State of Texas. Dr. Murdock stated that if one wants to see what the racial/ethnic makeup of the U.S. will look like in the future, one need not look further than to the makeup of Texas today. According to Victor Villaseñor, another one of our keynote speakers, to be successful the educator must get in

touch with his or her inner genius and help students access their inner geniuses. To achieve student success, educators must also get to the emotions, and teach with energy. The genius is kindled, says Villasenor, when the teacher is able to reach the very soul of the student.

* * *

A note about the 2006 CEDER Conference, which provided the thematic venue for the papers selected by the Editorial Review Board for this yearbook:

The plenary sessions featured Texas Demographer Dr. Steve Murdock from the University of Texas-San Antonio, reading expert Dr. David Chard, now dean at Southern Methodist University, and noted author Victor Villaseñor from Oceanside, California. Villaseñor, author of *Rain of Gold*, *Burro Genius*, and other books, gave an inspirational address highlighting his Mexican-American heritage and urging everyone to get in touch with his or her inner "genius." Session and institute presenters hailed from 13 universities and colleges, including five from the Texas A&M System. Also represented were three universities from the University of Texas system: specifically the campuses at Austin, San Antonio and El Paso. Presenters came from as far away as East Central Oklahoma University and Millersville University of Pennsylvania. Many school districts and service centers throughout Texas were also represented. The majority of presenters were faculty and graduate students from Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi. A total of 32 faculty from just about every department in the College of Education presented, along with doctoral students from all three doctoral programs.

Chapter 1

Fluency and its Relationship to Reading Comprehension: Promoting Success for all Students

David J. Chard
Sangeun Lee
Pamela Anne Bahnsen

Abstract

Over the past several years, teachers and researchers have turned their attention to the development of fluent reading in young children. Theories of fluency development suggest that it is a phase of learning that involves the accurate and automatic recognition of words in connected text. A definition of fluency is provided that suggests that fluency is part of a much deeper construct that is related to reading comprehension. Specific practices for enhancing and assessing fluency are described. Additionally, comprehension is defined to assist teachers in understanding the relationship that fluency plays in comprehension development.

Fluency and its Relationship to Reading Comprehension: Promoting Success for all Students

Much has been said over the past few years about the topic of reading fluency. Fluency development, in any skill area (e.g., walking, riding a bike), involves the increasing accuracy and speed with which a person can perform a skill. This is very similar in reading connected texts. A reader is fluent when she can automatically identify words and read those words in sentences so that they sound like language. Recent evidence from reading research appears to suggest that fluent reading is intimately related to understanding what is read. The purpose of this paper is to define fluency and comprehension, describe their relationship, and describe the instructional and assessment practices that can facilitate that relationship and prevent long-term reading problems that result when fluency is not achieved.

Defining Reading Fluency

Reading fluency, once a “neglected” aspect of reading (National Reading Panel, NRP, 2000), is receiving substantial attention currently from both researchers and practitioners. For struggling readers, fluency is frequently ignored as a focus for intervention, with teachers maintaining an emphasis on preskill instruction (Chard, Pikulski, & McDonagh, 2005). However, there is

mounting evidence to suggest that for many readers fluency does not emerge as a result of automaticity with letter-sounds relationships; it requires deliberate attention.

Fluency has sometimes been viewed as essentially an oral reading phenomenon. However, because most readers spend a miniscule amount of time engaged in oral reading compared to silent reading, a definition of fluency needs to encompass more than oral reading. Fluency has been defined as "freedom from word identification problems that might hinder comprehension" (Harris & Hodges, 1995, p. 85). This definition enlarges our understanding of reading fluency to include comprehension. Samuels (2002), a pioneer in reading fluency research, cites this expanded definition as a major force in elevating the importance of fluency in the field of reading.

Over the years, results of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) have demonstrated a significant and positive relationship between oral reading fluency and reading comprehension (Pinnell, Pikulski, Wixson, Campbell, Gough, & Beatty, 1995). The complexity of this relationship stems from the confusion about whether fluency development is necessary for good comprehension or may be a byproduct of comprehension. This tension has led some to suggest that "Fluency has been shown to have a 'reciprocal relationship' with comprehension, with each fostering the other" (Stecker, Roser, & Martinez, 1998, p. 306).

A comprehensive definition would acknowledge this reciprocal relation and the centrality of fluency to reading comprehension and its established dimensions. Consequently, Pikulski & Chard (2005) proposed the following synthesis of definitions:

> Fluency refers to rapid, efficient, accurate word recognition skills that permit a reader to construct the meaning of text. It is manifested in accurate, rapid, expressive oral reading and is applied during, and is the gateway to, silent reading comprehension. (p. 510)

Rather than a surface view of reading fluency that might lead to practices of telling students to read faster, or might result only in practicing automatic word reading in lists, Pikulski and Chard (2005) suggest that fluency is part of a developmental process of building oral language and decoding skills resulting in a reciprocal and causal relationship with reading comprehension. More specifically, we contend that their definition considers four dimensions of fluency, including oral reading accuracy, oral reading rate, quality of oral reading, and reading comprehension. This view considers fluency to be a part of a child's earliest experiences with print and the phonemes that becomes associated with that print. In the next section, we describe prevailing fluency theories and how these theories have contributed to our understanding of how fluency develops.

Reading Fluency Theories

LaBerge and Samuels (1974) argued that human beings struggle to attend to more than one thing at a time. However, we often do more than one thing at a time by alternating our attention between activities or by becoming automatic with one activity so that we no longer need to consciously attend to it. Reading connected texts involves the complex orchestration of multiple activities including language, sensory perception, memory, and motivation (Pikulski & Chard, 2005). These activities assist the reader in word identification as well as comprehension. However, in order for reading to proceed effectively, the reader cannot focus attention on both word identification and comprehension. Moreover, comprehension is cognitively complex and requires a reader to attend consistently. While the nonfluent or dysfluent reader can alternate attention between the two processes, attention is drained by decoding words, and little or no capacity is available for the demanding process of comprehension. Therefore, automaticity of decoding—a critical component of fluency—is essential for high levels of reading achievement (Chard et al., 2005). Others have refined the automaticity theory. Perfetti (1985), for example, notes that resource (attention) demands can be reduced through learning and practice, and that efficiency may be enhanced through careful allocation of resources. Relatedly, Logan (1997) suggests that as students read words, they lay down cognitive traces for each word. If a word is read frequently enough, the cumulative practice with that word results in an increased likelihood that the word will be recognized upon further exposures and that the speed with which it will be recognized will increase. These three related theories support the idea that efficient decoding as part of fluent reading is necessary for strong reading comprehension.

For more comprehensive discussions of fluency, readers are encouraged to consult reviews such as those by the NRP (2000), Reutzel (1996), Stecker et al. (1998), and the entire volume of Rasinski, Blachowicz, and Lemm (2005).

How Do We Improve Students' Reading Fluency

One prevailing theory that we believe is very instructive and closely implies specific practices for enhancing students' reading fluency is Ehri's Stages of Reading Development. Ehri (1995, 1997, 1998) distinguished five stages of reading development through which readers progress in order to achieve fluency. Ehri's theory brings coherence to much of the research on fluency and offers a framework for instruction designed to promote and improve fluency that attempts to explain the relation of word reading development to reading fluency. The table in the Appendix identifies each of Ehri's proposed stages, characteristics that exemplify children's development at each stage, and instructional implications related to each stage of development. We believe that if teachers are knowledgeable of these predictable stages, they can observe students' development through the stages and can recognize when instruction must be modified to prevent a student from not progressing to automaticity.

In brief, fluency is not a skill that can be taught directly. Rather, it is a stage of development that is achieved when a reader is able to read words quickly and

accurately enough for reading to sound like language. There are several practices that teachers should consider using to facilitate students making progress toward fluency. They include:

- Teaching pre-reading and word reading skills (e.g., phonemic awareness, phonics) thoroughly and effectively so students progress toward automaticity.
- Modeling fluent reading to expose students to prosodic features of different texts while demonstrating how good reading sounds.
- Providing ample and repeated opportunities for students to read widely in accessible materials from a variety of genres.
- Targeting specific fluency improvement activities (e.g., repeated reading of familiar texts, progress monitoring) for students who are not making sufficient progress.

Repeated Reading Procedures

For students who are experiencing particular difficulties with fluency development, teachers should consider implementing repeated reading procedures. Recent research reviews of repeated reading approaches suggest substantial differences in the documented effective procedures used and the amount of teacher guidance offered (Chard, Vaughn, & Tyler, 2002; Kuhn & Stahl, 2000). However, many of these approaches appear to have merit. Features of effective repeated reading procedures for struggling readers consisted of: (a) brief daily practice, (b) repeated oral reading of connect text passages, (c) significant overlap of shared words across passages, (d) controlled text difficulty, (e) provision of corrective feedback, (f) teacher modeled text reading, (g) audio-taped modeled reading, (h) peer or cross-age tutoring with a partner, and (i) specified performance criterion levels (Chard et al., 2002; Kuhn & Stahl, 2000; NRP, 2000). Most models of instruction designed to improve students' fluency are accompanied by procedures for assessing students' growth in fluency. The next section briefly describes the status of fluency assessments.

Research and Practice on Fluency Assessment for Struggling Readers

There is more than 20 years of research focused on how fluency should be assessed and what criteria should be applied to determine whether or not a reader has achieved fluency. The reader may want to review research by Deno (1985); Fuchs, Fuchs, Hamlett, Walz, and Germann (1993); Hasbrouck & Tindal (2006); and Shinn et al. (1992) as examples of work done in the area of fluency assessment. The NRP (2000) concluded that a number of informal procedures could also be used for assessing fluency, including reading inventories, miscue analysis, and reading speed calculations. Importantly, the panel acknowledged the practical need for classroom assessment in this area.

There are many published informal inventories that can be used to periodically assess the four dimensions that are necessary for a full, deep, developmental construct of fluency: oral reading accuracy, oral reading rate, quality of oral reading, and reading comprehension. Teachers who want to

assess selective aspects of fluency can use guidelines, which have been suggested for assessing oral reading rate and accuracy (e.g., Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2006; Rasinski, 2003). Likewise, procedures have been established for assessing the quality of oral reading using standardized rubrics that go beyond rate and accuracy, such as that based upon the NAEP data (Pinnell et al., 1995).

We recommend that teachers begin to measure fluency growth beginning in the middle of first grade. At second grade and beyond, assessment should occur at least at the beginning, middle, and end of a school year to gauge progress in this important area and to check periodically through the year any students who are not making progress commensurate with their peers. A more comprehensive review of the research related to fluency assessment is beyond the scope of this paper. For more detail, we recommend the reader consult recent descriptions of fluency assessment and expected rates of progress (Chard, Pikulski, & McDonagh, 2005; Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2006).

Reading Comprehension: Promoting Fluency and Beyond

So far, we have defined what fluency is and how it develops. The important role of fluency as the "gateway" to reading comprehension has been emphasized. Indeed, rapid and accurate oral reading frees up memory capacity and makes it possible to derive meaning from text. Does this mean that fluency ensures comprehension? The answer is "not exactly". Fluency is a critical component necessary for comprehension (NRP, 2000), but it is not sufficient. Comprehension is a complex process involving several more factors beyond fluent reading. In the previous section, a deep construct view of fluency was suggested to broaden the definition of fluency to include the dimension of reading comprehension. This is important in that fluency and comprehension are understood within the developmental continuum, reciprocally influencing each other during each developmental stage. To better understand the nature and the extent of the reciprocal relationship between fluency and comprehension, we provide in this section a definition of reading comprehension and then discuss big ideas that contribute to reading comprehension development.

Comprehension as the Essence of Reading

From an instructional perspective, comprehension is the ultimate goal of reading and is critically important for children to succeed academically. Additionally, reading comprehension is supported by the other four components of reading development (i.e., phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, and vocabulary). Ideally, the instructional emphasis of these reading components—including comprehension—changes depending on the time of skill onset, the duration of acquisition, and the levels of skill performance (Paris, 2005). For very young readers, acquiring the first three skills (i.e., phonemic awareness, the alphabetic principle, and fluency) is the main instructional goal, and for older readers, instructional emphasis will shift to using the reading skills acquired to focus on comprehension of the text. The amount of text reading involved while trying to learn and understand new knowledge can facilitate the readers' fluency

development further. Thus, comprehension and fluency do appear to be mutually beneficial.

Comprehension is not merely a product of combination of different skills, however. It is a meaning construction process using skills and strategies to interact with an author or authors (Carlisle & Rice, 2002; Pressley, 2000). This definition of comprehension focuses on the reader and text factors and their interaction. However, the comprehension process may be affected not only by the reader and text factors but also by other factors, such as the setting in which the learning occurs, task features (e.g., what is expected of readers once they are finished reading), and situation organization—the way teachers organize the learning process (e.g., discussion groups, independent reading) (Carlisle & Rice, 2002). The nature and complexity of the reading comprehension process reflect that fluency alone cannot fully explain higher level reading processes.

Big Ideas of Reading Comprehension

Although reading comprehension involves a complex orchestration of multiple skills and strategies, we believe there are four big instructional ideas to consider when designing instruction to improve reading comprehension: (a) automatic word recognition and fluency with connected texts, which allow readers to concentrate on comprehension; (b) background and world knowledge, which include knowledge of academic vocabulary (Biemiller, 2003); (c) content engagement that includes: comprehension skills (e.g., idioms, sequencing), understanding the purpose of the text (e.g., narrative vs. expository), recognizing text structures and features (e.g., genre, graphic organizers, headings), asking critical questions while reading, and/or engaging in meaningful text-based discourse; and (d) strategy knowledge and use (e.g., previewing/predicting, making connections, monitoring and clarifying, summarization, etc.). Beyond the first big idea of fluency, the others cannot be mastered. Rather, after they are taught, readers continue to grow in their expertise with each new reading experience. In the next section, we turn our attention to meeting the needs of diverse learners as they begin to develop their comprehension expertise.

Different Readers, Different Needs

The big ideas that we suggest are critical to reading comprehension are interrelated. For example, a student who is not a fluent reader is likely to experience difficulties developing new vocabulary and understanding what she reads. Additionally, successful reading requires sufficient language skills because reading is a cognitive, linguistic process. If a student has listening comprehension problems due to low language ability, he or she will tend to have the same difficulties in reading comprehension (Carlisle & Rice, 2002). So as not to oversimplify, however, it is important to note that good decoders do not always understand what they read. This lack of understanding may be because the texts they read are unfamiliar due to a lack of background knowledge on the topic or vocabulary anchors required for that level of passage. Conversely, it is possible that a dysfluent reader may be an adequate comprehender because she

actively engages in the content and uses compensatory comprehension strategies (e.g., slowing rate, pausing, rereading, looking back in the text) to grasp the text's meaning (Walczyk, Marsiglia, Johns, & Bryan, 2004). The relative ease with which proficient readers orchestrate the knowledge and skills needed to make sense of texts belies the complexity involved in addressing the needs of diverse learners. However, it is increasingly clear that students who lack fluency are often not motivated to read often or widely. In the next section we describe the potential consequences of not reading widely.

Fluency and Vocabulary Development

Torgesen, Rashott, and Alexander (2001) suggested that the use of sight vocabulary and passage context, which is related to background knowledge, may contribute to accurate, fluent word recognition. As an extension of this notion, struggling readers with limited sight vocabulary and background knowledge are likely to experience difficulties in constructing meaning from a passage, and in turn, their slow effortful process of meaning construction results in dysfluent reading (Carlisle & Rice, 2002; Torgesen et al., 2001). This explanation indicates how sight vocabulary promotes comprehension and how the flow of comprehension influences fluent reading, supporting the reciprocal relationship between comprehension and fluency.

Torgesen et al. (2001) assert that slow acquisition of sight vocabulary and lack of background knowledge necessary for fluent reading may arise from limited exposure to passage reading. In fact, compared to typical readers, "struggling readers miss out on many hundreds of thousands of opportunities to learn to recognize individual words" (Torgesen, 2003, personal communication, November, 2003). If this suggested relation holds true, the result of the slow development of sight vocabulary would be a persistent fluency gap between typical and struggling readers.

What Does this Relationship Imply for Instructional Design?

Based on our discussion, there are several considerations for promoting success for all students. First, reading instruction should be designed to meet the needs of all students. Not all students learn to read at the same rate or with the same level of support. For instance, while some skillful readers learn best by working independently with challenging tasks and mentoring, struggling readers need explicit and systematic instruction with a relatively large amount of scaffolding. Therefore, differentiated instruction, which adjusts the main instructional focus (e.g., mastery of skills, fluency vs. comprehension), the intensity, the explicitness, the amount of independent activities, and the amount of scaffolding, is essential to meet all the layered and different needs of all learners.

Second, building fluency is critical in that readers cannot be good comprehenders without sufficient fluency. Based on the reciprocal relation between reading fluency and comprehension, increasing fluency at the sentence

and passage level while attending regularly to passage comprehension is also essential.

Third, building vocabulary as world knowledge is important for both fluency and reading comprehension. The relationship between reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge is strong and unequivocal (Baumann & Kame'enui, 2004; Stanovich, 1986). Whether students have sufficient vocabulary will determine how rapidly they can identify words and understand the structure and meaning of sentences. Vocabulary skills and strategies (e.g., affixes, word histories) will be helpful for readers to increase fluency and comprehension when the word is not familiar to the readers.

Fourth, enhancing vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension requires wide reading. As mentioned previously, slow vocabulary development is likely related to limited exposure to texts. Although vocabulary can be taught directly, most vocabulary growth is from incidental learning experience. Therefore, independent wide reading in accessible texts (i.e., texts in which students can read with high levels of accuracy) should be encouraged for all students to increase vocabulary knowledge, which eventually will increase fluency and comprehension (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1998).

Finally, teaching comprehension takes time and needs to begin early (Baker, Chard, Edwards-Santoro, Otterstedt & Gau, 2006). Comprehension requires the development of expertise, rather than simple mastery of skills. Beginning early in Kindergarten and first grade to demonstrate the skills and strategies that contribute to comprehension development can result in increased vocabulary knowledge and early initial skill development that may improve later comprehension (Baker et al.).

Conclusion

The term 'fluency' is still associated with a wide range of definitions. However, in this paper we proposed a deep construct view of fluency, in which the components of fluency include not only accuracy, speed, and oral expression, but also comprehension. We also described how fluency develops based on Ehri's developmental stages. Within this developmental framework, we emphasized that fluency and comprehension processes have reciprocal influences. To better understand the reciprocal nature of the relationship, we defined comprehension and proposed four main ideas that contribute to reading comprehension, which are automaticity and fluency with the code, background and world knowledge, content engagement, and strategy knowledge and use. Finally, we suggested some considerations for instruction based on our discussion related specifically to fluency and vocabulary development. The brevity of this paper prevents us from discussing content engagement and strategic reading in detail. These are areas of comprehension development that warrant much longer discussions. Our point in this paper was to help the reader understand that reading fluency allows readers to access text so that these sophisticated processes associated with reading comprehension are possible.

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Appendix

Ehri's stages of reading development and their instructional implications

Stage of Reading Development	Characteristics of Students' Development	Instructional Implications
Pre-Alphabetic Stage	Students: • Have no appreciation of the alphabetic principle; • Attempt to translate print into language using visual cues.	Teachers should: • Ensure that students have access to print; • Focus on oral language development as well as print awareness.
Partial Alphabetic Stage	Students: • Not able to deal with the full complexity of the sounds in words; • Focus on the use of initial and, later, final letters as clues to words' pronunciations.	Teachers should: • Draw students' attention to both the letters and their sounds of words; • Encourage students to look at all the letters in word and to avoid guessing pronunciations.

(Continued)

Fully Alphabetic Stage	Students: • Know and can blend sounds commonly associated with the letters; • Can instantly identify short words (e.g., cat) without attending to the individual letters and sounds.	Teachers should: • Provide students with ample opportunities to read words that they can decode independently; • Monitor students' accuracy and automaticity with word reading.
Consolidated Alphabetic Stage	Students: • Instantly recognize whole words; • Store spelling patterns that can be used across words; • Increase efficiency with reading new words.	Teachers should: • Increase students' access to more complex texts; • Continue to monitor students' accuracy and automaticity with word reading; • Encourage students to look for familiar spelling patterns in words.
Automatic Stage	Students: • Instantly recognize words; • Apply decoding strategies during fluent reading.	Teachers should: • Monitor students' growth on oral reading fluency.

(Ehri, 1995, 1997, 1998)

Supporting Academic Success

Chapter 2

Project TEACH: A Study to Assess the Centers for Professional Development of Teachers (CPDTs) and to Predict the Success of the Beginning Teacher

Margaret Bolick
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Abstract

Project TEACH (**T**eacher **E**ducation **A**ssessment and **CH**allenge) was created to provide ongoing evidence to determine if the pre-service teachers and first year teachers were effectively prepared for the classroom and the TExES exams through professional development schools, called Centers for Professional Development of Teachers (CPDTs). Created at a Hispanic-Serving Institution, the goal of Project TEACH was to establish a process from which to continuously draw upon research to determine if the CPDTs had a positive effect on the knowledge and preparation of teachers. It was found that pre-service teachers were confident that they would be able to teach the concepts on the TExES EC-4 PPR exam based on a Self-Needs Assessment. A Pearson Coefficient was used to determine whether there was a relationship between the Post-Needs Assessment and pre-service teachers' actual TExES (Texas Examination for Educator Standards) state certification exam scores; no relationship existed. Online surveys of first year teachers indicated a consistent pattern of perceptions and beliefs among the CPDT graduates.

Project TEACH: A Study to Assess the Centers for Professional Development of Teachers (CPDTs) and to Predict the Success of the Beginning Teacher

Project TEACH (**T**eacher **E**ducation **A**ssessment and **CH**allenge) was developed to provide ongoing evidence to determine whether or not the pre-service teachers and first year teachers were effectively prepared for the classroom and the TExES (**T**exas **E**xamination for **E**ducator **S**tandards) state certification exams through professional development schools, called Centers for Professional Development of Teachers (CPDTs) (see Houston & Huling, 1998). Created at a Hispanic-Serving Institution (HSI) in South Texas, the goal of Project TEACH was to establish a process from which to continuously draw upon research to determine if the CPDTs at this South Texas university had a positive effect on the training and preparation of teachers. This paper reports

self-perception data gathered through Project TEACH utilizing a Self-Needs Assessment of pre-service teachers and online surveys of first year teachers.

Teacher Education

The political push for the effective preparation of teachers has grown stronger rather than weaker with the passage of time. Spurred by sharp criticisms that teacher education programs have not been held accountable for results and that there is little evidence that higher education-based teacher preparation is a fiscally sound and effective educational policy, many new efforts to assess and/or enhance the impact of teacher education have emerged (Cochran-Smith, 2003).

A review of the research on teacher education by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (2005) stated that the research on teacher education is suggestive but not conclusive. The report states:

> In no complex human enterprise is research conclusive. In real life, government, business, and schools must operate in the absence of complete knowledge of the consequences of organizational and personal action. The expectation that research will determine what organizations and individuals will do is inconsistent with common experience and observation. (para. 2)

However, many research reports show strong evidence that teachers who have graduated from teacher education programs produce higher student achievement (Darling-Hammond, Holtzman, Gatlin, & Vasquez-Heilig, 2005; Druva & Anderson, 1983; Goldhaber & Brewer, 2000; Hawk, Coble, & Swanson, 1985; Monk, 1994; Wenglinsky, 2002). A study by Darling-Hammond (2000) indicated that "the effects of well-prepared teachers on student achievement can be stronger than the influences of student background factors, such as poverty, language background, and minority status" (p. 35). Additionally, teachers who have graduated from a quality teacher education program are more likely to remain in teaching (Boe, Bobbitt, Cook, Whitener, and Weber, 1997; Ingersoll, 2003; Shen, 2003). Shen (2003) examined attrition rates among 1,702 teachers to find teachers with no teacher education training were more than three times more likely to leave the teaching profession.

Part of the restructuring of schools of education recommended by the Holmes Group (1990, 1995) includes the creation of partnerships through professional development schools (PDSs). This South Texas university responded to this call by establishing the Centers for the Professional Development of Teachers (CPDT). Professional development schools are defined as schools where faculty, administrators, teachers, and future teachers collaborate to build a learning community (Holmes Group, 1990, 1995). In research studies comparing the PDS experience and a traditional, university-based experience, pre-service teachers have been positively impacted by a PDS experience (Neubert & Binko, 1998; Sandholtz & Dadlez, 2000). A longitudinal

study reported students who completed a PDS program remained in the teaching profession longer (Mantle-Bromley, Gould, McWhorter, & Whaley, 2000).

Controversy continues over the effectiveness of teacher education programs in preparing quality teachers. Cochran-Smith (2005) cites a need for research about what teacher candidates learn in teacher education programs, how they use what they learn, and the learning of their students. The response of teacher educators at this South Texas university was to establish vigorous and continuous program evaluation to determine the learning of both pre-service and in-service teachers.

History of Program Evaluation at the South Texas University

The CPDTs were established in 1997 with four primary functions delineated:

- Teacher Preparation;
- Professional Development;
- Inquiry; and,
- Renewal of Curriculum and Instruction. (Clark, 1999, pp. 12-16)

Canales (2001) compared ExCET (the former name for the state educator certification exams in Texas) scores of graduates of the traditional teacher education program with graduates who had participated in the CPDTs. Canales also surveyed pre-service teachers and clinical teachers, and interviewed Partner School principals. Since the report (Canales), there has been research on aspects of the teacher education program at this South Texas university, including technology (Bolick et al., 2003) and service projects (Ward, Wells, & Fernandez, 2001), but little evaluation of the program as a whole. Canales' summary stated:

> While it is labor intensive, and field-based students' performances on the state certification examination do not exceed those of traditional students, there appears to be a consensus between all stakeholders that the more that pre-service teachers are exposed to the 'real world,' the better prepared they will be to meet the diverse needs of students. (p. 17).

Beginning in 2004, the assessment framework for PDSs developed by Teitel (2001) was utilized by the teacher educators in this South Texas university to provide an overview of past fragmented research studies of the CPDTs. Teitel proposed evidence of PDS impact in four areas, namely (a) partnership development; (b) adaptations in roles, structure, and culture; (c) best practices; and (d) improved learning for all (p. 62). He further stated that research has been strong in all areas except for improved learning for public school students in the PDSs. Against this framework, previous program evaluation was proven to be sketchy and included very little analysis of data collected or sharing of results amongst teacher educators at the CPDTs.

Furthermore, recommendations of a program evaluation conducted in 2003 by an outside evaluator exposed the need to establish an ongoing evaluation system of the learning of both teacher education students and

graduates. Teacher education faculty at the CPDTs immediately began investigating and experimenting with assessment systems evaluating the learning of both teacher education students and graduates. As reported in this document, the first phase of institutionalizing evaluation included analysis and sharing of results from the TExES EC-4 Pedagogy and Professional Responsibilities exam (PPR), a Self-Needs Assessment, and an online survey of graduates who had completed their first year of teaching.

Project Teach Evaluation Question 1

Did students enrolled in the CPDTs show significant gains from pretest to post-test on the Self-Needs Assessment, and was there a significant relationship between CPDTs students' post-test scores on the Self-Needs Assessment and their scores on the TExES EC-4 Pedagogy and Professional Responsibilities exam (PPR)?

Methodology

Since fall 2003, pre- and post- needs assessments had been distributed and collected through field-based courses both at the beginning and end of the CPDT semester. The goal of this evaluative piece was to determine whether students enrolled in the CPDTs showed significant gains from pretest to posttest on the "Self-Needs Assessment." A paired samples t-test was conducted to determine whether the students scored significantly higher on the post-needs assessment than the pre-needs assessment after having been trained and prepared through the CPDTs. Further assessment was conducted on the "Needs Assessment" beginning in spring 2004 to determine whether there was a significant relationship between CPDTs students' post test scores on the Self-Needs Assessment and their scores on the TExES EC-4 Pedagogy and Professional Responsibilities exam. A Pearson Coefficient was used to determine the significance of the relationship.

Sample

The sample population included 153 Teacher Education students participating in a field-based program involving five South Texas elementary schools. Forty-six percent of the students were white/non-Hispanic. Forty-eight percent were Hispanic.

Instrument

The needs assessment was based on familiarity of concepts from the state certification TExES EC-4 Pedagogy and Professional Responsibilities exam. The assessment included 89 items with a possible total score of 356. The assessment consisted of Likert Scale responses including: 1=Never Heard Before; 2=Have Read about the Concept; 3=Very Familiar with the Concept; and 4=Could Teach Another Student the Concept. In order to determine the internal consistency of the "Needs Assessment," an alpha coefficient was

calculated. This coefficient (α) is a general form in calculating the reliability of items that are not scored on a right/wrong basis (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2000). The coefficient alpha (α) should range in value between 0 and 1. The greater the consistency in responses among items, the closer the coefficient alpha (α) will be to 1, thus indicating to be reliable (Green, Salkind, and Akey, 2000). The Cronbach Alpha of the Needs Assessment was .988; thereby indicating the reliability of the assessment.

Results of Project Teach Evaluation Question 1

A paired sample t-test was conducted to determine whether a significant difference existed between the Pre- and Post-Needs Assessment of the 153 students. The null hypothesis was accepted or rejected at the .05 level of confidence. Results indicated a mean difference of 52.379, and that a significant difference did exist. The null hypothesis was rejected, $t(151) = -13.224$, $p = .000$. Further data were analyzed to determine if the pre- and post- needs assessment scores existed for each of the four domains creating the total Needs Assessment. The four domains included (a) Designing Instruction and Assessment to Promote Student Learning; (b) Creating a Positive, Productive Classroom Environment; (c) Implementing Effective, Responsive Instruction and Assessment; and (d) Fulfilling Professional Roles and Responsibilities. Results indicated that a significant difference existed in each of the four domains. The null hypotheses were rejected respectively: $t(151) = -12.328$, $p = .000$; $t(151) = -13.531$, $p = .000$; $t(151) = -13.244$, $p = .000$; and $t(151) = -7.523$, $p = .000$.

A Pearson Coefficient was used to determine whether a significant relationship existed between the results of the students' post-needs assessment total score value and his/her actual state certification exam score. The null hypothesis was accepted or rejected at the .05 level of confidence. Results indicated that a significant relationship did not exist. The null hypothesis was accepted, $p = .489$.

Summary

Survey research is the most efficient way to pose questions to a large population. Errors in survey research identified by Salant and Dillman (1994) are coverage error, sampling error, measurement error, and non-response error. In the distribution of the Needs Assessment, coverage, sampling, and non-response were not major errors, as all education students were required to complete the surveys. Measurement error constitutes the main source of error for the Needs Assessment as evidenced by some students selecting all of one level of answer on the Likert scale.

Students enrolled in the CPDTs showed significant gains from pretest to posttest on the Needs Assessment; therefore, a positive effect on the knowledge base of the PPR exam of pre-service teachers did exist. However, six individual item responses were considered to be possible weaknesses or concerns of the Teacher Education program. The six items were determined to be possible

weaknesses by having a mean of 2.5 or less on the pre-needs assessment with less than a 1.0 mean growth on the post-needs assessment. The six items included: Inquiry; Formative Measurement; Criterion Referenced Tests; Authentic Assessment; Performance Based Assessment; and the Texas Professional Development Appraisal System. It may be noted that five of the six areas of concern were among Domain III questions, entitled Implementing Effective, Responsive Instruction and Assessment.

Project Teach Evaluation Question 2

Did CPDT graduates who had completed one year of public school teaching report that the CPDT experience had prepared them to become effective teachers?

Methodology

Permission to participate was acquired from all involved in the research, including superintendents of independent school districts in the South Texas region, first year teachers who were graduates, and their supervising administrators. WebCT, an online learning application, was utilized in order to make the survey available to graduates after directions for completing the survey were distributed via email. Surveys were anonymously returned to the researchers via WebCT. The surveys, and their questions, were descriptively analyzed for patterns of strengths and weaknesses of the CPDTs field-based program based on the responses of the graduates who had completed their first year of teaching.

Sample

A total of 28 CPDT graduates having just completed their first year of teaching were identified among 23 different elementary schools in South Texas. Of the identified 28 graduates, 13 full-time elementary teachers completed and returned the surveys, generating a response rate of 46% (30% teaching early childhood to kindergarten; 40% teaching grades one and two; and 30% teaching grades three to six). The 13 teachers were employed among nine elementary schools in South Texas (11% were kindergarten to second grade schools; 44% were kindergarten through fifth grade schools; 44% were other grade level schools). Fifteen percent of the schools were suburban schools while 85% were urban schools. Twenty-three percent of the schools involved consisted of a Hispanic population of 90% or greater, 23% consisted of a 70 to 90% Hispanic population, and 31% consisted of a 50-70% Hispanic population. Sixty-nine percent of the schools had a 50% or greater economically disadvantaged population. Twenty-three percent consisted of an 85% or greater economically disadvantaged population.

Instrument

A forty-two question online survey was designed utilizing Respondus 2.0, a tool for creating exams or surveys that can be published directly to WebCT. The

survey was based heavily on the survey evaluating teacher effectiveness created by Barton, Andrew, and Schwab (1994). The survey was designed for a teacher who had just completed his/her first year of teaching. The survey consisted of Likert Scale responses including: "Poor, Fair, Good, Very Good, and Excellent;" or, "Never, Seldom, Often, Most of the Time, and Always;" or, "Outstanding, Very Good, Average, Below Average, and Far Below Average."

Results of Project Teach Evaluation Question 2

Tables 1-3, in the appendix, provide a comprehensive view of the results of Project Teach evaluation question 2. Specifically, Table 1 indicates the favorable responses of "Good, Very Good, or Excellent" for each of the survey questions having "Poor, Fair, Good, Very Good, and Excellent" as response choices. Table 2 indicates the percentage of teachers responding favorably with "Often, Most of the Time, or Always" for each of the survey questions having "Never, Seldom, Often, Most of the Time, and Always" as response choices. Table 3 indicates the favorable responses of "Outstanding and Very Good" for each of the survey questions having "Outstanding, Very Good, Average, Below Average, and Far Below Average" as response choices.

Summary

As this was the initial time to administer the online survey to CPDT graduates/beginning teachers, all errors may have been present to some extent in the online survey for beginning teachers. Non-response error was the most predominant error, and percentages of non-reponse were reported earlier. Underwood, Kim, and Matier (2000) concluded that the characteristics of respondents rather than survey method used are more closely related to response rate. Therefore, researchers expected that as more surveys of beginning teachers were conducted as part of program evaluation, demographics of the respondents would reveal which characteristics in beginning teachers affected response rate. Follow-up surveys of non-respondents could also be useful (See Mertler, 2003). Other response effects that may have affected the pre-service and inservice teachers' answers were response order effects, acquiescence effects, and lack of motivation to provide high-quality answers (Krosnick, Narayan, & Smith, 1996; Salant & Dillman, 1994).

Two questions involved an overall assessment of the CPDTs at this South Texas university and the success of the graduate's first year of teaching. When asked how they would rate their preparedness for their first year of teaching, 69% of the first year teacher/graduates surveyed responded favorably with a "Good" or "Very Good;" 31% responded "Fair." When asked how first year teachers would classify their first year of teaching, 55% of the teachers responded "Successful;" 30% responded "Okay, A Growing Experience;" and 15% responded with "A Painful Growing Experience."

Two open-ended questions appeared at the end of the survey. The Beginning Teacher Survey first asked, "List two or three strengths that you gained from your teacher preparedness." Responses included: planning lessons;

modifying for special education students; organization; flexibility; willingness to work with others; open to suggestions and new ideas; classroom management; integrating many subjects; communication among colleagues; and, understanding learning styles. The following are selected comments from a few first year teachers:

- "Willingness to work with others: getting along, open to suggestions and new ideas;"
- "All of the group projects and communication between classmates helped for me to be comfortable with asking questions and receiving professional criticism concerning my teaching;" and,
- "I learned there is more than just one way to do things, so I shouldn't be afraid to try new things."

The Beginning Teacher Survey then asked, "List two or three deficiencies that you believe existed in your teacher preparation program that would have helped you during your first year of teaching." Responses included: better training with severe behaviors; parent meetings; stress management; paperwork requirements; better technology classes; more exposure to the classroom; and classroom management. Individual comments made by the beginning teachers which gave a fuller picture of these categories included:

- "For example, I had a student in my classroom this year who was identified as 'special ed.' but he was mainstreamed in my classroom. Therefore, I had to modify and document everything. I had to reteach and provide individualized instruction for this student. It was a challenge;"
- "I faced some real challenges this year. A lot of that had to do with the fact that I wasn't prepared for the kinds of conditions and home environments that some of these students come from. It took me a while to see that such factors have a huge impact on the success of a student;"
- "I learned about the importance of the multiple intelligences, but what I didn't learn is how to effectively teach in all of the different categories;"
- "I found myself getting frustrated with some of my students because they didn't understand a concept after I just went over it 10 times (especially in math);" and,
- "Better technology classes."

Conclusions

In this study, a paper "Needs Assessment" was distributed to students enrolled in field-based courses. In addition, an online survey utilizing WebCT was distributed to graduates who had completed their first year of teaching in public schools to determine if the CPDTs at a South Texas university had a positive effect on the training and preparation of teachers. Following Teitel's framework (2001), the researchers have analyzed teacher learning as experienced in these South Texas professional development schools. The study

found that pre-service teachers were confident that they would be able to teach someone the concepts assessed on the TExES EC-4 PPR exam. A Pearson Coefficient was used to determine whether there was a relationship between the Post Needs Assessment and pre-service teachers' actual TExES scores; no relationship existed. The data from the online surveys indicated a consistent pattern of perceptions and beliefs among the CPDT graduates. After one year of teaching, the beginning teachers reported (a) classroom management, (b) planning lessons, and (c) collaborating with colleagues, as strengths. Beginning teachers reported (a) teaching a diverse group of learners, (b) managing severe behavior problems, and (c) dealing with all the paperwork, as weaknesses.

The results of this research will stimulate further curriculum analysis of the CPDT program, specifically in the areas of assessment and meeting the needs of diverse students, and it ultimately will impact the teaching practices of the teacher educators. Based upon the fact that little research exists on pubic school student achievement and the professional development schools (Teitel, 2001), future research will include analyzing the learning of the students of the CPDT graduates from this institution in South Texas.

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Appendix: Tables 1-3

Table 1

Percentage of Favorable Responses of Beginning Teachers with "Poor, Fair, Good, Very Good, and Excellent" as Response Choices.

Survey Question	Beginning Teacher %
Competence in communication skills with administrators.	84
Competence in communicating effectively with colleagues.	100
Competence in communicating effectively with parents.	70
Competence in working effectively with special needs children in the regular classroom.	54
Competence in working with ESL children in the regular classroom.	22
Competence in developing and maintaining good relations with parents.	77
Competence in teaching reading/language arts.	77
Competence in teaching mathematics.	77
Competence in teaching science.	84
Competence in teaching social studies.	69
Your ability to effectively plan and organize lessons and activities.	100
Your ability to plan and organize developmentally appropriate instruction for the children.	92
Your flexibility in adjusting plans to deal with unplanned events.	100
Your ability to teach in a clear and logical manner.	100
Your valuing of students' ideas.	100
Your ability to stimulate students' interests.	100
Your competence in teaching thinking and study skills necessary for independent learning.	92
Your competence in maximizing instructional time on task.	86
Your competence in making provisions/modifications for accommodating individual differences among students.	84
Your ability to provide prompt feedback to students and assist them in the evaluation of their own growth.	84
Your ability to hold high, but reasonable expectations for students.	93

Your competence in fairness in relations with students.	100
Your competence in classroom management, specifically, student behavior.	86
Your ability to deal with difficult behavior problems.	86
Your competence in practicing democratic principles which demonstrate and encourage consideration and respect for others.	86
Your competence in classroom management, specifically, organization and completion of required paperwork.	86
Your commitment to teaching.	100
How would you rate your understanding of the purposes, organization, and operation of the total educational aspects of your school?	86
How would you rate your actions in a professional and ethical manner?	93
How would you rate your willingness to try new ideas?	93

Table 2

Percentage of Favorable Responses of Beginning Teachers with "Outstanding, Very Good, Average, Below Average, and Far Below Average" as Response Choices.

Survey Question	Beginning Teacher %
How often do you employ a variety of teaching techniques each day?	93
How would you rate your willingness to try new ideas?	93
How often do you employ a variety of assessment techniques each week?	97
How often do you effectively involve all students in the learning processes or activities each day?	99
How often do you effectively seek and use feedback to improve your instruction?	99
How often do you favor individualized classroom activities with little direct teaching on a daily basis?	55
How often do you favor large group instruction on a daily basis?	77
How often do you favor activity-centered instructional activities on a daily basis?	77
How often do you favor hands-on, manipulative activities on a daily basis?	76
How often do you utilize "real world" and simulated activities and projects?	76

Table 3

Percentage of Favorable Responses of Beginning Teachers with "Outstanding, Very Good, Average, Below Average, and Far Below Average" as Response Choices.

Survey Question	Beginning Teacher %
How would you classify your interest and enthusiasm of your teaching?	85
How would you classify your desire to seek professional growth opportunities?	93
How would you rate your cooperation with others in planning instruction?	100
How would you rate your ability to reflect upon your own teaching effectiveness?	86
How would you rate your demonstrations of leadership qualities among your colleagues?	62

Chapter 3

"Nonfiction Means Real:" The Accessibility of Nonfiction Texts in the Elementary Classroom

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Abstract

The first component of a three-part study of nonfiction in elementary classrooms looks at the accessibility of nonfiction and informational texts to students in grades one through four at three different schools: a dual language university laboratory school with two-thirds of the students on free or reduced lunch, a middle SES dual language school, and a majority-minority Title I school. The study identified the number of fiction and nonfiction books per classroom, the ratio of fiction to nonfiction books, the number of books per student and the distribution of genres across the fiction and nonfiction categories. Researchers found more fiction than nonfiction books in most classrooms, however the percentage of nonfiction books was higher than indicated in previous published studies. Informational books outnumbered biographies and autobiographies in all classrooms.

"Nonfiction Means Real": The Accessibility of Nonfiction Texts in the Elementary Classroom

"I like to read about things I can see and touch. I like to read about places I can actually travel to and see."

The comments are from an adult man who, though an avid reader, went through elementary school hating "story time" and believing that reading nonfiction didn't "count" in middle school reading assignments. Why did this reader believe that he wasn't doing "reading" in his school experiences? Because the message he received over and over again was that reading was all about fiction and narrative. Fortunately, times are changing.

Nonfiction and informational texts are receiving renewed interest and attention in the world of literacy education. National and state standards place a high priority on students' ability to read, write, and think about informational materials, and many state assessments include high percentages of informational

text; state standards require students to ask questions, locate information to find answers, and evaluate sources of information. The terms *nonfiction* and *informational text* are used throughout the research literature to refer to texts that are not fiction and not narrative. This can lead to some confusion in the use of the two terms. One way to structure their relationship is to think of a first division between *fiction*, the narrative and not-true text of literature, and *nonfiction*, the literature of the true, or of fact. *Nonfiction* is seen as the product of an author's inquiry, research and writing. Its purpose is to provide information, explain, argue, and/or demonstrate. Informational text is often classified as a type of nonfiction. While the terms are not exactly interchangeable, for purposes of this paper and the research presented, both terms will be used.

Until recently, much classroom reading instruction focused on fiction and narrative texts. Many educators believe that students prefer fiction and stories; as a result, many classroom libraries contain many more fiction books than nonfiction books (Duke, 2000; Ogle, 2003; Livingston, Kurkjian, Young and Pringle, 2004). Benson (2002) reports that in the early grades, children are immersed in fiction 80% to 90% of the day. If students are to develop the ability to read, write, and understand nonfiction and informational text, they must have access to appropriate materials.

The Need for Nonfiction

Current research challenges the previous emphasis on fiction and narrative. Duke and Bennett-Armistead (2003) identify important reasons for including informational text in schools, especially in the primary classroom:

- Informational text is the key to success in later schooling
- Informational text is found everywhere in the world outside school
- Informational text is preferred by some children
- Informational text addresses children's interests and questions
- Informational text builds knowledge of the natural and social world
- Information text may help build vocabulary and other types of literacy knowledge (pp. 20-22).

Studies show that even primary students like nonfiction topics and texts because they like learning about the real world. Palinscar and Duke (2004) report research that says not only do young children benefit from interacting with text at an early age, but some children actually prefer reading, writing, and listening to informational texts. Palinscar and Duke cite a study by Smolkin and Donovan that analyzed teacher-student discourse. The study found that 83% of the discourse was meaning-oriented when students were discussing information text; however, only 16% of the discourse was meaning-oriented when the students were discussing storybook reading. Palmer and Stewart (2003) examined teachers' and students' practices related to nonfiction and informational text in the classroom. When they interviewed students, they found that students used informational books to answer specific questions they had about a topic; the students also reported that they liked informational texts

because of the knowledge they could gain from looking at photographs and illustrations. Stien and Beed (2004) found that students would rush through fiction books in literature circles so they could get to the next assignment—nonfiction books. Other studies have documented children's interest in nonfiction (Harkrader and Moore, 1997; Mohr, 2003; Owens, 2003; Livingston, Kurkjian, Young and Pringle, 2004).

Literacy educators stress the importance of adding nonfiction to students' experiences. Lucy Calkins emphasizes the need for students to read and understand both fiction and nonfiction. She explains that when students read fiction, they create a story, or drama, in their minds (Strauss, 2004). However, Calkins also stresses the importance of helping students develop experience with non-narrative nonfiction as well. With this type of text, students are constructing a knowledge base, like putting together a machine or a diagram. It is a different type of mental process. Researchers are calling for teachers to provide opportunities and experiences with nonfiction to allow children to develop the essential skills and abilities that gaining meaning from nonfiction text requires (Kristo & Bamford, 2004; Harvey, 1998).

In the past, it was often accepted that young children comprehend narrative text more easily than expository text, and, therefore, they should not be exposed to nonfiction until the middle grades (Duke & Bennett-Armistead, 2003). However, results from the 1992 National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) indicate that fourth graders who report reading informational text have higher overall reading proficiency than those who read only storybooks. Chall, Jacobs, and Baldwin (1990) have attributed the "fourth grade slump" in overall literacy achievement in large part to problems with informational literacy. They also state that late in elementary school, a change occurs from learning to read to reading to learn. Students move from engaging primarily with narrative text to engaging with more informational text. Ogle (2003), Duke (2004), and Morrow and Gambrell (2002) state that we need to focus more attention on informational reading and prepare students to read informational text that is so different from fiction text. Venesky (1982) supports the importance of earlier exposure to nonfiction in the primary grades, stating that by sixth grade more than 75% of students' reading demands in school are with non-fictional materials.

Calkins concludes that it is important for children to read fiction as well as nonfiction; both are equally valuable, and both develop different mental muscles (Strauss, 2004). If students are to be held accountable for reading and comprehending nonfiction on state mandated reading tests, then exposure to more nonfiction in the lower grades is crucial. Expecting students to be tested over expository selections on people, events, or topics that relate to science or social studies requires students to be actively engaged in nonfiction text in the early primary grades.

If teachers are going to engage students in nonfiction texts, then students must have appropriate texts available in the classroom, and they must practice reading those texts. Studies by Duke (2000), and Yopp and Yopp (2000) show that the majority of texts in most classrooms are fiction. A study conducted by

Duke (2000) found that first-grade students spend an average of only 3.6 minutes each day engaging with informational text. She also found that a mean of 2.6% of texts on classroom walls and 9.8% of materials in classroom libraries were informational text. The same study found that children in low SES schools spent even less time engaged with informational text, 1.4 minutes a day, and had even fewer informational texts in their classroom libraries (Duke 2000). Yopp and Yopp (2000) found that only 14% of the texts teachers read aloud in a day were informational. However, research supports the use of nonfiction read alouds in the classroom (Brabham, Boyd, and Edgington, 2000).

The current research indicates, then, that students need access to appropriate nonfiction texts. Previously, teachers complained that well-written, accurate, and attractive texts were not easily available (Moss, 2003). That situation is changing. Educational publishers now recognize the demand for more nonfiction and informational text at all levels of the curriculum and are providing many new materials for schools and teachers. Palmer and Stewart (2003) report a "virtual explosion in the nonfiction trade book field" (p. 38). Bamford et al. (2002) point to an increasing number of nonfiction trade books, big books, posters, charts, and guided reading sets in the market today.

Our Research Focus: Students' Access to Nonfiction

The research related to the accessibility of nonfiction texts led us to question practices in the schools in our community. As preservice and inservice teacher educators, we have promoted the inclusion of nonfiction texts of varying levels and topics in classrooms. We did not, however, have a measure of the actual classroom practices of teachers in our schools. We wanted to know how accessible nonfiction texts were to students, specifically,

- *How many* fiction and nonfiction books are available to students in their classrooms libraries?
- What is the *ratio* of fiction to nonfiction books in classroom libraries?
- How many fiction and nonfiction books are available *per student* in classroom libraries?
- What *types* of nonfiction are available to students in classroom libraries?

Our research focused on the accessibility of nonfiction texts in grades one through four in three different elementary schools in the South Texas area. The results of that research are reported here.

Setting

Three schools in the South Texas area were selected for the study. The sample included first, second, third, and fourth-grade classrooms from each school. One school had only one classroom per grade. The other schools had multiple classrooms per grade; the classrooms used for the study in those schools were selected by building principals.

School A is a dual language laboratory school for children age three through

grade five located on the campus of a university in South Texas. The school receives joint support from the university and the public school district. At the time of this study, there was no fifth grade. The population of the school is 171. Fifty percent of the students are Spanish dominant and 50% are English dominant; 50% of instruction is presented in Spanish and 50% is presented in English. The school population mirrors the district population at large: two-thirds of the students receive free or reduced lunches. The school was rated "Exemplary" by the Texas Education Agency for its Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) performance in 2004.

School B is a K-5 school with an enrollment of 696 students. The student population is 48% non-Hispanic White, 41% Hispanic and 12% other. The number of students participating in free or reduced-priced lunch is 13%. The school is identified as a dual language school, however the student populations and delivery of instruction are not as precisely defined as they are in School A. School B was rated "Recognized" by the Texas Education Agency for its TAKS score performance in 2004.

School C in this study actually consists of two elementary buildings on the same campus site and in the same school district. For purposes of this study, data from both campuses has been combined to represent students in grades one through four on the campus. The primary school is a pre-Kindergarten to first-grade school with an enrollment of 399 students. The student population is 86% Hispanic, 11% African American, and 2% non-Hispanic White. The number of students participating in free or reduced lunch is 94%. The percentage of English language learners is 16%, which is 1% higher than the state average. TAKS scores are not available for this school because TAKS testing begins with third grade. The second school includes grades two through six with an enrollment of 746. The student population is 84% Hispanic, 13% African American, and 3% non-Hispanic White. The number of students participating in free-or reduced lunch is 87%. The school was rated "Academically Acceptable" for its TAKS performance. Both campuses are eligible for Title I (a federally funded program for at-risk students).

Schools A and B belong to the largest of the seventeen districts serving the greater community in this South Texas area. School C belongs to a much smaller school district, however, it serves the same area.

Data collection

A physical inventory and categorization of fiction and nonfiction texts was conducted in first- through fourth-grade classrooms in each of the schools. Inventories were recorded using a researcher-developed classification system. Texts were classified into 14 categories:

Fiction books

- Traditional fiction storybooks
- Historical fiction books

- Texts written as poetry without a major emphasis on factual information
- Informational storybooks (e.g. Magic School Bus series)
- Storybooks with some factual information (e.g. *Stellaluna*)

Nonfiction books

- Books with only factual information, but not biography or autobiography
- Biography/autobiography
- Reference books
- ABC books with specific theme

Additional texts

- Magazines with less than 50% stories/literature
- Magazines with less than 50% factual information
- "Newspapers" with less than 50% stories/literature
- "Newspapers" with less than50% factual information
- Other

For the inventory count, the procedures were the same for all three schools. We started the inventory by first identifying the classifications to include for fiction and nonfiction categories in the classroom libraries. We then created a table with the different categories to use as our template for conducting the physical counting. (See Appendix A: Fiction/Nonfiction Survey Inventory Form). Next, we proceeded to make arrangements with teachers in grades one through fourth to go into each classroom and do the counting. Counting took place after school, during days that students were off from school, or on days when teachers had workdays in the school but did not teach classes. We had to finish a classroom in one day to avoid duplicating counts for the same book. Two doctoral students conducted the counts. Each book was examined individually from cover to cover, and a portion of the text was read to determine its genre. We came across a few books that overlapped into different genres; reference books on children's literature were used to categorize those books. Once a book was counted, it was moved to a separate location. Information gathered from all three schools was then used to create a database to determine specific information with regard to total number of books accessible to students. Researchers conducting the study were all doctoral students who had master's degrees in reading, had taken graduate courses in children's literature, and were experienced classroom teachers.

Our original classification list included a category for "periodicals." However, we decided there were too few periodicals in the classrooms to use for comparison. We initially planned to inventory Spanish-language fictions and nonfiction books in the classrooms of the two schools with dual language programs. However, we did not find a sufficient number of books for comparison.

Results of the Study

Fiction and nonfiction books in classrooms

We first looked at global numbers of books per classroom for each of the target schools. The distribution of fiction and nonfiction books for all the schools is shown in Table 1.

In school A, the dual language university laboratory school, the fiction totals ranged from a low of 84 books in the fourth-grade classroom to a high of 367 books in the second-grade classroom. The nonfiction totals ranged from a low of 71 books in the second-grade classroom to a high of 98 books in the first-grade classroom. In all of the classrooms in school A, there were more fiction books than nonfiction books.

We could not obtain exact parallel statistics for each of the classrooms in school B. In that school the second and fourth grade teachers did not maintain classroom libraries; these teachers had rooms that faced the large open school library. The students in these classes had immediate and full access to the total library collection. However, classroom libraries were maintained in first and third grades and totals were used from those classrooms. The fiction totals ranged from a low of 222 books in the third-grade classroom to a high of 331 books in the first-grade classroom. The nonfiction totals ranged from a low of 29 books in the first-grade classroom to a high of 38 books in the third-grade classroom. In the two rooms with classroom libraries, there were more fiction books than nonfiction books.

In school C, a lower socioeconomic minority school, the fiction totals ranged from a low of 55 books in the fourth-grade classroom to a high of 216 books in the third-grade classroom. The nonfiction totals ranged from a low of 20 books in the first-grade classroom to a high of 220 books in the third-grade classroom. The third and fourth grade classrooms in school C were the only classrooms where we found more nonfiction books than fiction books. The third-grade classroom had a disproportionately large classroom library and accounted for the high number of both fiction and nonfiction books. While that classroom had 216 fiction books, for example, the next highest number was 109 books in the second-grade classroom. The third-grade classroom had 220 nonfiction books; the next highest number was 70 books in the fourth-grade classroom. The teacher in the third grade classroom was enrolled in master's level reading courses conducted by a local university on the elementary school campus. That teacher had been involved in several graduate class experiences that promoted the use of nonfiction in the classroom.

Table 1
Total Books Per Grade Per School

Grade	Total/subtotals	School		
		School A	School B	School C
1	Total	282	360	125
	Fiction	184	331	105
	Nonfiction	98	29	20
2	Total	438	*	154
	Fiction	367	*	109
	Nonfiction	71	*	45
3	Total	222	260	436
	Fiction	126	222	216
	Nonfiction	96	38	220
4	Total	164	*	125
	Fiction	84	*	55
	Nonfiction	80	*	70
Overall Totals	Total	1106	620	840
	Fiction	761	553	485
	Nonfiction	345	67	355

*Teachers in these classrooms did not maintain classroom libraries; the school program was designed so that students in these grades had full access to the school library.

Ratio of fiction to nonfiction books in classrooms

We looked at our results in another way: the ratio of fiction to nonfiction books in each classroom. The ratios are shown in Table 2. It is significant to note that the fiction to nonfiction ratio of books in the first-grade classroom in school B was high at an 11:1 ratio. In the third and fourth grade classrooms of school A and C, there was an even 1:1 ratio of fiction to nonfiction. The other ratios ranged from 2:1 to 6:1 of fiction to nonfiction in the classrooms. With the exception of the first-grade classroom in school B, all of the classrooms exceeded the 10% nonfiction level found in previous studies (Duke, 2000).

Table 2

Ratio of Fiction to Nonfiction in Each Classroom

Grade	School A	School B	School C
1	2:1	11:1	5:1
2	5:1	*	2:1
3	1:1	6:1	1:1
4	1:1	*	1:1

*Teachers in these classrooms did not maintain classroom libraries; the school program was designed so that students in these grades had full access to the school library.

Fiction and nonfiction books per student in classrooms

We also wanted to measure the number of fiction and nonfiction books available per student in each of the classrooms. These results are shown in Table 3. The number of fiction books available per student ranged from a low of 3.4 books in the fourth-grade classroom of school C to a high of 16.6 books in the first-grade classroom of school B. The number of nonfiction books per student ranged from a low of 1.1 books in the first-grade classroom of school C to a high of 12.2 books in the third-grade classroom of school C. In nine of the classrooms, there were fewer than five nonfiction books per student.

Table 3

Grade		School A	School B	School C
1	Students	22	20	18
	Fiction	8.4	16.6	5.8
	Nonfiction	4.5	1.5	1.1
2	Students	22	*	14
	Fiction	16.7	*	7.8
	Nonfiction	3.2	*	3.2
3	Students	22	19	18
	Fiction	5.7	11.7	12
	Nonfiction	4.4	2	12.2
4	Students	23	*	16
	Fiction	3.7	*	3.4
	Nonfiction	3.5	*	4.4

Books Per Student: Fiction/Nonfiction

Types of nonfiction books in classrooms

When we ask teachers in our graduate courses about the availability of nonfiction in their classrooms, they often respond by indicating that yes, they teach biographies. We wanted to know if classroom nonfiction was limited to biographies and autobiographies, or if other genres were available as well. The results of our inventory are found in Table 4.

We found that biographies and autobiographies were second to “books with only factual information” (non-biography/non-autobiography) in all grades in all schools. Reference books outnumbered biographies and autobiographies in five

of the classrooms. The third-grade classroom in School C, the classroom with the largest number of nonfiction books in the sample, had 88 factual books, 68 biographies/autobiographies, and 63 reference books. School A, the university laboratory school, had the highest number of nonfiction books across all the grades. The second-grade classroom had 59 factual information books. The first- and third-grade classrooms each had 42 reference books and 21 biographies/autobiographies. Three of the classrooms in the full study had fewer than six reference books and only one class had no biographies or autobiographies.

Conclusions

Our research reflected the changing picture of fiction and nonfiction availability in classrooms. We found evidence of both past practices and new thinking. The school with the higher SES population had more books in its classrooms. This school also had a large central library that was open to individual classrooms. The school with the lowest SES population had the fewest books overall. However, SES alone appeared not to be the determining factor in all classrooms. The largest classroom library, with the highest number of both fiction and nonfiction books, belonged to a third grade teacher in the Title I school. Here, the teacher's knowledge of and enthusiasm for trade books was translated into a collection with almost equal numbers of fiction and nonfiction books. We did find that in the majority of classroom libraries, 60%, fiction books outnumbered nonfiction. This finding also indicates, however, that in 40% of the individual classrooms, there was an approximately equal amount of fiction and nonfiction. This is an improvement over earlier studies that reported significantly smaller percentages of nonfiction texts in classrooms.

We found a wide range of the number of books available per student in the classrooms we examined. Three of the classrooms with individual libraries, 30%, had two or fewer nonfiction books per student. In these same classrooms, there were six to 16 fiction books per student. If we accept the research that demonstrates the importance of engaging students with nonfiction texts, then we need to encourage classroom teachers to increase the number and selection of nonfiction books in their classroom libraries.

We entered this research expecting to find that biographies and autobiographies made up the majority of nonfiction texts in classroom libraries. We found, instead, that informational books outnumbered biographies and autobiographies in every classroom. In approximately half of the classrooms, there were as many reference books as biographies and autobiographies. We were encouraged by the fact that teachers had a range of nonfiction in their classroom libraries.

Table 4
Fiction and Nonfiction Genres in Classrooms

Category	School A No. of texts				School B* No. of texts				School C No. of texts			
	Grade				Grade				Grade			
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Regular Fictional Storybooks	125	242	114	29	292	0	121	0	98	65	161	35
Historical Fiction	4	6	4	3	0	0	18	0	2	8	3	13
Poetry, major emphasis not on factual information	7	11	0	2	0	0	4	0	1	10	10	0
Informational Storybooks	12	69	6	12	8	0	34	0	3	7	35	6
Storybooks with some factual information	36	39	2	38	31	0	45	0	1	19	7	1
FICTION TOTALS	**184**	**367**	**126**	**84**	**331**	**0**	**222**	**0**	**105**	**109**	**216**	**55**
Books with only factual information	27	59	25	59	29	0	21	0	14	35	88	23
Biography/autobiography	21	0	21	9	0	0	11	0	3	7	68	6
Reference books	42	3	42	12	0	0	5	0	3	0	63	41
ABC books with specific theme	5	3	5	0	0	0	1	0	0	3	1	0

Math books /Counting	3	6	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NONFICTION TOTALS	**98**	**71**	**96**	**80**	**29**	**0**	**38**	**0**	**20**	**45**	**220**	**70**
Magazines with >50% stories/literature	1	0	1	0	0	0	17	0	0	0	0	3
Magazines with >50% factual information	0	1	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Newspapers with >50% stories/literature	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Newspapers with >50% factual information	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
PERIODICAL TOTALS	**1**	**1**	**20**	**3**	**0**	**0**	**17**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**5**
TOTAL BOOKS (excluding periodicals)	**282**	**438**	**222**	**164**	**360**	**0**	**260**	**0**	**125**	**154**	**436**	**125**

This research did not address the question of why so many teachers appeared to prefer fiction over nonfiction, nor did we identify significant research addressing the question. Teacher preference for fiction is often stated as a given. Taberski, in the foreword to Duke and Bennett-Armistead (2003), states that “fiction remains the genre of choice for most primary teachers” because children love it and that stories “hold them in rapt attention” (p. 10). Benson (2002) comments that “fiction is typically our number one choice” in read alouds, reading lessons, and content lessons (p. 13).

It may be that teachers have not had the exposure to or experience with quality children’s nonfiction. We conducted a brief survey of syllabi for children’s literature courses that we could find online. We found that of 25 syllabi, only eight included nonfiction as a topic of study. Teachers may also be unfamiliar with resources for identifying good nonfiction. They may be unaware that professional organizations related to specific content areas, such as the National Council for Teachers of Mathematics and the National Science Teachers Association, provide recommendations for children’s literature in their

various publications. The National Council of Teachers of English recognizes quality nonfiction with its Orbis Pictus Award. (A listing of content-related websites is provided with this article.) None of the investigators in this study ever received specific coursework or professional development in identifying and using children's nonfiction in the classroom. It is not surprising, then, that we find little attention given to nonfiction collections and activities in elementary classrooms.

The analysis of the accessibility of nonfiction in individual classrooms is one component of a three-part study. We have also collected data on student preferences for nonfiction experiences in the classroom and student self-selection of individual texts given fiction and nonfiction choices. We are in the process of studying teacher preparation for teaching nonfiction and teacher use of paired texts. In addition to the studies we have planned, we recognize that additional research is necessary to examine issues such as the best strategies for teaching nonfiction and informational texts to students across the grades and the criteria students use in selecting nonfiction for different purposes. As the body of research addressing nonfiction and informational texts develops, we will be better able to address the literacy interests and needs of students at all grade levels.

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Appendix A

Fiction/Nonfiction Survey Inventory Form

Survey of Fiction/Nonfiction Texts

Grade _____

Category	English Lang.	Spanish Lang.	Science concepts	Math concepts	Social studies concepts	Language arts concepts	Other
F 1 Regular fictional storybooks							
F 2 Historical fiction							
F 3 Poetry, major emphasis not on factual information							
F 4 Informational storybooks (e.g.Magic Schoolbus)							
F 5 Storybooks with some factual information (e.g.*Stellaluna*)							
NF 1 Books with only factual information.							
NF 2 Biography/ autobiography							
NF 3 Reference books							
NF 4 ABC books with specific theme							

(continued)							
P 1 Magazines with >50% stories/literature							
P 2 Magazines with >50% factual information							
P 3 "Newspapers" with > 50% stories/literature							
P 4 "Newspapers" with >50% factual information							
Other							

Appendix B

Nonfiction Resources for Teachers

The following professional organizations provide resources related to nonfiction literature on their websites or in their journals:

International Reading Association
http://www.reading.org/

National Association for the Education of Young Children
http://www.naeyc.org/

National Council for Teachers of Math
http://www.nctm.org/

National Council for the Social Studies
http://www.ncss.org

National Council of Teachers of English,
http://www.ncte.org/

National Science Teachers Association
http://www.nsta.org/

Chapter 4

Meeting the America Reads Challenge: One School's Efforts

Stephanie Ann Grote
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Abstract

This article reports on a mid-year evaluation of a classroom-based America Reads Challenge program located at the Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC), a public school situated on the Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi campus. There are five sections in this evaluation: (a) a description of the America Reads Challenge program at the ECDC; (b) a review to identify characteristics of successful tutoring programs; (c) a survey of ECDC America Reads tutors, classroom teachers, and campus principal to determine their perceptions on the program; (d) classroom observations of the America Reads tutors and students; and (e) an examination of the reading scores of the students.

Meeting the America Reads Challenge: An Evaluation of One School's Efforts

The America Reads Challenge is a federal program started in 1997 by President Bill Clinton in an effort to ensure that all children read independently and well by the end of third grade. This initiative was created in response to the growing decline in reading scores (Sheets & Hurtado, 2001). The primary goal of the America Reads Challenge is to support tutoring programs that offer children, who are typically performing one grade level or more below their current grade level, extended hours of reading time with the individual attention of an adult tutor. Tutors may range from community volunteers or retired senior citizens to college students participating in a Federal Work Study program. Federal America Reads money pays for the tutors in these programs.

The America Reads Challenge initiative has very few prescribed regulations or guidelines besides the policy that America Reads tutors must tutor elementary school children between the ages of five to eight years old (McDaniel, 2002). Helping children improve in reading is the consistent goal for all America Reads Challenge programs. However, the structure, methods of evaluation, personnel providing training, and content of training varies significantly between various programs (Adler, 1999).

The following sections of this report will discuss the America Reads Program located at the Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC), a public school situated on the campus (Cassidy & Sanders, 2002) of Texas A&M

University-Corpus Christi (TAMUCC). The question that prompted and guided this evaluation was, "Is the America Reads Program located at the Early Childhood Development Center utilizing effective practices, and is the program meeting the needs of the students being tutored?" Data used to answer this question was gathered in three different ways: (a) a survey was conducted on the perceptions of the America Reads tutors, classroom teachers, and campus principal on program effectiveness, (b) classroom observations of the America Reads tutors and students were conducted to determine the practices used by the tutors in the classrooms; and (c) an examination of the students' reading scores was conducted to determine whether or not the students were showing growth.

The Early Childhood Development Center's America Reads Program

The dual language Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC) is a collaboration between the Corpus Christi Independent School District (CCISD) and Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMUCC). The ECDC houses a public school (ages three through 5th grade) situated on the TAMUCC campus. The ECDC's student population reflects CCISD's population; 60% of the students qualify for free lunch. Students receive instruction in both English and Spanish. One of the purposes of the ECDC is to serve as a site for research-based practices that can be validated and implemented at other schools.

In the fall of 1998, the second year of America Reads, the ECDC initiated a pilot tutoring program modeled after Reading Recovery. This tutoring program used a "pull out" model where students left the classroom and worked with an America Reads tutor one-to-one. Tutoring sessions attempted to follow the guidelines suggested by Cohen, Kulik and Kulik (1982) and the format used in the Reading Recovery Program (Clay, 1993). Tutoring sessions were 30 minutes long and included six segments: (a) fluency writing practice, (b) rereading of familiar text, (c) reading skills lessons, (d) continued reading of lengthy text, (e) writing practice, and (f) read alouds preformed by the tutor (Cassidy & Linton, 2002).

While the program showed growth in those students being tutored, there was some dissatisfaction among the ECDC teachers and administrators over what was felt to be negative effects of the pull out program on classroom instruction. In 2005, at the request of the ECDC teachers and administrators, the tutoring program was changed from a pull out program where students left the classroom to one in which tutors went into the classroom to work with children. It was felt that under the new plan, children would not be missing time in the classroom.

For the 2005-2006 school year, 13 tutors were selected from full-time TAMUCC students eligible for work-study funds to work 20 hours a week. The ECDC's America Reads coordinator, a doctoral student and reading specialist, interviewed and selected the tutors. Ten of the 13 tutors were education majors. One of the tutors left the program because of schedule conflicts. Initial training of tutors took place before they worked with children. In an all-day workshop, tutors were introduced to the structure of the program, their duties, and selected

reading strategies; they were also given a handbook and training manual. The reading strategies introduced in the initial workshop were those identified as being effective in tutoring children (Bader, 1997; Morrow & Woo, 2000). These were language experience, read alouds, shared readings, and guided reading. CCISD uses a form of guided reading to identify students' instructional reading level and level books. The workshop taught the students the district's procedures. The training manual utilized the strategies presented in lessons that could be used in tutoring sessions.

After the initial training workshop, training sessions were held the first and third Friday of each month. The first monthly training session was a whole group session where assessments and teaching strategies were introduced and discussed. The topics covered in the fall were individual reading inventories, running records, attitude surveys, guided reading, phonic inventories, and retellings. The second training of the month was a one-to-one conference between the site coordinator and each tutor. The training topics for the following month were decided based on the needs expressed by the tutors during the one-to-one conferences.

The classroom teachers chose which elementary students would participate in the America Reads Challenge. The teachers used the *Developmental Reading Assessment* (DRA) (Beaver & Carter, 2003), *Texas Primary Reading Inventory* (TPRI) (Foorman et.al., 2002), and classroom observations to determine which children would benefit most from one-to-one and small group tutoring. The state of Texas mandates use of the TPRI for kindergarten through second grade. The school district (CCISD) mandates use of the DRA for those schools participating in balanced literacy programs.

Tutors were assigned to specific classrooms and a schedule was developed. Tutors were responsible for daily lessons. The lessons were formed to fit the individual needs of each student. The tutor determined this information from the individual reading inventories, running records, and other progress monitoring assessments. A rich selection of books and materials from the classroom teacher and the school library were also available.

Each America Reads tutor was assigned a classroom. As a result of the specifications of the America Reads guidelines, the tutors were only assigned in the first through third grade classrooms. In each of the classrooms, the tutor worked with and at the direction of the classroom teacher. The America Reads supervisor monitored the tutors and coordinated tutor efforts. The schedule and tasks performed by the tutor varied by each classroom because of the individual needs of the identified elementary students and the directions of the classroom teacher. The tutoring could be one-to-one, two-to-one, or small group.

Throughout the fall semester, students were regrouped according to reading progress and needs indicated through individual reading inventories, running records, and teacher observations. The groups were constantly evaluated and reformed based on perceived student needs. Due to the regrouping of students, those students tutored by America Reads' tutors changed regularly. In the fall

semester, the America Reads tutors worked with 53 of the 66 children enrolled in the first through third grade classrooms.

Because of the varied nature of the different classrooms and how the America Reads tutors functioned in these classrooms, tutor training was flexible and designed to meet the needs of the tutors. The strategies used by the tutors in the different classrooms varied. While there were some whole group training in assessment and selected reading strategies, follow-up sessions frequently developed from the tutor and coordinator's perceptions of need based on what was transpiring in a specific classroom. This means that this program did not use a set of specific strategies or a specific format of tutoring. While the reading strategies used by the tutors were those that are recognized as being effective (i.e., Bader, 1997; Morrow & Woo, 2000), daily instruction and tutors' roles varied. The training attempted to fit the needs of the different tutors, teachers, and classrooms.

Program Effectiveness

While articles and evaluations of America Reads programs exist, no recent comprehensive study citing effective practices or programs was identified. Consequently, individual tutoring and volunteer tutoring programs, along with different America Reads program evaluations, were examined to identify practices of effective programs.

The United States Department of Education's Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI) had a panel of experts examine and identify effective and promising practices of America Reads volunteer reading programs in the second year of America Reads' existence. The panel members included school and community-based education professionals, reading experts, and professional staff of the educational laboratories. The expert panel, in examining the partnership's effective practices reports, looked for evidence of success, program quality, educational significance, and replicability. The essence of the panel's findings in effective and promising practices is divided into four sections: (a) the tutoring program partnership, (b) operational norms, (c) tutor training, and (d) high quality materials (Potter, Blankenship, & Carlsmith, 1999). Because no recent comprehensive evaluation was found, the findings of OERI review will be used as a framework identifying characteristics of successful programs.

The Tutoring Program Partnership

The OERI report suggests that the tutoring partnership works well if the following characteristics are included (a) a clear definition of the roles, responsibilities, and accountability of partners; (b) active partner participation and frequent communication; (c) a diverse knowledge base among partners; (d) a plan for sustainability and capacity building; (e) an effective steering committee lead by a proactive and well-qualified program director; (f) strong school and teacher commitment; (g) effective and sustainable tutor recruitment; and (h) access of groups of tutors from universities, civic organizations, and

businesses. In addition to agreeing with the OERI findings, other authors also state that tutors and tutees need to develop a rapport (Otaiba & Pappamihiel, 2005; Elbaum, Vaughn, Hughes, & Moody, 2000; Juel, 1996; Morrow & Woo, 2001; Wasik, 1998a and 1998b).

Reporting on a successful America Reads program in Pittsburgh, Bean, Turner, and Belinski (2002) stress that there is a need for an ongoing evaluation plan that provides for program improvement and accountability. They also recognize the need for all personnel involved to have a clear understanding of the mission and goals of the program. Their suggestions include (a) a letter with various stipulations of the program (to be distributed before the start of the school year); (b) a periodically updated guide containing basic information of permitted actions and duties; (c) a tutor handbook containing detailed information about the program; and (d) communication through a web site and e-mail.

Operational Norms

The OERI panel, as well as others, state that for a tutoring program to be successful, the operational norms should include (a) a coordinator who ideally is a reading specialist or education professional; (b) consistent onsite supervision of tutors; (c) recruitment, training, and placement of tutors early in the school year; (d) orientation and training programs for parents to enable them to support tutoring efforts; (e) systematic record keeping of tutoring session plans and student assessments; (f) tutoring sessions that support district curriculum and classroom instruction; and (g) tutor commitment (McDaniel, 2002; Potter et al., 1999; & Wasik, 1998a, 1998b). Others suggest that along with the need for tutoring to be intensive and consistent, tutoring also needs to be coordinated with classroom instruction (Elbaum et al., 2000; Juel, 1996; Morrow & Woo, 2001; Otaiba & Pappamihiel, 2005).

Tutor Training

The OERI panel said that tutoring efforts are maximized when (a) training is based on a clearly defined and documented research-based training model; (b) trainers receive training; (c) feedback from tutors is used to modify the training curriculum; (d) training accommodates tutor's varying expertise, learning styles, and schedules; and (e) preservice training covers substantive contents (Potter et al., 1999). Bean et al. (2002) state that for the training program to be strong it must also have support from both the university and the school or agency site. This relationship/support plays a large role in tutor training.

Otaiba and Pappamihiel (2005) give three steps for training successful tutors. The first is to design training based upon what tutors need to know to use the selected tutoring materials successfully. Second, general orientations help tutors understand the tone of the school environment. Third, rudimentary preparation in second language acquisition is important for English Language Learner (ELL) students. Different authors emphasize that in order for a program to be effective the tutors must be well trained (Arnold, 2000; Coulter, 2004;

Elbaum et.al, 2000; Juel, 1996; Marrow & Woo, 2000; Wasik, 1997 1998a, 1999b).

High Quality Materials

The final suggestion made by the OERI panel is that successful programs develop or provide (a) a program-specific handbook and resource library for tutors; (b) a tutor-training manual; (c) a rich selection of children's books and consumable materials; (d) materials that support school standards; and (e) planning, record-keeping, and assessment tools (Potter et al, 1999). Wasik (1997, 1998a) echoes these recommendations, stressing the importance of having a rich selection of children's books and other instructional materials.

Cohen (2003) states that creating a differentiated program must begin with diagnostic assessments that clearly identify specific learning gaps. Effective programs must have systematic and ongoing methods of monitoring skill development, measuring core academic skills, and tracking achievement against learning objectives. Assessment results must be constantly analyzed so each child's learning plan can be modified to meet student progress goals. Teachers and tutors need to understand that small successes build on each other to create breakthroughs in learning and that these breakthroughs cannot occur without positive environments that generate self-confidence, motivation, and the joy of learning in students.

In addition to these characteristics of successful volunteer tutoring programs, Otaiba and Pappamihiel (2005) state that it is more likely that tutoring programs will be implemented well if the tutoring environment is well prepared. They suggest uninterrupted time for tutoring and a relatively quiet tutor's corner with space to organize tutoring materials.

The Survey

Using the review above, 22 areas were identified as characteristics of successful volunteer tutoring programs. These areas served as the basis for constructing the survey questionnaire to give to the tutors, teachers, and ECDC principal to rank the extent to which they perceived that these 22 characteristics were incorporated into the tutoring program. The survey questions were constructed in an ordinal rank to communicate the degree of incorporation of each of the 22 areas. The survey instrument was developed and given to three doctoral students for feedback on question clarity. The survey questions were then modified based on the feedback. The classroom teachers' survey asked one additional question concerning tutor performance: "Are the tutor's lessons appropriate and effective?" The tutors, classroom teachers, and the campus principal were all asked to provide feedback on the 22 defined areas.

The tutors answered the survey first. During the one-to-one conferences, the tutor was asked to complete the survey anonymously and place the completed survey in a designated envelope. Before the tutor completed the survey, the site coordinator read each category and asked the tutor if all the questions were clear for understanding. After the tutor responded with a response of understanding,

the site coordinator left the room so that the tutor could complete the survey privately. The tutors put the completed survey into a sealed envelope. After all the tutors had completed the survey, a university faculty member opened the envelopes and assembled the completed surveys.

The teacher survey and principal survey were completed next. The first, second, and third grade teachers were asked to fill out the survey during their conference periods and return them to an envelope placed on the secretary's desk. The campus secretary returned a completed survey to the America Reads coordinator.

The survey results were combined for an overall consensus of how the tutoring program matched the categories of successful programs. The results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Categories, Tutors, Teachers, and Principal Responses

Category	Exceeds Expectations		Meets Expectations		Below Expectations		Unable to Rate	
	Teacher (%)	**Tutor (%)**	**Teacher (%)**	**Tutor (%)**	**Teacher (%)**	**Tutor (%)**	**Teacher (%)**	**Tutor (%)**
Clear definition of roles and responsibilities	33.33 *	23.07	66.67	76.92				
All partners feel responsible for the success of the program	66.67	76.92	33.33*	23.07				
Frequent communication occurs between partners	33.33	15.38	33.33*	61.54		23.08	33.33	
Strong school, teacher, and tutor commitment is present	66.67 *	84.46	33.33	15.38				
Effective tutor recruitment is present		23.07	33.33*	15.38	66.67	38.46		23.09
Onsite supervision of tutors is present	33.33	23.07	66.67*	30.76		23.07		23.49
Assessment results are used to modify student goals	33.33 *	23.07	33.33	38.46	33.33%	23.07		15.4
Tutor's lesson framework is research-based		15.38	*	38.46	33.33%	38.46	66.67	7.7
Active partner participation is present	66.67 *	61.54	33.33			15.38		23.08
Feedback from tutors is used to modify the training	33.33	15.38	33.33	46.15		23.07	33.33*	15.40
Feedback is given to tutors about their performance		46.15	66.67	30.76		15.38	33.33*	7.71
Recognition and appreciation of tutors is present	66.67 *	100	33.33					

(Table 1, continued)	Teacher	Tutor	Teacher	Tutor	Teacher	Tutor	Teacher	Tutor
Adequate training is provided		23.07	33.33*		66.67	76.92		
A rich selection of children's books and consumable materials is available	33.33*	30.76	33.33	76.92	33.33			
Materials and tutoring curriculum support school standards	33.33*	15.38	66.67	53.85		15.38		15.38
Materials provided are of high quality	33.33*	15.38	66.67	53.85		7.69		23.08
Tutors meet educational and background check			100*	100				
If bilingual, tutors demonstrate appropriate second language proficiency			33.33*	100				66.67
A positive environment is present in the school	66.67*	84.46	33.33	15.38				
Uninterrupted time is provided to work with the students			33.33*	53.85	33.33	46.15	33.33	
A quiet workspace is provided for one-to-one tutoring.		7.69	33.33*	23.07	33.33	69.23	33.33	
**Tutors lessons are appropriate and effective	66.67		33.33					

Note: Thirteen tutors and three teachers responded to the survey.
** Indicates the ranking determined by the campus principal.*
**The last area is the additional question added to the survey completed only by the classroom teachers.

The classroom teachers, tutors, and principal gave "meets" or "exceeds" expectation rankings to 16 of the 22 areas. The five areas receiving the highest positive ranks were (a) a positive environment is present in the school, (b) recognition and appreciation of tutors is present, (c) strong school, teacher, and tutor commitment is present, (d) all partners feel responsible for the success of the program, and (e) active partner participation is present. The five areas ranked as not meeting or exceeding expectations were (a) tutors are trained in appropriate teaching methods, (b) effective tutor recruitment occurs, (c) quiet work space for one-to-one tutoring is provided, (d) uninterrupted time is provided to work with the students, and (e) adequate training is provided. As of the writing of this article, it was intended that these five areas receiving a ranking of not meeting or exceeding expectations would result in program modification the following academic school year.

Classroom Observations

A classroom observation form was created to guide observations of classroom behaviors. The form focused on six areas: (a) task behaviors displayed by the student, tutor, and teacher; (b) body language and appearance of the tutor; (c) a description of the classroom environment; (d) behaviors and reactions of the students; (e) type of instruction (i.e. whole group, small group, and one-to-one instruction); and (f) instructional method (i.e. guided reading, language experience activity, shared reading). These six areas were recorded as present or not present on the observation record sheet without additional elaborations by the America Reads coordinator.

The America Reads coordinator completed the classroom observations in a two-week time span in December of 2005. Those classrooms in which America Reads tutors worked were observed while a tutor was in the classroom. Each observation was one minute in length and was repeated in 10-minute intervals. Each tutor received 10 observations in the two-week period. A total of 120 observations were completed on the 12 tutors.

The Observation Results

The classroom observations revealed that the tutors engaged and interacted with students 79% of the observed time. The America Reads tutors engaged in teaching a lesson 60% of the observed time. The remaining time was spent doing other classroom duties such as preparing materials, observing whole group instruction, or managing centers. Reading was taught 52% of the total observed time. The most frequently observed forms of reading instruction observed in order of frequency were language experience, guided reading, shared reading, and teacher read alouds. A tutor workstation was present 90% of the observed time, and the room was at an appropriate noise level according to the activity 100% of the observed time. Interestingly, the students participated and showed signs of interest 100% of the observed time regardless of the activity. The method of instruction observed most was small group instruction (53.3%), followed by one-to-one instruction (27.8%).

Evaluation of Reading Progress

The ECDC's America Reads Challenge was changed from a "pull out" program to one operating inside the classrooms. Because of this change, a pressing question was, "How effective is this program?" Under the "new" classroom-based tutoring, the students receiving tutoring services changed frequently because of constant regrouping of students. The idea of the America Reads Challenge was that struggling readers were receiving extra tutoring. Based on the regrouping assessments of the teachers, and information gathered from running records and other progress monitoring assessments, the students who were struggling received tutoring services.

Over the three-month period covered in this evaluation, 53 of the 66 first through third grade students received some form of tutoring, with some students receiving more tutoring than others. Given the large percentage of students in those grades who had been tutored, it was decided to examine classroom growth as a whole, and individual growth of those students who had received consistent tutoring.

At the beginning and middle of the year Texas Primary Reading Inventory (TPRI) and Diagnostic Reading Assessment (DRA) scores of all students were analyzed. As part of the school's accountability efforts, the first and second grade teachers gave TPRI and DRA measures to all students in September and again in December. The third grade teacher only had DRA student measures for September and December because the TPRI is not state mandated for third grade students.

The Texas Primary Reading Inventory (TPRI; Foorman et al., 2002) is an early reading instrument designed for children in kindergarten through grade two, and is currently administered at more that 95% of Texas schools. The TPRI consists of measures assessing five reading components: (a) phonemic awareness, (b) graphophonemic knowledge, (c) reading accuracy, (d) listening/reading comprehension, and (e) reading fluency. It judges students as being developed or still developed in these components. The Developmental Reading Assessment (DRA; Beaver & Carter, 2003) assesses student-reading achievement in engagement, oral reading fluency, comprehension skills, and reading accuracy. DRA levels reading achievement on a 40 point scale with a "1" equating to kindergarten, "20" equating to the middle of grade 2, and a "40" equaling a fourth grade level.

Results in First Grade

The comparison of beginning of the year and the middle of the year TPRI and DRA scores showed an improvement of reading skills for all 22 first grade students. Of these 22 first grade students, 12 were bilingual and classified as L3. None of the 12 bilingual students received additional instructional support. One of the first grade students was receiving special services through special education. Of the 22 students, no one was classified as dyslexic.

Therefore, no one received additional reading tutoring. The results of the TPRI are shown in Table 2.

Table 2
First Grade Students' Texas Primary Reading Inventory scores at Beginning and Middle of the year

	Beginning of the Year	**Middle of the Year**
Texas Primary Reading Inventory Percentages		
Percentage of Students Developed on all Nine Tasks	36.36%	68.18%
Percentage of Students Reading at Least the First Story (Not Listening)	63.64%	100%
Mean of Comprehension Score	3.23	4.45
Mean of Fluency Score	28.32	60.91

All first grade students showed an increase in TPRI scores. The percentage of students developed on all nine tasks increased from 36.36% to 68.18 %. The DRA level mean increased from 4.36 to 8.60. All first grade students demonstrated an increase in both TPRI scores and DRA reading levels.

Results in Second Grade

Second grade assessment also demonstrated increased reading skills. Of the 22 second grade students, 10 were bilingual and classified as L3. Of the 10 bilingual students, no one received additional instructional support. Of the second grade students, no one received special services through special education. One of the 22 students was classified as dyslexic and received additional reading tutoring.

The student results on the TPRI are shown in Table 3.

Table 3
Second Grade Students Texas Primary Reading Inventory scores at the beginning and middle of the year *

	Beginning of the Year	Middle of the Year
Percentage of Students Reading at the Second Grade Level	77.28%	95.45%
Mean of Comprehension Score	3.32	4.25
Mean of Fluency Score	62.5	70.13
Mean of DRA Score	17.04	29.05

All 22 second grade students showed an increase in TPRI scores. The percentage of students reading at the second grade level increased form 77.28% to 95.45%. The DRA results showed an increase in reading ability for the second grade students. The mean level at the beginning of the year was 17.04. This mean level score increased to 29.05 at the middle of the year.

Results in Third Grade

The results for the 22 third grade students are limited to the DRA due to the TPRI not being mandated by the district at the third grade level. The DRA scores showed an increase of reading ability for the third grade. The mean reading level increased from 29.18 to 34.36. Of the 22 third grade students, five were bilingual and classified as L3. Of the five bilingual students, no one received additional instructional support. One of the third grade students was receiving special services through special education and received additional support through pull out and tutoring programs. One of the 22 students was classified as dyslexic and received additional tutoring in reading.

Overall Reading Progress

While students in each of the grades analyzed showed growth in reading scores, this growth cannot be attributed to America Reads tutoring because of the fluid nature of the students tutored. Consequently, it was decided to analyze the scores of those students who received consistent tutoring throughout the three-month period.

Two of the 22 first graders and three of the 22 third graders constantly received tutoring. None of the two first-graders or the three third-graders who received constant tutoring was receiving special services through special education, was dyslexic, or received additional tutoring. All 22 second grade students constantly received tutoring as a result of the second grade teacher using her tutors as a tutoring center in which all children rotated through to

receive small group instruction. The TPRI and DRA scores of the students who constantly received tutoring services are in Table 4.

Table 4
Pretest and Posttest scores of First and Third Grade students who received constant tutoring services.**

Student	Texas Primary Reading Inventory Grade Level Tasks		Diagnostic Reading Assessment Reading Levels	
	Beginning of the Year	Middle of the Year	Beginning of the Year	Middle of the Year
1st Grade #1	3 developed task	9 developed task	2	4
1st Grade #2	4 developed task	9 developed task	2	5
3rd Grade #1	*		18	24
3rd Grade #2	*		10	16
3rd Grade #3	*		18	24

*The Texas Primary Reading Inventory is not required by TEA in the third grade.
**None of the First or Third Grade students received extra pull out assistance from Special Education or Bilingual education teachers.

Findings and Conclusions

Based on the results of the teacher/tutor surveys, increased communication is needed between the different stakeholders. While the results of the survey showed that the tutors feel that there is a commitment to them and to helping students' reading skills improve, communication is a problem. Other problematic areas included (a) a clear definition of roles and responsibilities, (b) increased tutor training, (c) increased tutor communication with the coordinator, (d) tutor recruitment, and (e) a quiet workspace for one-to-one tutoring in each classroom.

The perception that effective tutor recruitment is problematic was a surprising result. Employment as an America Reads tutor is limited by financial eligibility and schedule availability. Each fall, a concentrated effort is made to advertise for tutors across the campus using the Financial Aid and Student Employment offices as well as advertising in undergraduate education classes. However, after subsequent discussion with the teachers and tutors, the problematic nature of tutor recruitment was determined. The restrictive nature of financial aid eligibility limits the number of students who apply. It also eliminates some students who would like to participate in the program.

Given the fluid nature of classroom duties and the flexible approach to tutor training in the first three months, concern over tutor training was not

surprising. Tutors were not always certain what to do. Teachers, in turn, would like the tutors to be more knowledgeable and able to function with minimal supervision and direction. All of these factors contributed to the perception that additional training was needed. It also explains why the parties would like more communication with the America Reads coordinator. The training component will be reexamined.

Based on the results of the classroom observations, it was determined that the tutors are (a) actively working with first, second, and third grade students, (b) providing individual and small group reading instruction, and (c) ensuring that their students are engaged. While the classroom observations made no attempts to determine the quality of each tutoring session beyond the seven factors specified, it does seem that the tutors and students are engaged the majority of the time and that the tutors are using the strategies presented during training.

Based on the evaluation of reading scores, each of the three classrooms examined showed growth in reading scores during the three-month period. It was also determined that those first and third grade students who consistently received tutoring had improved reading scores.

The results of this midyear evaluation indicate that the ECDC's America Reads Challenge classroom-based tutoring program is working in a manner consistent with the research on the topic. The program also seems successful in terms of tutor and student classroom engagement and students' improved reading scores. This evaluation has also identified program areas that need to be addressed. While the program appears to be successful, at least for the period evaluated, it is possible that this success is a short-term phenomenon caused by the newness of the classroom-based program and the personalities involved. A longer, more comprehensive multi-year evaluation is needed to determine whether or not a classroom-based tutoring program is successful.

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Chapter 5

Evaluating the Instructional Integrity of Educational Materials: The Textbook Selection and Adoption Process

Gail Harris
Kim Skinner
Gina Stocks

Abstract

Educational materials should be selected based on research in their particular content area and instructional design. Screening criteria can narrow the multitude of materials available down to a number that can be evaluated more comprehensively. Once the materials to be reviewed are at a more manageable number, the creation of an evaluation instrument will aid a selection committee by including criteria that are objective in nature and verifiable. The intent of this paper is to provide an evaluation instrument (rubric) for selecting instructional materials in the field of reading for grades K-6. Establishing guidelines for evaluating materials can help ensure the materials selected will best meet the needs of the students. The goal of the evaluation process should be to select those materials that will be the most useful and require the least amount of modification.

Evaluating the Instructional Integrity of Educational Materials: The Textbook Selection and Adoption Process

Educational materials are one of the single most important expenditures in our public schools. In fact, Chall and Squire (1991) reported that expenditures for basal reading programs accounted for two-thirds of total allocated dollars for reading instruction. A screening and evaluation process is necessary if the teachers are to select the textbooks, programs, and materials that best reflect the needs of their individual students. However, if the textbook committee is not trained or committed to selecting the best program suited to the needs of the majority of their students, the learning initiative will dissolve.

Instructional materials are key parts of the domain where we should rely on front-line educators to make the best decision for their students (Finn & Ravitch, 1996). At one time the term “instructional materials” referred to only textbooks and workbooks, but today our range has broadened to include paperback novels, magazines, computer software, and even videotapes. In most cases, the textbook or instructional program becomes the “real curriculum” (Apple, 2004). Whether

we like it or not, the textbook dominates the curriculum and the teaching practices of many classrooms (Reutzel, 1995). As important as this process is, many materials are selected by committees of teachers and administrators that either don't understand or choose to ignore the educational research (Stein, Stuen, Carnine & Long, 2001). Educational materials must be chosen carefully and objectively; the process should identify those materials that will help teachers (Stein, Carnine, & Dixon, 1998). As a direct result of standards, accountability, and No Child Left Behind, the adoption process has become more complicated. Finn and Ravitch (1996) purport the textbook adoption process is more than just increasingly complex; the process has become fundamentally flawed.

The researchers of this study that today's educational community supposedly relies heavily on teaching methods and strategies that are classified as research-based, yet our selection of instructional materials falls short of that expectation. In his book, *The Arts and the Creation of Mind,* Eisner (2005) asserts that the major function of creative curriculum materials is to amplify the teacher's skills, not to constrain them. Currently, the United States has two types of textbook adoptions. The first is a two-tiered state adoption process. The TEA web site provides a wide range of information on the various components of textbook adoption in the state of Texas (www.tea.state.tx.us). In this process, the first tier is a state level panel, consisting of members appointed by the Commissioner of Education, which reviews all submitted material. This panel then selects a limited number to be part of the inclusion list, which is sent to all school districts throughout the state.

The second tier, made up of textbook committees in each school district, reviews the materials on the list and selects one from the list. Twenty-two states utilize this type of textbook adoption process. Presently, most second tier adoptions are conducted without specific guidelines, so evaluations become brief and generic. An additional concern with regards to specific criteria is that publishers have begun including predetermined checklists that highlight what their products offer instead of what research states is important for student success. These checklists do not encourage comprehensive examination of materials.

The second process of textbook adoption is referred to as "free" adoption. This process permits individual school districts to look at *all* published materials and to select those they deem best to meet the needs of their communities. These "free" adoptions are not hindered by state inclusion lists. Twenty-eight states currently utilize this type of textbook adoption process.

Much of the criticism is directed toward the state adoption process rather than the free adoption. Three of the major criticisms or weaknesses are (a) the lack of training for committee members, (b) the lack of time, and (c) the lack of guidelines. Of these, the most significant reason for criticism of the textbook adoption process has been the lack of training for educators serving on adoption committees. Teachers and committee members have little if any formal training to serve in such a capacity. With no systematic standards or procedures, these

individuals tend to evaluate commercially developed materials with no special attention to research. Their decisions are based on intuition, familiarity with known publishers, or personal preferences (Farr, Tulley, & Powell, 1987). Jay Mathews (2005) concurs with the assertions of Farr, Tulley, & Powell that the textbooks that do get approved are often ineffective.

The establishment of competent textbook adoption committees is an important step in ensuring the successful acquisition of appropriate educational materials. This means training, time to actually evaluate the textbook offerings, and having representatives of the entire school or district be a part of the process. Once the committees are formed, guidelines for evaluating materials should be formulated, as well as a timeline with all aspects of the adoption placed in sequence (Tyson & Woodward, 1989). The committee should review and discuss the research and generate screening criteria to winnow the programs available for evaluation. This allows the reduced number to be evaluated more comprehensively. The critical components should look at the instructional approach of the program, as well as the relationship between the instructional approach and the materials (Stein, Stuen, Carnine & Long, 2001). In contrast, most adoption committee members are told to "look over" the materials in the workroom during their conference period and then make a decision. What is needed is sufficient time to thoroughly analyze the materials.

The guidelines or rubric should be based on empirically derived principles of instruction design. These include (a) content organization around big ideas, (b) the presence of explicit strategies, (c) opportunities for scaffolding instruction, (d) the strategic integration of skills and concepts, and (e) thoughtful review (Stein, Carnine, & Dixon, 1998). Critical concepts that are necessary for content mastery in a particular subject, termed "big ideas," must be present. Porter (1989) observed that a large number of topics received brief coverage in many published programs. He reported that teachers referred to this as "teaching for exposure." Careful attention should be given to scope and sequence charts to identify the amount of exposure on the topics.

The overall educational importance of textbooks and instructional materials is undisputed. In most states they are used as the primary means through which students gain access to the state standards and expectations. Since textbooks, curriculum materials, and technology are of such importance to the success of all students, the formulation of an evaluative instrument to be used by the adoption committee to identify materials that best meet the individual needs of the students, school, or district should be the top priority. The authors included an Abstract for the Evaluation Instrument (Appendix A), and the Evaluation Instrument (Appendix B), which was developed by the authors for choosing reading materials in grades K-6. The instrument is designed to be used as a guide and can be modified to fit the needs of the particular school or district.

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Appendix A

Abstract for Rubric: Evaluation Instrument for Reading Materials K-6

(Gail Harris, Kim Skinner, and Gina Stocks)

The adoption of instructional materials is typically dictated by policies of individual districts and states. School districts are free to select materials they deem to best meet the needs of their students. The intent of the following evaluation instrument (rubric) is to expedite the decision-making process and to objectively select those reading materials in grades K-6 that will be most useful. The authors chose strands to be included based on the TEKS for the K-6 grade levels. The instrument is intended as a guide, a starting point for schools and districts to utilize when considering new reading educational materials.

Appendix B
Evaluation Instrument for Reading Materials K-6

	YES	NO	N/A	Comments
I. Comprehension				
1. Provides sufficient instances for character, plot, setting, and problem analyzation				
2. Explicitly teaches inferences, drawing conclusions, and making generalizations				
3. Uses both narrative and expository text				
4. Provides activities for interactive discussion concerning meanings, messages, and retelling				
5. Provides picture clues for early grades				
6. Provides opportunities for comparing/contrasting , discussing author's point of view, and sequencing				
7. Provides activities for main idea/details, cause/effect, and fact/opinion				
8. Connects previously taught skills and strategies with new content and text				
9. Provides continuing skill or strategy instruction across several instructional sessions				
10. Progresses from simple text structure to more complex text structure				
II. Word Study				
1. Offers opportunities for rhyming, sound matching, blending, segmentation and manipulation				
2. Adds letter-sound correspondence instruction to phonological awareness interventions after students demonstrate early phonemic awareness				

(continued)

3. Progresses from identifying or distinguishing the positions of sounds in words to producing the sounds and adding, deleting, and changing selected sound				
4. Provides for minimal confusion on letter introduction and high-utility letter sound sequence				
5. Incorporates frequent and cumulative review of taught letter sounds				
6. Uses knowledge of word order (syntax) and context to support word identification and confirm word meaning				
7. Reads both regular and irregular words automatically such as through multiple opportunities to read and reread				
8. Apply knowledge of letter-sound correspondences, language structure, and context to recognize words				
III. Reading Instruction				
1. Explicitly teaches reading strategies				
2. Provides a list of high-frequency words for each grade level				
3. Provides leveled readers of sufficient quantity, levels, and genres				
4. Provides direct instruction in specific concepts and vocabulary essential to understanding text and exposure to a broad and diverse vocabulary through listening to and reading stories				
5. Includes high-quality literature				
6. Provides sufficient independent practice materials of appropriate difficulty for students to develop fluency				
7. Includes both narrative and expository readings				

(continued)

IV. Resources				
1. Cost effective				
2. Multileveled				
3. All resources included				
4. Technology resources included				

Developed by Gail Harris, Kim Skinner, and Gina Stocks

Chapter 6

What's In That Egg? A Preschool Project Based on the Reggio Emilia Learning Theory

Alison A. Jones
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Abstract

Today, early childhood classrooms are filled with children who come to school eager and ready to learn. Preschool classrooms can be busy places where children are constantly interacting and learning about their environments. Providing authentic, interesting, child- inspired curriculum is necessary to help children reach their potential. This Reggio Emilia inspired project aimed to determine whether children ages three to five years old who participated in authentic learning experiences were more actively engaged in the learning process. In addition, another important goal of the researchers was to demonstrate that students could be taught information required by the existing standards of achievement that have been developed for pre-kindergarten without the use of worksheets or workbooks.

What's In That Egg? A Preschool Project Based on the Reggio Emilia Learning Theory

Anyone who has ever spent time with a group of young children knows that natural curiosity dwells within them. This curiosity causes these young seekers to assimilate knowledge from their surrounding environment. Children must be provided valuable experiences during the early childhood years in order for thinking and language skills to develop properly. Success with reading and eventually all other school subjects will depend largely on level of skills and stages of development they have reached in their literacy as they enter school (Whitehurst & Lonigan, 2001).

Watching the development of emergent literacy in a classroom of young children is a most rewarding experience for an early childhood educator. To an educator of young children, one of the most exciting experiences in an early childhood classroom is to see the process in action. The reading and writing experiences of young children are of particular interest to researchers in the early childhood field. Emergent literacy opportunities must be rooted in a well-

developed curriculum that allows for and encourages student-centered early literacy activities (New, 1998; Katz, 1998)

In a compelling book on postmodern curriculum development, Slattery (1995) contests that curriculum development in the postmodern era must transcend the linear thinking methods that Americans have come to depend on in schools. These methods have had a profound effect on curriculum, by rewarding recall and regurgitation of facts, which challenges students at the lowest level of thinking. When developing a curriculum for young children, educators must take into consideration the factors affecting our society as well as best practices for early childhood. A basic knowledge of effective curriculum designs, emergent literacy, and benefits to the early learner is necessary when developing successful emergent classrooms.

Review of Literature

Emergent Literacy Ideology

According to Byrne, Deerr, and Kropp (2003), emergent literacy is defined as "the constellation of skills young children accumulate through hands-on, age-appropriate, playful experiences involving listening, speaking, being read to, handling books, and using writing implements before they are ready for formal reading and writing instruction" (p. 42). This definition provides the foundation upon which early childhood education should be based. Children should be allowed to be children first while these early learning experiences are incorporated into their curriculum.

Play is one of the most important components of early learning. Byrne et al. (2003) also feel that many parents do not view play as a part of learning simply because it seems to be the opposite of the traditional thoughts of schooling where *work* should prevail. The authors add that play experiences are important for children and should begin during infancy to foster lifelong learning. Activities such as reading time, big books, bath books, and fun writing utensils can help children acquire the skills of emergent literacy.

Allon and McCathren (2003) as well as Pullen and Justice (2003) noted that emergent literacy skills and oral language help facilitate learning to read. It is important to note that reading is based on language and that the development of phonological awareness and print awareness plays an integral role in learning to read. These authors suggest that using storybooks to help teach these skills is essential for early learning. Children need opportunities to play with the sounds of the language and then relate those sounds to the print in the story.

Furthermore, teachers of young children should be aware that pre-reading skills such as these are better taught through text rather than in isolation. Students need to have the ability to analyze the word as well as the background and surrounding text information in order to read successfully (Whitehurst & Lonigan, 2001). Such evidence should suggest to teachers of young children that language and reading go hand in hand, and rich children's literature should be

readily available in all early learning classrooms for easy access to teachers, children, and parents (Zemelman, Daniels, and Hyde, 2005).

Additionally, Jalongo, Dragich, Conrad, and Zhang (2002) support the idea that teachers can implement activities to support emergent literacy in the early childhood curriculum. One way to accomplish this is to use wordless picture books to enhance book handling, inspire story telling and language development, help special needs students (limited English proficiency), and support curricular integration such as math, science, and social studies. Wordless books, the authors add, teach children how books work because "children recognize, interpret, and express themselves through pictures long before they master print" (p. 168). Language experience can also stem from picture books, as children view the pictures and develop a story to go along with the illustrations. The authors did note, however, that the use of wordless picture books to support emergent literacy was minimal mainly because most teachers are unfamiliar with ways to use them to provoke early learning.

Using current research on the benefits of emergent literacy and curriculum development can serve as a useful basis for professional development for educators of young children. Continued reflection on classroom practices, professional development that teaches the importance of using emergent literacy skills in a supportive, nurturing environment, hands-on workshops for teachers to "play" with the suggested activities and ultimately take back to the classroom to use in the development of early reading skills will help to ensure future reading success (Edwards, Gandini, & Forman, 1998).

Child Care Facilities in the United States

> Historically, … *emergent literacy* can be seen as implying a broad theoretical stance about literacy learning (developmental and constructivist), an age group of birth to age 5-6 years, and a focus on informal learning in holistic activities at home, preschool, and kindergarten. (Yaden, Rowe, & MacGillivray, 2000, p. 426)

There is a growing trend for families in the United States to send their children for care outside of the home, resulting in the impetus being placed on daycare facilities to provide experiences needed for successful entry into our school systems (Dickinson & Sprague, 2001). Added to that, researchers also point out that the child care facilities in the United States differ greatly in pedagogy and in the way that they provide a facility, teachers, materials. Concerns focus on differences in the level of excellence of care and the type of educational setting, which both directly effect the quality of preschool education present in our country today (Dickson & Sprague; National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) Early Child Care Research Network, 2002).

The differences in child care facilities have directly effected the school readiness of children. Research is needed to review approaches to education that are effective in providing the literacy experiences needed for success in the formal school setting (Owen, 2000). An examination of one type of teaching

theory, the internationally acclaimed Reggio Emilia approach to education, is discussed in this study.

Foundations of the Reggio Emilia Approach

According to Edwards, Gandini, and Forman (1998), a small town in Reggio Emilia, Italy has captured the essence of early childhood education. In their book, *The Hundred Languages of Children*, the authors contribute their knowledge and reflections on one of the most successful early childhood systems in the world. Reggio's Emilia is a close community rooted deep in Italian culture. The school was developed at the end of World War II. Children in this school today range in ages from three months to six years of age. The school thrives on the depth with which children are valued (Malaguzzi, 1998; Morrison, 2004).

The child is the foundation of all learning. The natural curiosity and amazement of childhood should be encouraged. Learning and instruction should stem from this natural desire to learn. Teachers, parents, children, and the community need to form bonds to support learning (Malaguzzi, 1998). The difference that sets the Reggio Emilia approach apart is simply that the learning system really has the children's best interests at heart, by focusing on the individual children, engaging them in projects that provoke thought, creativity, and including them in discussion of ideas at a much earlier age than American educators have thought possible (Morrison, 2004) .

Reggio children, in the highly effective early childhood system, learn by being actively involved in projects that interest them and spark further learning opportunities. Although the system is not intended to be 'transferred' to American schools, educators can learn from the ideas and strong philosophies that drive such a successful program (Katz, 1998). Educators in America have many obstacles in their way when it comes to implementing best practices into early childhood programs. By understanding philosophies that guide successful learning, such as Reggio, educators can begin to design curriculum for young children that incorporates emergent literacy into existing programs to enhance the effectiveness and learning outcomes for all children involved (Edwards et al., 1998).

Principles Guiding the Reggio Emilia Approach

At the heart of the Reggio Emilia approach is the idea that the child should take a large part in constructing his own knowledge (Malaguzzi, 1998; New, 1998). Children's ideas become the main resource for the topics studied. Through the use of project work, the children experiment with and construct new ideas from a variety of interactions with their environment (Edwards et al., 1998). Presenting topics in this way gives children the opportunity to make personal decisions about their learning while using a variety of media, materials, and instructional aids to gather a deeper understanding of the concepts (Katz, 1998).

When using the Reggio Emilia approach, there are a number of concepts to remember. Teachers must be able to embrace the concept that total control of student learning and classroom discipline must in some ways be relinquished. Children must feel that they are in a safe environment in which questions and expressions of ideas are accepted, and projects are developed based on the student's interests and thoughts. Parents and other members of the community are also a vital resource from which teachers may draw support, ideas, and materials. A valuable collaborative network for learning can be formed between them all (Edwards et al., 1998; Malaguzzi, 1998).

Developing in-depth projects allow the children to explore the parts of their environment that interest them the most (Morrison, 2004). The Reggio Emilia approach is to develop broad goals for the teacher and their student alike. The teachers then allow the children to experience the project, evaluate the direction the students are taking, and make changes that would improve understanding (Morrison, 2004).

Teachers should also use a wide variety of documentation techniques to record the progress of their children. Artifacts that include artwork, transcription of discussions, charts constructed as a whole class, photographs, and samples of children's work are also important pieces of information. Written documentation of classroom observations should also be included (Katz, 1998; Malaguzzi, 1998; Spaggiari, 1998; Stegelin, 2003).

Methods and Procedures

Design and Setting

In the present descriptive study, an observation of a preschool class located in a university supported daycare was conducted. Documentation was gathered on an ongoing basis in order to answer the research questions that guided the study. The questions were:

1. To what extent do young children learn and retain ideas when a topic of study is modified using Reggio Emilia techniques?
2. To what extent do children learn more comprehensively when the subject stems from their interest in the topic under study?

Participants

The participants were students and teachers in a preschool class at a university-related daycare. Students in the class ranged in age from three to five years and were ethnically diverse. There was also a fairly even mix of girls and boys. The children's parents were educators, university staff, university students, or other types of professionals, for the most part. The teaching staff consisted of one lead teacher and three to four assistants depending on the day.

Procedure

Observation of the children's involvement with the activities, their discussions while looking at books and other media, and their drawings from the

beginning and end of the project was used to examine the children's responses and determine whether an increase in their knowledge of animals that were born from an egg had occurred. The researchers visited the learning center three initial times to observe and interact with the children in order to become acquainted with them and determine possible project directions for the Reggio Emilia type of instruction to be used with the group. When the researchers entered the classroom, the students had been watching an incubator located in their classroom which contained eggs. They were very excited about the prospect of hatching the eggs. As a result, the researchers decided to examine the children's understanding of what could be born from an egg. The students were asked to make an initial drawing of what they thought could be born from an egg, prior to the introduction of the project.

A variety of books on all animals that were born from eggs was then presented to the students. They were encouraged to investigate the information provided in the books, and then interact with a variety of activities and materials in order to construct their understanding of the concept (Trepanier-Street, 2000; Katz, 1998). The researchers developed the *What's in this Egg*? project using suggestions generated by the children. Materials for the project were gathered including, but not limited to, literature, writing materials, and art materials.

Data Collection

Reggio Emilia documentation techniques were used to collect data on an ongoing basis. Techniques used were observations, transcriptions of discussions, samples of children's work, digital camera photographs, or any other source needed to ensure good documentation. Edwards et al. (1998) state that, "If done properly, good documentation can serve all masters simultaneously, from individual assessment, to curriculum planning, to instructional accountability" (p. 372).

In qualitative research, the participants are observed in a social setting. As the study progresses, researchers identify themes and make assertions about the level of learning (Creswell, 1998). During the study, the researchers observed the children to ascertain their level of understanding while using the Reggio Emilia method of teaching. As the research was conducted, the data were analyzed and generalizations made. The researcher is virtually the instrument used in the study (Gay & Airasian, 2000).

Data collection took place six times in the class over a six week period. The initial three visits were used to observe and become acquainted with the students and decide on the topic for the project. The researchers returned once a week during weeks four through six to present new material and document student growth and interests during that time. While there, researchers observed and participated in activities with students and teachers as information was gathered. Photographs, student work, and other artifacts that were seen to be important were collected by the researchers.

Day One

The Golden Egg Book by Margaret Wise Brown (1975) was used on the first day to initiate an interest in the contents of an egg. The premise of the story is that a small rabbit finds an egg and by making a number of guesses tries to decide which animal might be inside. Throughout the first part of the book, the students made guesses about what different animals could come from the egg. They were introduced to the idea that birds were not the only animal that could be inside an egg. As the story progressed, the children used their prior knowledge of animals that are born from eggs by making predictions about the animal they thought would be found inside.

Prediction 1: Tell me what you think is in an egg.

Answers included: chicken, baby chicken, birds, momma chicken, spiders, monsters and only chickens and birds come from eggs.

Prediction 2: Tell me what happens when you shake an egg.

Answers included such statements as "Big bird comes out" and "You will dunk its head."

On the first day, following the reading of the first part of *The Golden Egg Book*, students were given a paper upon which a large empty egg had been drawn. They were instructed to draw what animal they thought could be in the egg. Then, students were asked to describe what was in their egg. The answers were again similar to what students in the beginning thought were inside. Added to spiders, monsters and chickens were a turtle and a mouse.

Day Two

The second day began with a revisiting of the first half of the book. Then students were asked what they thought would be found in the egg. The answers were categorized on a graph which displayed the number of times each animal was named (Appendix A).

Once the discussion and graphing of predictions was complete, the last half of the story was read. It was discovered that a baby duck was inside the egg. A discussion was conducted concerning the fact that all guesses were good even if they were not correct. The graph was also used to discuss such concepts as more/less, greater/smaller and addition/subtraction. We completed the day by having students make duck sack puppets which they used when learning the poem and song, from the newly illustrated book *Five Little Ducks* by Ivan Bates (2006).

Day Three

The third day began by placing students in small groups and introducing them to a wide variety of nonfiction books about different animals that were birthed from an egg such as reptiles, insects, and amphibians. Each family of animals that hatch from eggs was represented in the literature. The children were very excited about the books and actively engaged in looking at them and talking to group members about the contents during "reading" time. The children then returned to the large group and an attempt was made to introduce new vocabulary by asking students to classify animals on a chart as either

oviparous (born out of an egg) or born alive. This proved to be a very difficult activity for students which led to the abandonment of the task. The headings "Born from an Egg" or "Born Alive" would have been more appropriate.

At the end of the third session the researcher sought to discover whether the students were able to name additional animals that were born from eggs as a result of presenting the information using the Reggio Emilia approach to learning. The children were given a copy of the empty egg drawing once again and asked to make a final picture of an animal that they had learned was born from an egg (Appendix B). Many of the students were able to name and draw additional animals.

Data Analysis

A qualitative descriptive design was used to determine whether the Reggio Emilia approach to learning could increase the understanding and knowledge base of students primarily ages three to five concerning their understanding of what animals were born from an egg. Concepts were identified in order to form categories for the information. Existing categories were modified and new ones developed in order to accommodate the latest information gathered (Gay & Airasian, 2000). Generalizations were then made concerning the data.

Discussion Suggestions and Implications

The symbols on the graph (Appendix B) indicate answers to the question, "What animal do you think is born from an egg?" The children were asked to draw what was in their egg after *The Golden Egg Book* was read. An additional drawing was made at the end of the lessons. The following are examples of original and follow up answers given which indicate possible levels of understanding by age.

- The range of ages in this class of day care was primarily from three to five years old. One of youngest students, who was nearly three years old, did not seem to understand the concept of eggs or what was inside of them. An answer to support this finding was that he illegibly drew what he labeled a dinosaur in the first drawing, then drew and labeled the drawing following the project as a pancake.
- Of the seven three-year-old students, six drew and labeled animals that were inside of an egg in both beginning and ending illustrations. One of the three-year-olds' answers were given in much the same confusion as the two-year-old, going from rabbit to rainbow.
- The six four-year-old and the three five-year-old students who were represented all seemed to grasp the concept of what was in an egg from first the drawing to the last. The drawings indicated that the older students could name a larger group of animals born from eggs after they were allowed to study a topic which they were already interested in due to the incubator and eggs that had previously been in their room.

Answers in the chart (see Appendix A) and examples above indicate the following concerning questions that guided the study:

To what extent do young children learn and retain ideas when an existing topic of study is modified to specific Reggio Emilia learning theories?

In the beginning of the study it was noted that some of the children, particularly the older ones were able to draw some animals born from eggs. The researchers realized that the beginning answers were possibly influenced by activating prior knowledge of animals born from eggs during an introductory discussion of the subject and the reading of *The Golden Egg Book* (1975*)*. For future research it is suggested that initial drawings be taken before any discussion of the subject occurs. Researchers also determined that students remembered the information from one week to the next concerning what they had been taught. This could indicate that investigating a topic that students are already familiar with and interested in provided the ability to retain information over a longer period of time.

To what extent do children learn more comprehensively when the subject to be learned stems from their interest in a specific topic of study?

As stated before, the students were already aware that some types of animal were born from an egg due to the fact that the class had been incubating eggs in their room. The topic for the project was chosen with the idea of extending student knowledge. Most of the children were actively engaged in all of the activities presented in this project. Particular interest was shown when students were placed in groups to discuss nonfiction books, each of which gave information on different animals that are born from eggs. Students were also very involved in trying to name animals that they thought were in the bunny's egg. The researchers felt that some evidence was found to support the idea that allowing students to further investigate topics of interest to them would enhance learning.

More extensive research is needed to gain a better understanding of children's ability to learn and retain ideas. A longitudinal study of this topic would provide more definitive information. It is also suggested that comparing more than one class of the same-age children when one class is taught using the Reggio Emilia approach and the other using a more traditional approach would be beneficial in determining which method of teaching produces more engaged and long-term learning, especially with younger children.

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Appendix A

Graphed answers for the question "What's in the Bunny's Egg?

Mother Chicken	Turtle	Dinosaur	Mouse	Baby Chicken	Spider	Rabbit
X	**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**
X	**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**	
	X	**X**		**X**		
		X		**X**		
		X		**X**		
		X		**X**		
				X		
				X		

Appendix B

Pre and Post Answers to the question, "What is in your egg?" organized by age.

ID NUMBER	AGE	PRE-PROJECT ANSWER	POST PROJECT ANSWER
S2	2	dinosaur	pancake
S21	2	NA	pizza
S 7	3	cow, dinosaur	crocodile
S10	3	chicken	mommy/baby bird
S11	3	big dinosaur	dinosaur
S13	3	bunny rabbit	rainbow
S15	3	kind of dinosaur	lizard
S16	3	chicken	chicken
S17	3	mouse	NA
S1	4	dinosaur	spider
S3	4	bird	snake
S4	4	NA	spider chasing a bug
S5	4	chicken	Spider
S6	4	turtles	chicken
S8	4	long necked dinosaur	duck
S9	4	chicken	duck
S22	4	NA	spider
S14	5	spider	spiders
S18	5	turtle	baby chicken
S19	5	mommy/baby chicken	two ducks
S20	NA	chicken	NA

Chapter 7

Response to Intervention: Attributes for Design and Delivery

Barbara A. Marinak

Abstract

The 2004 reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), known as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEIA), now mandates that public schools provide programs and services that ensure the achievement of disabled students. Response to Intervention (RtI) requires that intensive interventions be provided in regular education to the most at-risk students prior to special education identification. Scholars suggest using key findings from the intervention research to design and implement RtI. This article summarizes a multi-year (2001-2006) action research project that included the design and delivery of an RtI model at the middle school level. The project identified nine research-based intervention attributes used for design and delivery. The results of the action research indicate that RtI based on research-based attributes increased the number of students scoring proficient or advanced on statewide assessments.

Response to Intervention: Attributes for Design and Delivery

The reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act on December 3, 2004 contains not only a new acronym for special education but also a new initiative with implications for both special educators and regular classroom teachers. This new initiative, known as Response to Intervention (RtI), is part of what some in special education have termed the third legislative "a" (Weldon, 2005). Attempts to respond to reading disability have occurred since the passage of the first federal special education law. PL 94-142, passed in 1975, guaranteed ***access*** (the first "a" in the legislation) to public education for all handicapped students. The reauthorization of PL 94-142 in 1990, known as IDEA, continued the "a"s by requiring educational ***accountability*** for disabled students. The third "a" of special education legislation is housed in the 2004 federal reauthorization. Known as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEIA), the law now mandates that public schools provide programs and services that ensure the ***achievement*** of disabled students (Weldon, 2005).

RtI, one facet of IDEIA designed to bolster achievement, requires that intensive interventions be provided in regular education to the most at-risk students prior to a degree of school failure that would result in special education

identification (Juel, 1988; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998; Torgesen, Rashotte, Alexander, Alexander, & MacPhee, 2003). In addition to ensuring early identification and intensive intervention, RtI can also be used for the identification of a specific learning disability, instead of the IQ-achievement discrepancy model which has resulted in the over identification of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) disaggregated student scores based on low socioeconomic status, ethnicity, English as a Second Language, etcetera (Fuchs & Fuchs, 2005). Specifically, RtI identifies students with reading difficulties on the basis of tiered instructional interventions over extended periods of time (McEneaney, Lose, & Schwartz, 2005). In addition to providing progressively more intensive intervention, many RtI models advocate blending groups of children based on need, such as instructional reading level (Eichelberger, 2005).

In essence, RtI promises to redefine regular education intervention. Part of this redefinition will likely be the design of tiered intervention systems. To assist the school personnel who are charged with the design and delivery of RtI initiatives, scholars have synthesized key findings from intervention research (Gerstein & Dimino, 2005; Torgesen et al., 2003).

The following article describes a multi-year (2001-2006) RtI action research project conducted at the middle school level. The impetus for the action research was the "lack of comprehensive reading intervention at the middle level," as voiced by the building principal (Ference, personal communication, November, 2000). The project involved several facets including (a) a review of the intervention literature, (b) the identification of research-based intervention attributes, (c) the design of RtI for grades six and seven based on the attributes identified from the research, (c) implementation of the intervention system, and (d) the monitoring of proficiency as per statewide assessments (Pennsylvania System of School Assessment).

The first three sections summarize the participants, research findings, and intervention attributes. After describing each attribute, an overview of the middle school RtI is discussed. The article concludes with the results of the action research and implications for the future.

Participants

Mechanicsburg Middle School (MMS), located in the Mechanicsburg Area School District (Pennsylvania) was the site of this action research project. The project spanned several years, with implementation in 2001 and annual data collection through 2006. MMS is a middle school housing grades six through eight. Each class contains approximately 250 students. The building is Title I eligible, with an annual free and reduced lunch rate of approximately 25%. As per No Child Left Behind, staff and administration at MMS began tracking the percent of proficient readers based on the Pennsylvania System of School Assessment (PSSA). In 2001, 65% of the eighth grade students at MMS were proficient or advanced on the PSSA.

Intervention Research

Since the release of the National Reading Panel Report (2000), the literature contains raging debates regarding the most effective ways to support struggling readers. Stepping aside from these sometimes politically charged arguments, research over the past decade does offer important conclusions regarding literacy intervention.

For example, it is clear that instructional intensity must be increased for struggling readers (Foorman & Torgesen, 2001; Wasik & Slavin, 1990). A number of studies recommend providing an additional 20 to 30 minutes of reading instruction per day (Allington, 1983; Gerstein & Dimino, 2005; Torgesen et al., 2003). In addition, identifying a methodology that meets individual needs and reducing both group size and instructional diversity will enhance the effectiveness of an intervention (Allington, 1983; Denton & Fletcher, 2003; Fuchs & Fuchs, 2005; Pressley, 1998; Torgesen et al., 2003). The literature also includes findings for professionals. Building the knowledge capacity of the interventionist, ensuring instructional congruence between the core reading/language arts program and the intervention (Gerstein & Dimino, 2005) and planning for ongoing communication between interventionist and teacher(s) are crucial for sustained effects (Gerstein & Dinimo, 2005; McGill-Franzen, 2005). From these findings, we identified RtI attributes that provided a consistent, research-based framework for intervention programming.

Nine Attributes of RtI

To clearly connect research to practice, nine attributes were identified and considered when designing programs and identifying students for reading intervention. These attributes, while important in any literacy curriculum, are especially crucial for intervention planning. They can serve to define the intervention and maximize staff resources. If considered during design, the result is a tiered, progressively more intensive series of interventions. The same attributes can then be used during delivery to match the reader with assistance along a differentiated continuum. The nine RtI attributes are (1) intensity, (2) method, (3) ratio, (4) grouping, (5) pacing, (6) training, (7) congruence, (8) communication, and (9) transference. The next section describes each attribute. A series of questions accompany each attribute. The questions served as discussion points when differentiated groups were established.

Intensity

Intensity is the length and duration of the intervention in addition to, never in lieu of, core reading/language arts instruction.

- How much time is available in the school day to double or triple the amount of reading intervention a student can receive?
- How often will the intervention occur (daily, three days a week, two days a week, etc.)?
- How long is each period of the intervention (20 minutes, 30 minutes, 45 minutes, etc.)?

- Does the intervention take place during the school day or in an extended school day or extended school year design?

Method

Method is the instructional method chosen for the intervention group.

- What is (are) the method(s) used during the intervention?
- Is there a methodological match between need and method based on individual assessment data?
- Do methodological decisions need to be prioritized? Are the needs of an intervention group so great that one method (e.g., word study or vocabulary development) is the instructional priority versus another (e.g., comprehension) for a period of time?

Ratio

Ratio is the number of intervention students assigned to an interventionist during a given period.

- Is the ratio (interventionist to student) reduced during the intervention compared to the core reading/language arts instruction?
- By how much is the ratio reduced?
- Can the intervention be more effective by improving the ratio?

Grouping

Grouping is the ability to reduce the instructional diversity within the intervention group.

- Can students be grouped based on similar instructional level and need (versus labels such as “English Language Learner” or “special education”), thereby reducing instructional diversity?
- Are reliable data available to make such grouping decisions?
- Are ongoing assessment data available to monitor group diversity?
- Can students be regrouped based on changing instructional levels and needs?

Pacing

Pacing is the rate at which an intervention can be delivered.

- What is the pace of the intervention?
- What is the expected level of achievement within the intervention?
- If necessary, how will the pace of the intervention be altered to meet the needs of the group?
- How will the pace of the intervention be monitored?

Training

Training refers to staff development needed to deliver an intervention.

- Is additional training required to deliver the intervention?
- How will the fidelity of intervention implementation be monitored?

Congruence

Congruence is the proximity of the intervention to the goals of the core reading/language arts curriculum.

- Is there instructional congruence between the intervention and core classroom instruction?
- Are the classroom teacher and the interventionist "speaking the same strategic language?"
- Are the assessments of intervention and core classroom instruction aligned?
- Do assessments provide data on the effectiveness of the intervention?

Communication

Communication is the opportunity for the interventionist and the core classroom teacher to share observations and data regarding shared students.

- Is there effective, ongoing communication between the interventionist and the core classroom teacher?
- Do the interventionist and the classroom teacher have common strategic goals?
- Are data being shared?
- Are the interventionist and the classroom teacher in agreement regarding the progress of shared students?

Transference

Transference is the ability of students receiving a reading intervention to use newly acquired proficiencies in core classroom instruction and content areas effectively.

- Is transference defined by all the teachers as proficient use of newly acquired reading strategies across the curriculum?
- Is there explicit instruction in how newly acquired strategies can be applied to other reading demands (core reading class, science, social studies, etc.)?
- Who is teaching transference?
- How is transference being monitored outside the intervention?

RtI at Mechanicsburg Middle School

At MMS, all students in grades six and seven receive two periods of core, heterogeneously-grouped literacy instruction per day. The core language arts period consists of instruction in English, grammar, and writing workshop. The teacher to student ratio is approximately 1:25. The core reading period is a reading workshop using children's literature. The teacher to student ratio in reading is approximately 1:22.

In 2001, using the nine research-based attributes identified above, Mechanicsburg Middle School (MMS) designed an RtI that included tiered/blended intervention groups for sixth and seventh graders. Placement into

an intervention was based on less than proficient reading scores on state or local assessments. The period designated for core reading instruction was replaced by an intervention. Reading specialists or specially trained language arts teachers were the interventionists providing instruction in the various groups.

The RtI model at MMS included six tiers, each designed to enhance effectiveness by reducing the instructional diversity within each group and matching reading methods to struggling readers. Tiering meant that intervention groups existed for students whose instructional reading levels ranged from on grade level to over three years below grade level. The continuum of intervention was designed by modifying the nine research-based attributes. For example, Tier 1, the on-grade level intervention, modified a minimal number of attributes. On the other hand, Tiers 5 and 6, the intervention for students reading over three years below grade level, modified a significant number of the attributes. In addition, due to the highly specific methods used in each tier, students could receive more than one intervention. For example, it was not unusual for students reading more than three years below grade level to receive both comprehension and word study intervention. To schedule such intensity, in addition to replacing core reading, a daily period of related arts was eliminated to make room for a third period of literacy instruction (core language arts, comprehension intervention, and word study intervention). Blending of the intervention groups meant that groups were not driven by a label, such as a student having an Individualized Education Plan or being a limited English Language Learner student. Instead, groups were arranged based on instructional reading levels and strategic needs.

Six Tiers of Intervention at MMS

The six tiers of RtI intervention at MMS ranged from an on-grade level intervention to intervention for students reading over three years below grade level. Each tier is briefly described below and accompanied by a figure summarizing the modified attributes.

Tier I: Informational Text

The Informational Text intervention was a comprehension intervention designed for students reading at or close to grade level but who struggled with the demands of content area reading. Four of the intervention attributes were modified for this group. The instructional focus included only comprehension of informational text. It was a homogenous group of 10 to 15 students, and transference to content area was taught by the reading specialist delivering the intervention. Figure 1 summarizes the attributes modified for this first tier of intervention.

Figure 1

Modified Attributes for Tier I: Informational Text

- Method: strategic reading of informational text
- Ratio: reduced to 1:10-15 students
- Grouping: homogenous
- Transference: taught by the reading specialist

Tiers 2 to 4: Soar to Success

Tiers 2 to 4 were also comprehension interventions, however, a more explicit framework was used for instruction and text difficulty was carefully controlled. The groups utilized the Soar to Success Program. Soar to Success (Cooper, 2006) is a grade-specific accelerated intervention program designed to move struggling readers closer to grade level. The program uses reciprocal teaching (Palinscar & Brown, 1984) with a collection of fiction and non-fiction books. Over the course of the intervention, the text increases in length and complexity. The kits are available for grades 3 to 8. As recommended by Cooper (2006), grade-level appropriate kits were used for each tier regardless of the average instructional reading level. Adjustments for degree of reading delay were made within the attributes. For example, ratio and pacing were modified as the intervention became more intensive. Figures 2 through 4 summarize the attributes modified for the accelerated, grade appropriate, and reduced pace Soar to Success (Cooper, 2006) tiers.

Figure 2

Modified Attributes for Tier 2: Soar to Success- Accelerated

- Method: reciprocal teaching using narrative and informational text
- Ratio: reduced to 1:10-15 students
- Pacing: accelerated (groups completed the program in less than one year)
- Grouping: homogenous (six months-1 year below grade level)
- Training: reading specialists were trained in Soar to Success
- Transference: taught by the reading specialist

Figure 3

Modified Attributes for Tier 3: Soar to Success- Grade Appropriate

- Method: reciprocal teaching using narrative and informational text
- Ratio: reduced to 1:10-12 students
- Pacing: grade appropriate (groups completed the program in one year)
- Grouping: homogenous (1 year-2 years below grade level)
- Training: reading specialists were trained in Soar to Success
- Transference: taught by the reading specialist

Figure 4

Modified Attributes for Tier 4: Soar to Success- Reduced Pace

- Method: reciprocal teaching using narrative and informational text
- Ratio: reduced to 1:10-12 students
- Pacing: reduced (groups may completed the program in one year)
- Grouping: homogenous (2-3 years below grade level)
- Training: reading specialists were trained in Soar to Success
- Transference: taught by the reading specialist

Tier 5: Soar to Success–Intensive

Tier 5 was an intensive intervention for students reading three or more years below grade level. On diagnostic assessments, these students struggled with both word study and comprehension. The intervention began with intensive word study and explicit instruction in the four reciprocal teaching strategies (Palinscar and Brown, 1984). The comprehension instruction presented each strategy in isolation using carefully controlled text. Following nine weeks of word study and comprehension strategy instruction, students began Soar to Success (Cooper, 2006). Figure 5 summarizes the attributes modified for this Soar intensive tier.

Figure 5

Modified Attributes for Tier 5: Soar to Success- Intensive

- Method: word study and comprehension strategy instruction for nine weeks; then reciprocal teaching using narrative and informational text
- Ratio: reduced to 1:8-10 students
- Pacing: significantly reduced (groups did not completed the program in one year)
- Grouping: homogenous (3+ years below grade level)
- Training: reading specialists were trained in Soar to Success
- Transference: taught by the reading specialist

Tier 6: Word Study

Tier 6 was an intensive intervention for students reading more than three years below grade level who needed either word study instruction only or word study in addition to a comprehension intervention. Some students at MMS received three periods of language arts/reading instruction a day: a period of heterogeneous language arts, a period of homogenous comprehension intervention from Tier 2-5, and a period of one-on-one word study instruction (Tier 6). Communication and transference were crucial attributes for this tier. The reading specialist communicated several times a week with the instructional team to ensure that goals and strategic language were consistent across the student's day. Figure 6 summarizes the attributes modified for this word study tier.

Figure 6

Modified Attributes for Tier 6: Word Study

- Method: decoding and vocabulary instruction only
- Ratio: reduced to 1:1 student
- Pacing: individualized based on the needs of the student
- Grouping: homogenous (3+ years below grade level)
- Training: reading specialist received intensive training in decoding and vocabulary
- Communication: several times a week with the team
- Transference: taught by the reading specialist

Results

RtI at MMS, the tiered/blended continuum described above, began in 2001. At that time, 65% of sixth and seventh grade students were advanced or proficient in reading. From 2002 through 2005, effectiveness of RtI was

measured by eighth grade PSSA scores. Beginning in 2006, PSSA scores were available for grades six through eight.

Beginning in 2003, PSSA scores indicated that the number of proficient and advanced students had increased. At the conclusion of the 2002-03 school year, 81% of eighth graders leaving the middle school were proficient or advanced in reading. Eighth grade state assessments held constant at 80% proficient or advanced in 2004 and 2005. Scores in 2006 indicated that the number of proficient or advanced readers was 80% or greater for all three grade levels at MMS (grades 6 to 8).

Implications

As data are analyzed annually, the RtI model at MMS appears to be an effective regular education intervention that enhances the core literacy program and accelerates students closer to grade level. More importantly, core language arts instruction and RtI seem to be responsible for the proficiency level remaining at 80% or better for the past four years. The limitation of this action research project is the nature of action research. Without conducting an experimental study (where intervention is withheld from students in a control group), the variable responsible for the increase in proficiency is speculation based on the interventions implemented.

The current challenge at MMS is to carefully analyze disaggregated data for the 20% of students who remain at basic levels or below. Included in this 20% are English Language Learners, students with significant disabilities, and students new to the district with a significant history of school mobility. Highly specialized interventions will be necessary to meet the needs of this diverse population.

The promise of RtI lays in the construction of a multilayered structure that can strengthen the intensity and effectiveness of reading instruction for all at-risk students (Fuchs & Fuchs, 2005). MMS appears to have designed an effective intervention continuum for a large majority of its struggling readers. The staff and administration must now analyze data for the basic and below basic readers, student by student, and expand RtI to meet the needs of this diverse and significantly delayed population. This charge is imperative, because as Fuchs and Fuchs (2005) note, the goal of RtI is literacy intervention that serves to prevent chronic school failure.

Author's Note

The author would like to thank the faculty and staff of Mechanicsburg Middle School in Pennsylvania. Your dedication is inspirational.

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Chapter 8

Triadic Supervision in Counselor Preparation: A Preliminary Study

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Abstract

Triadic supervision from the viewpoint of supervisors and supervisees was investigated in the preliminary phase of a grounded theory study as an initial step toward developing a model of triadic supervision. To date, five supervisors and fourteen supervisees have participated. Researchers have identified themes through observations of twelve triadic supervision video tapes and analysis of interview transcripts of five supervisors and fourteen supervisees.

Triadic Supervision in Counselor Preparation: A Preliminary Study

Supervision is a crucial and required component of counselor education. The Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP, 2001) requires both group and individual supervision as part of the degree requirements for all counselors, regardless of specialty. Administrative and clinical supervision have been differentiated in terms of both the tasks and roles of the supervisor. Administrative supervision is primarily concerned with helping the supervisee function effectively within the organization in order to help the organization run efficiently. Clinical supervision, however, is concerned with the supervisee's work in relation to services received by the client, and it provides the opportunity for supervisees to blend formal theories with the knowledge and skills of experienced practitioners (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004; Bradley & Ladany, 2001; Holloway, 1995; Todd & Storm, 2002).

Supervision is both offered and required in all mental health preparation programs, including that of school counselors. Indeed, without the necessity of supervision both within graduate training programs and in postgraduate settings, mental health disciplines could not be considered professions. According to Bernard and Goodyear (2004), professionals are assumed to have more autonomy than those in other occupations and rely on a knowledge base that is unique and specialized, thus making it difficult for the average person to understand its implications. Professions self-regulate; that is, they control membership, set standards, and discipline members. Supervision provides a continuous, intensive relationship that is inherently hierarchical, involves an evaluative function, and serves a gatekeeping function. Supervisors serve as

professional mentors and monitor outcomes of counseling as well as the professional development of supervisees, including their socialization into the ethics and values of the profession. All of these functions are related to admission of supervisees into the profession and place concern for the welfare of clients above the self-interests of the supervisor and supervisee (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004; Bradley & Ladany, 2001; Todd & Storm, 2002; Watkins, 1997). Supervision typically begins during graduate programs and extends into postgraduate practice settings, with the length of time of required supervision being determined by academic programs, accreditation standards, and/or regulatory boards.

The current study is concerned with triadic supervision provided within academic curricula as a part of practicum and internship experiences. CACREP (2001) approved the use of triadic supervision as a method of providing individual supervision in order to assist regional universities in meeting accreditation training standards (Altekruse, personal communication, November 4, 2004). Specifically, CACREP (2001, 2005) defines supervision, and differentiates among individual, group, and triadic supervision, as follows:

> SUPERVISION—a tutorial and mentoring form of instruction in which a supervisor monitors the student's activities in practicum and internship and facilitates the learning and skill development experiences associated with practicum and internship. The supervisor monitors and evaluates the clinical work of the student while monitoring the quality of services to clients.
> *individual supervision* [italics added]—tutorial and mentoring relationship between a qualified supervisor and a counseling student.
> *group supervision*—a tutorial and mentoring relationship between a qualified supervisor and more than two counseling students.
> *triadic supervision*—a tutorial and mentoring relationship between a qualified supervisor and two counseling students. (CACREP, 2001, p. 105; CACREP, 2005, p. 60)

While some administrative supervision occurs within this setting, it is clear that the primary focus of such supervision is intended to be a mentoring relationship designed to monitor, enhance, and evaluate student skills. At the master's level, both practicum and internship are concerned with development of counseling skills, and at the doctoral level, the practicum emphasizes clinical skills. Thus, supervision for these experiences is primarily clinical. Both individual and triadic supervision are separate and distinct from group supervision, all of which are required in accredited programs.

CACREP Standards and Triadic Supervision

Detailed standards for providing supervision in counselor education programs are set forth by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP, 2001). Prior to its incorporation in 1981, CACREP initially served as a corporate affiliate of the American Counseling Association (ACA). Within this affiliate organization, issues

surrounding counselor education, training, and supervision were debated, discussed, and projected for future counselor education programs seeking accreditation. Over the last 25 years CACREP has moved to serving as an independent accrediting body in counselor preparation, with a continuing affiliation (Schmidt, 1999), including financial (Bobby, 2005), with the ACA.

Schmidt (1999) explored the influence of CACREP standards on the counseling profession, examining research spanning two decades. Research findings resulted in his assertion that "a significant accomplishment of the counseling profession has been the development of preparation standards and the subsequent formation…of CACREP" (p. 34). In evaluating CACREP changes that have guided the profession to where it currently stands in terms of supervision requirements, it is important to note that "there have been three (3) major revisions to the CACREP standards since the initial standards were adopted—1988, 1994, and 2001" (Bobby, 2005, p. 7). Draft #1 of the 2008 CACREP standards revision was recently published and distributed for open review at the 2005 Association for Counselor Education and Supervision Conference in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania (CACREP, 2005).

Accreditation standards are instituted to ensure quality of instruction, as well as relevance of instruction to the program of study. McGlothlin and Davis (2004) researched the perceptions of counselor educators, mental health counselors, and school counselors regarding the benefit of CACREP (2001) core standards. Helping Relationships, known as a core standard which includes the study and use of skill-based therapeutic techniques in counseling and as a "hallmark of counseling curriculum standards since the inception of CACREP" (p. 282), was found to be one of the most beneficial core standards. It is in a student's practicum and internship experiences where the integration of skill and knowledge is evaluated and supervised. In a nationwide survey of supervision training within counselor education programs, Borders and Leddick (1988) found most programs to be lacking in a commonality of specific class topics covered in supervision, as well as supervision models outside of individual and group supervision. As a result, researchers recommended further research in the area of supervision methodology.

Bernard and Goodyear (2004) refer to CACREP (1994) standards as requiring that "a student receive a minimum of 1 hour per week individual and 1.5 hours of group supervision during practicum and internship" (p. 2). Most research noting supervision standards prior to 2001 (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004; Prieto, 1998; Schmidt, 1999) fail to make note of the use of triadic supervision as a method of individual supervision. Researchers found one exception, with Borders and Leddick (1988) reporting a single reference to the topic of "triadic supervision" found in their review of 275 class topics specifically noted in supervision course syllabi. In a national survey of CACREP accredited programs completed by Prieto (1998), supervisors reported individual supervision to be the most beneficial method of supervision when compared to group supervision. There is a dearth of literature addressing the effectiveness or the comparability of triadic supervision when compared to individual

supervision. Also found to be lacking in research is a description of the relationship that occurs between a supervisor and two counseling students as opposed to only one student, as found in classic individual supervision. CACREP (2001) and CACREP (2005) standards both make specific reference to the acceptable use of triadic supervision:

> Section III CLINICAL INSTRUCTION
>
> Clinical instruction includes supervised practica and internships that have been completed within a student's program of study. Practicum and internship requirements are considered to be the most critical experience elements in the program.
>
> …G. Students complete supervised practicum experiences that total a minimum of 100 clock hours. The practicum provides for the development of counseling skills under supervision. The student's practicum includes:
>
> …2. weekly interaction with an average of one (1) hour per week of individual and/or triadic supervision which occurs regularly over a minimum of one academic term by a program faculty member or a doctoral level supervisor working under the supervision of a program faculty member;
>
> …H. The program requires students to complete a supervised internship of 600 clock hours that is begun after successful completion of the student's practicum (as defined in Standard III.G). The student's internship includes:
>
> …2. weekly interaction with an average of one (1) hour per week of individual and/or triadic supervision, throughout the internship, (usually performed by the on-site supervisor). (CACREP, 2001, pp. 7-10; CACREP, 2005, p. 11)

Bernard and Goodyear (2004) describe the supervisory relationship as one that "is evaluative, extends over time, has the simultaneous purpose of enhancing the professional function of the more junior person(s), monitoring the quality of professional services offered to the client(s)…and serving as a gatekeeper" (p. 8). This relationship is especially critical for beginning counselors and those studying in the helping professions. Due to the imperative responsibilities of the supervisor, the relationship between the supervisor and the supervisee is of utmost importance, as is the method of supervision utilized.

While master's and doctoral students are working at different levels of integration of skills and knowledge, practica and internship experiences for both may use the triadic format for provision of individual supervision. In addition, doctoral students must learn and provide individual supervision while under supervision themselves as a part of their doctoral programs. The supervision that doctoral supervisors in training perform may include triadic supervision (CACREP, 2005). Thus, the use of triadic supervision may permeate both master's and doctoral student supervisory experiences.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this ongoing study is to investigate triadic supervision from the viewpoint of supervisors and supervisees as an initial step toward developing a model of triadic supervision based on the findings of this research. Theory and practice of individual and group supervision of counselors in training has become well established in the literature (Anderson, 2001; Bernard & Goodyear, 2004; Bradley & Ladany, 2001; Haynes, Dorey, & Moulton, 2003; Hess, 1986; Holloway, 1995; Lee, Nichols, Nichols, & Odom, 2004). In addition, courses in supervision have come to be routinely included in doctoral counseling programs. Yet, little theory or research has been developed or conducted to explore approaches, to evaluate outcome effectiveness, or to identify how triadic supervision is different from or similar to individual or group supervision (Altekruse, personal communication, November 4, 2004).

Group supervision is both widely practiced and required by CACREP (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004; Bradley & Ladany, 2001). Bernard and Goodyear (2004) define group supervision as:

> the regular meeting of a group of supervisees with a designated supervisor or supervisors to monitor the quality of their work and to further their understanding of themselves as clinicians, of the clients with whom they work, and of service delivery in general. These supervisees are aided in achieving these goals by their supervisor(s) and by their feedback from and interactions with each other. (p. 235)

A number of advantages of group supervision are cited in the literature. These include economic use of time, money, and expertise; opportunities for vicarious learning; supervisee exposure to a broad range of clients via other group member case presentations; and less dependency between supervisor and supervisee. Advantages also include greater feedback for the supervisee both in quantity and quality, a more comprehensive picture of the supervisee due to the supervisor's enriched perception of that supervisee, and greater opportunity to use action techniques (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004; Watkins, 1997).

Individual supervision, on the other hand, is often considered the cornerstone of professional training. It has traditionally involved one-on-one interaction between a supervisor and supervisee. The supervisory relationship, including what both the supervisor and supervisee bring to it, is considered to be a major contributor to efficacy. Often, individual processes occurring in individual supervision are isomorphic with those occurring in the individual counseling being offered by the supervisee, thus providing rich material for supervision. Individual supervision allows the supervisor to pace supervisory processes and activities to the particular developmental level of the supervisee, a critical process that may not be possible in group supervision (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004; Bradley & Ladany, 2001; Holloway, 1995; Holloway & Neufeldt, 1995; Watkins, 1997).

Triadic supervision as defined for the purpose of this research is a format that may be used to meet the requirements for individual supervision, and it involves one supervisor meeting with two supervisees. While the term triadic

supervision has been used in the literature, it has often been used to refer to the implied relationship among supervisor, supervisee, and client (Bernard & Goodyear, 2004). However, there have been a few recent studies using CACREP's definition of triadic supervision. One dissertation (Nguyen, 2003) comparing individual and triadic supervision defined, as a part of the study, two specific formats for triadic supervision—split focus and single focus. The study compared the efficacy of each with the other and with individual supervision. Split focus triadic supervision entailed 30 minutes of an hour-long supervision session being allocated to each supervisee. Single focus triadic supervision entailed a whole hour spent supervising only one of the supervisees, though both supervisees were present. The following week was spent with all supervisory focus on the other supervisee.

A second dissertation (Sturdivant, 2005) examined counselor supervision professionals' perceptions of triadic supervision. Several emergent themes were identified, including vicarious learning, feedback/multiple perspectives, vulnerability/support/intimacy, and time saving. Bakes (2005) compared the supervisory working alliance in individual and triadic supervision and found some differences in two subscales of the Supervisory Working Alliance Inventory. Newgent, Davis, & Farley (2004) also examined the working alliance in individual, triadic, and group models of supervision and reported that triadic and individual supervision was preferred compared to group supervision. The researchers examined Dissertation Abstracts, Academic Search Premier, PsychInfo, ProQuest Psychology Journals, Education Abstracts, and other databases. No research was found that articulates a theory of triadic supervision or that examines the practice of triadic supervision from a theoretical perspective.

Methodology

As there is a paucity of investigation concerning triadic supervision, the researchers decided that in-depth study was needed to describe what is currently occurring in triadic supervision in order to begin to articulate a model for this type of supervision. A qualitative paradigm was chosen because it allows a focus on the meaning of human experience and encourages analytical thinking (Patton, 2002). In this preliminary study, a grounded theory approach is being used to allow the researchers to eventually develop a theory of triadic supervision as themes and patterns emerge from the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Beginning in January 2005, researchers began contacting students enrolled in practicum classes, faculty supervisors, and doctoral supervisors-in-training to invite those who were involved in triadic supervision to participate in the study. Participants signed a consent form describing the research study and assuring confidentiality and anonymity. At the time of the writing of this manuscript, five supervisors and fourteen supervisees had participated. Triadic supervision sessions of those who chose to participate were videotaped for the purpose of analysis and comparison with factors common and unique to both individual and

group supervision. All three researchers wrote memos of impressions, thoughts, and ideas while viewing twelve videos. Throughout the process, researchers compared and contrasted their observations as they identified practices and themes. Meanings, themes, patterns, and practices continued to be discussed as researchers added, deleted, collapsed, and merged categories. Saturation of data had not yet been reached as of this writing.

In addition, participants were interviewed and audio taped about their experiences with triadic supervision. A research assistant used the following questions as a guide for the interview process: (a) Describe your experiences with triadic supervision; (b) would you identify and discuss the strengths of triadic supervision; (c) would you talk about any drawbacks to triadic supervision; (d) tell me how time was organized to allow for both supervisees to meet their needs; (e) what about interaction among you, your peer, and the supervisor; and (f) from your own experience, how would you describe the differences among individual, triadic, and group supervision?.

The interviewer followed up with encouragement, reflections, and counselor leads to stimulate thinking and facilitate in-depth discussion. Audiotapes were transcribed, and the research assistant contacted each participant to check for transcript accuracy. The research assistant also asked additional questions, asked for clarifications, and allowed for additional observations stemming from the first interview.

The constant comparative method (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) has been used as transcripts were read, analyzed, compared, and contrasted by the three researchers as they independently identified themes, concepts, and issues. Data collection continued until saturation of data was reached. Researchers were in the second year of confirming identified themes and formulating a model of triadic supervision. Researchers discussed and presented themes to doctoral students who had received or provided triadic supervision, and they conducted a final group interview for discussion, consulting, and input on final results. Achievement of credibility was being secured through the use of multiple sources and types of data, and the use of three researchers, in addition to member checking, audit trail, and in-depth, rigorous analysis of the data.

Limitations

Limitations include the small sample that is customary with qualitative research in order to gain a deeper understanding of human experience and/or to provide exploratory opportunities when information is limited about the subject under investigation. A second limitation is that the study is being conducted in one counselor education program.

Findings

Preliminary analysis of the videotapes and audiotape transcriptions reveal a number of practices and themes. Some of these practices and themes are similar to what the literature describes as important to both individual and group supervision, and they include flexibility of both the agenda and the approach of

the supervisor. Other findings may be unique to triadic supervision processes, particularly with regards to how the supervisor utilizes time. Both split focus and single focus use of time were noted, but an additional process that the researchers consider a systemic process was also used. Observed supervisors were generally fluid in their movement among these ways of using time, and some supervisors were more likely to encourage a systemic process. As defined here, a systemic process is a recursive one which includes all components of the relational system—the supervisor, both supervisees, and the client(s). Such a process recognizes the importance of interactional processes that maintain the functioning of the system (the supervision session). According to Yingling (2000), the process also adapts that system, as well as the emotional climate that provides nurturance, so that members of the system (supervisors, supervisees, and clients) can grow. This view of systemic process is one that is familiar in marriage and family therapy literature. A third area of themes is the stated preference of supervisors and supervisees for triadic supervision, as well as the perception of supervisees that learning was enhanced as a result of triadic supervision.

Conclusions

The importance of supervision in counselor education cannot be overstated. It impacts both masters and doctoral students, albeit in different ways. Supervision in counselor education is a hallmark of professionalism and a crucial step in preparing students for life in their chosen fields, and it contributes significantly—perhaps more significantly than any other single part—to student ability to perform the function of counseling. While both group and individual supervision have been described and a number of models for both have been developed, triadic supervision has not been rigorously examined, even though it is currently identified and accepted as a format satisfying individual supervision requirements.

Initial findings of this research indicate that some processes and themes that occur in triadic supervision are similar to what occurs in both group and individual supervision. However, it also appears that systemic processes that are not yet clearly described in counselor education supervision literature may also frequently play a significant role in triadic supervision. Final identification of themes and processes, as saturation of data is reached, may provide researchers with a base to articulate a model for triadic supervision. Final identification and confirmation of themes and processes at the end of the second year of study may provide researchers with the foundation from which to articulate a model for triadic supervision.

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Chapter 9

Supporting Teachers through an Intensive Professional Development Model

Misty Sailors

Abstract

Reading is essential in our society; those who struggle with literacy face severe academic perils early in life and economic inequity later. The public and the research community alike agree that a high-quality teacher is crucial to a child's literacy development. Teachers need situated and contextualized support as they seek to improve their practices. In this paper, the researcher reports on those aspects of a professional development model currently under investigation that may be helpful in supporting teachers as they learn to become more intentional in their reading instruction.

Supporting Teachers through an Intensive Professional Development Model

Reading is essential in our society. Those who struggle with literacy face severe academic perils early in life and economic inequity later. In a country where reading and writing guide social equity, it is imperative that all children not only become proficient in their ability to read, but also are given opportunities to engage in higher level thinking. Results from the federally-funded National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) confirm that patterns of achievement do not exist in the United States. Dubbed the "Nation's Report Card," the most recent report indicates that while the reading achievement of fourth and eighth graders has continued to rise since 1971, a gap continues to exist between the achievement of white (non-Hispanic) and Asian/Pacific islander students and their black, Hispanic, and Native American peers (Donald, Daane, & Grigg, 2003). Additionally, students from low-income backgrounds continue to score significantly lower than their more affluent white peers, as has been demonstrated in past reports (Donahue, Finnegan, Lutkus, Allen, & Campbell, 2001). Furthermore, fourth grade students who attend inner-city schools scored significantly lower than students who attended schools on the fringes of urban areas or in rural areas (NCES, 2003b).

Scholars have agreed for some time that the single way of preventing literacy failure in schools is through qualified teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2000), although historically, students in high-poverty, high-minority, and low-achieving schools have the least access to skilled instructors (Olson, 2003). One

approach to increasing student achievement is to improve the ability of teachers to effectively teach their students.

This federally-funded study investigates the ways in which two different professional development models influence teaching behaviors; the researchers are exploring which of these two models influences student reading achievement. The researchers have aligned their work with studies that describes the "best practices" of teachers in low-income schools (Knapp, 1995; Langer, 2000; Morrow, Tracey, Woo, & Pressley, 1999; Taylor, Pearson, Clark, & Walpole, 2000). Additionally, the researchers are focusing this professional development on helping these teachers understand the importance of strategic reading (Pressley, 2000) and how to become more "intentional" in their reading strategy instruction, especially when they have their students reading in an online environment.

Because this study is in its most embryonic stages and the only evidence the researchers have to support our work is anecdotal, this article will describe the support the researchers are offering their participating teachers. The literature centered on the professional development of reading teachers supports the work of the researchers, described in the literature of the first section of this article. In the next section, the intensive intervention the researchers are offering to our participating teachers is described. The final section describes results.

Professional Development and Teacher Education

Research shows that teachers can change their practices (NICHHD, 2000) and that professional development results in significantly higher student achievement (National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 1996), especially in the area of reading (Linek, Fleener, Fazio, Raine, & Klakamp, 2003; McGill-Franzen, Allington, Yokoi, & Brooks, 1999). Although they are a pervasive part of the professional development offered to classroom teachers across the country, traditional "one shot" models of professional development are not supported by the literature. Traditional one-day workshops rely on direct instruction presented by outside experts, who introduce teachers to a recommended practice, demonstrate it for them, and then expect teachers to implement the new practice in their classrooms.

Teachers are not active participants in the one-shot model. The content is decontextualized and separate from teachers' daily work (Sandholtz, 2002). Further, teachers describe these types of workshops as boring and irrelevant, and report that they forget 90% of what was presented to them (Miller, 1998). Teachers want more and better in-service support (Anders, Hoffman, & Duffy, 2000). Dubbed "training models," there is no evidence that such training has lasting effects on gains made by students (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Duffy, 2004). Further, research has demonstrated that it is the quality of professional development offered to teachers that affects teacher knowledge, beliefs, and practices, as well as student achievement (Anders et al., 2000; Duffy, 2004; Richardson, 1996).

Studies have also shown that the professional development of teachers is a long-term process that requires careful monitoring and intensive follow-up support (Duffy, 1993a; Duffy, 1993). After synthesizing teacher professional development studies, Anders, Hoffman and Duffy (2000, p. 730) outlined six features of "quality" teacher education efforts, including (a) voluntary participation and choice; (b) intensive levels of support, with sustained effort; (c) monitoring, coaching, and clinical support; (d) opportunities to reflect on practices; (e) deliberation, dialogue, and negotiation; and (f) collaboration. Each will be explained below.

Intensive/Extensive Commitments

Intensive levels of support, with sustained effort, are critical for success (Anders & Evans, 1994), including investment of money, time, and contact hours as needed on a continual basis for effective professional development (Birman, Desimone, Porter, & Garet, 2000). Professional development that is extensive is more likely to provide opportunities for in-depth discussions of content.

Voluntary Participation/Choice

Studies have demonstrated that professional development that is effective involves the inclusion of teachers in the critical decision-making phase of the reform as well as their election to be part of the professional development (Yamagata-Lynch, 2003). The proposed intervention needs to fit into the existing teachers' work lives as well as maximize the potential for growth that already exists in schools (Yamagata-Lynch). Teachers must also be personally invested in learning and implementing a new practice in order for the approach to be sustained over time (Linek et al., 2003).

***Monitoring/Coaching/ Clinical* Support**

Active participation in professional development is necessary for teachers to learn new practices (Birman et al., 2000). The opportunity to observe the new strategy being implemented through demonstration lessons in the classroom promotes transfer to classroom application (Dole & Osborn, 2004; Hoffman, Pearson, Beretvas, Mattee, 2004; Sailors, 2004). As teachers are learning new practices, they should be given time to observe and be observed, to have practice in simulated conditions, and to receive feedback and support during implementation. Richardson (2001) is suggested as a review for the reader. Researchers have shown changes in teachers after visits to other teachers' classrooms through "teaming" (Linek, et al., 2003), and that teachers can be mentors of other teachers (Vaughn & Coleman, 2004).

Reflection

Professional development should provide opportunities and tools for teachers to reflect on their own practices systematically as they move toward change (Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Yoon, 2001). Pinnell and Rogers

(2004) describe three types of reflection used in professional development with teachers: (a) collaborative reflection, (b) coached reflection, and (c) independent reflection. Pinnell and Rogers (2004) advocate a combination of the three as teachers acquire new understandings about literacy instruction.

Deliberation, Dialogue, and Negotiation

Studies suggest that conversation and discussion are critical in support of the change process, and that teachers need support in their quest to change their practices (Anders & Richardson, 1991). Many teachers find themselves isolated in their classrooms and perceive professional development in positive ways when it involves teachers from the same school, grade level, and content areas (Garet, Birman, Porter, Desimone, & Herman, 1999). When teachers receive the necessary time and space with other colleagues, they do share their ideas. Yet, computer mediated conversations have been found to be helpful in providing teachers with those spaces necessary to support each other as they are rethinking their practices (Yamagata-Lynch, 2003).

Collaboration

Successful professional development programs include collaboration between university-based researchers, school-based teacher educators, and teachers (Yamagata-Lynch, 2003). Additionally, universities need to identify the existing activities in which teachers are participating in their schools and identify the added activities the proposed intervention is going to involve (Yamagata-Lynch, 2003). Both researchers and teachers should appreciate reform and be able to reap benefits from it.

In short, effective professional development is classroom-based, embedded in the school day, and sustained over time with qualified trainers modeling research-based strategies and integrating best practices into the existing programs using the teacher's own students. If teachers are to learn new behaviors and incorporate them effectively into the classroom, they must understand the theory, see the behavior modeled, and have opportunities to practice what they are learning with their students. In short, professional development with teachers should be situated (Gee, 1990) and active (Garet et al., 2001). The next section describes the ways in which these features instantiate themselves in the researchers' model of professional development.

The Intervention

Participants

At this point in the study, researchers worked with 47 certified teachers and 693 students from three different districts in the greater central and south Texas metropolitan areas; the three districts qualify as low-income, property poor districts. Table 1 contains student data by district and school. Our teachers taught in five middle schools (22 participants) and six elementary schools (20 participants). Additionally, researchers worked with 2 elementary and 3 middle school specialists. Nineteen of these teachers taught reading, writing, or language arts as their primary subject; twelve taught in the content areas (social

studies, history, or science); and sixteen were self-contained elementary school teachers.

Table 1. Student demographic data by district and school

District	School	% African American	% Hispanic	% White	% Other	% Economically disadvantaged
District 1	A (Elementary)	2.5	86.2	11	.3	85.2
	B (Elementary)	29.1	57.3	12.4	1.2	69.6
	C (Elementary)	11.2	69.3	16.4	3.1	71
	D (Elementary)	20.6	67.5	9.8	2.1	85.6
	E (Middle School)	16.7	64.9	16.9	1.5	65.8
District 2	F (Elementary)	0.1	98.6	1.2	.1	99.4
	G (Elementary)	1	95.2	3.8	0	92.8
	H (Middle School)	.3	93.3	6.2	.2	76.6
District 3	I (Middle School)	24.8	58.8	14.7	1.7	76
	J (Middle School)	40.5	40	16.6	2.9	57.3
	K (Middle School)	34	35.4	27.2	3.4	48.5

Teachers in this study had been teaching (on average) for approximately 9.45 years; participants included two second-year teachers and several veteran teachers who had been in the classroom for more than twenty years. Approximately 66% of the teachers hold an undergraduate degree and 34% have done at least some graduate-level work. Alternative teacher preparation programs certified approximately 8.5% of the participating teachers; a traditional teacher preparation program certified the remainder.

Finally, of the forty-seven teachers who participated, eighteen teachers served in the control group and twenty-nine served as intervention teachers. Participants were randomly assigned to each group.

Content of the intervention

The focus of the work with these teachers centered on helping teachers understand the subroutines involved in strategic reading and how to explicate their own processes when working with struggling readers. Studies have provided strong evidence that students can learn reading strategies, but that doing so takes time (Duffy, 2002), as does learning to teach reading strategies (Duffy, 1993a).

Proficient readers use a set of strategies, or plans for solving problems encountered when constructing meaning, coordinate these strategies, and shift

them when appropriate (Duffy, 1993a). These self-selected actions require that readers have metacognitive awareness, which enables them to apply, discuss, and evaluate strategic actions, especially when reading tasks are difficult (Paris, Lipson, & Wixson, 1994).

Paris and his colleagues (1994) contend that strategic readers possess three different kinds of knowledge: (a) declarative (knowing what strategies), (b) procedural (knowing how to use strategies), and (c) conditional knowledge (knowing when and where to use strategies). Strategic readers monitor their word identification and comprehension and are motivated to solve reading difficulties. They have a collection of strategies at their disposal and can analyze reading tasks to determine appropriate strategies to use (Pressley, Borkowski, & Schneider, 1989). Almasi's (2003) outline of these cognitive strategies includes word recognition strategies such as use of sight words, analogies, and context cues. The outline also includes comprehension strategies such as predicting, connecting new knowledge to prior knowledge, summarizing, identifying text structures, questioning, inferring, and skimming. The outline also includes fix-up strategies such as rereading, reading ahead, and talking with others.

Methodology

There are two groups of teachers participating in this study—the first group of teachers (control group) attended a traditional, two day workshop in August, 2005. The second group of teachers attended the same two-day workshop. Because they were the group receiving the intervention, a reading mentor supported these teachers in their classroom in a variety of ways.

"Quality" professional development

The following section illustrates how the professional development, in which the intervention teachers were engaged by the researchers, draws on the literature that describes "high quality" professional development, as mentioned earlier.

Intensive/Extensive Commitments

The teachers involved in this study had the full support of their campus principals. In some cases, the principals observed mentor lessons. In other instances, the principal took a general interest in the usefulness of the intervention for teachers and attended debriefing meetings at the end of the day.

Voluntary Participation/Choice

All of the teachers who participated in this study volunteered to do so. The various reasons for wanting to participate can be summed up in a statement made by one participant—"I want to get better at what I do, and I want to help my kids learn to be better readers." We firmly believe that the investment in the observed learning that the mentors describe is because we are working with a very dedicated group of teachers who view teaching as a lifelong process of

learning. We are learning as much from our teachers as they report they are learning from us.

Monitoring/Coaching/Clinical Support

The teacher participants had access to an instructional reading mentor at least twice a month for the duration of this study. The mentor monitored and provided support to the teachers based on the needs of the teachers and the implementation assessment by the researchers. In some cases, the mentors provided demonstration lessons to help teachers implement strategic reading instruction. In other cases, the mentors provided critical feedback to observed lessons. These visits occurred during content area instruction; teachers were encouraged to talk and ask questions about the transfer of these strategies to their instructional reading time. Teachers received written feedback on their lessons with suggestions for improvement. Many of the teachers described the demonstration lessons as very helpful; they enjoyed the "new ideas" and the "explanations of the strategies" as a result of the lessons. Interestingly, the mentors and teachers moved into co-teaching situations as the study progressed. In many classrooms, the mentor took the lead on the demonstration lessons, and the teachers interacted more and more. In other cases, the teachers took the lead on the lessons as they began to change the "nature of the questions" they asked their children, as one teacher realized.

The mentors met occasionally with participating teachers across classrooms as a way of encouraging the teachers to engage in professional discourse when their mentor was not present. Several of the teachers reported that they were planning together, and team teaching, as a result of their involvement in this study. One pair of teachers rearranged their daily schedules so they could heterogeneously group their children (across classes). They used this flexible grouping to teach needed reading strategies. These fourth grade teachers were excited, they reported, because they had never before team-taught or grouped their children for instruction.

Reflection

The participants engaged in several of the aforementioned reflective practices. First, many of the teachers engaged in a journal-like entry when their mentors visited their classrooms. In this activity, the participating teacher documented his or her thought processes as the mentor taught a reading strategy lesson. The mentor asked the teacher to engage in conversations around the success of the children in the class in response to a strategy lesson taught by the teacher and observed by the mentor. The teachers reported the helpfulness of this support for a number of reasons. One teacher reported that the exercise helped her "see in a new light" what she was learning (to explicate the processes involved in reading strategy use). Another reported that she liked "watching her kids and seeing them do things" she did not realize "they could do."

Deliberation, Dialogue, and Negotiation

The teacher participants were encouraged to discuss the complexity of intentional instruction with their peers and mentors. At the end of each mentoring day, the mentor and the participating teachers at that campus met for a group reflection/debriefing meeting. During this meeting, teachers were encouraged to collaboratively reflect on the implementation of strategic reading instruction. These meetings occurred within and across grade levels. During these meetings, the mentors engaged the teachers in discussions about helpful practices they observed during the day (mentor visits), ways in which their children responded to the intentional instruction, and reading strategies in which they engaged their children. The teachers all became very vocal in explicating what they were struggling with and urged their mentors to help them "think through" some "tricky" reading strategies. Together, the teachers and the mentors thought through those strategies and began to construct the processes involved. The teachers reported these meetings to be very helpful.

Collaboration

Because the teachers involved in this study were from three different school districts, the mentors assigned to each district were responsible for making sure that the content of the intervention aligned with the language of the other initiatives found in the districts. For example, in one district, the teachers were responsible for integrating reading into the content areas. The mentor at that school always focused her demonstration and observational lessons around informational texts that complimented the curriculum in science or social studies. Prior to the classroom visit, the mentors asked the teachers (a) what the nature of the visit would be, (b) what reading strategy the teacher would like to see demonstrated, and (c) what content area lesson the reading strategy would be tied to. The teachers reported they appreciated this attempt on the part of the mentors to "tie" the lessons to the learning of their students. They also described the connection to the content areas as very helpful.

In short, the researchers strove to support the teachers in this study in a variety of ways. The literature that describes "high quality" professional development of classroom teachers supported the intervention model. Through this systematic and carefully designed model of professional development, the researchers hoped to test the effectiveness of this model compared to a traditional model of professional development, as well as document those aspects of the model that are critical or more important than others, in closing the gap in the reading achievement of students from low-income and minority backgrounds. Through the help of the participating teachers the researchers hoped to learn the conditions under which these teachers incorporated new practices into their existing practices, including what was important to them, and what was not.

At the time this article was written, the study had been in its most embryonic stages. The researchers made several observations that have helped inform their work, including the importance of choice for teachers. In the next

section, the article documents and describes the researchers' observations based on their work through the time of the writing of this article.

Discussion: Importance of choice for teachers

Documented in the professional development literature is the importance of choice for teachers and the role it plays in professional growth. Former classroom teachers may recall vividly the countless hours spent at mandated in-service workshops that were neither helpful nor requested by the teacher. Someone (usually an administrator) decided that the teachers were blank slates and needed to hear the latest expert knowledge; many teachers recall sitting and thinking about the many things they could be doing in their classroom rather than listening to uninteresting or unnecessary information. The literature supports these experiences.

Teachers are much more excited about professional learning when they choose to participate (Pressley, El-Dinary, Gaskins, Schuder, Bergman, Almasi, & Brown, 1992) as well as when they select the content of their learning (Yamagata-Lynch, 2003). Additionally, if teachers perceive that the practice has high standards for student learning, and that it will meet the specific learning needs of their students (Gersten, Vaughn, Deshler, & Schiller, 1997), they are willing to spend the cognition required to change their practices. In short, teachers must be personally invested in learning and implementing a new practice for the practice to be sustained over time (Linek et al., 2003).

The model of professional development under examination began with choice and was driven by choice, both in continuing participation as well as in the specific ways in which their learning instantiated itself in the classrooms. The mentors were responsive to the needs of the teachers, and their work was driven by the needs of the teachers. As the study moved forward and the mentors and teachers developed a trusting relationship, the teachers became vocal in establishing their needs as learners. For example, one mentor described one two-week time period in which she visited all twelve of her teachers; only two of them requested the same reading strategy demonstration lesson. This meant that in the other ten classrooms, the mentor was focusing on multiple reading strategies under a variety of contexts (observations, feedback, demonstration lessons—whole group and small group).

Choice, the researchers observed, also drives the interaction style between the mentors and the teachers they serve. One mentor had several teachers who interacted only in the context of their classrooms and after-school meetings. Other teachers with whom this mentor worked interacted in other ways; one teacher often emailed the mentor on a regular basis—asking questions and pushing the mentor to support her thinking about reading strategy instruction in between classroom visits. The mentor began to make plans to incorporate this request into her work with the teacher in the near future.

Furthermore, the researchers observed that just as teachers are encouraged to see their students as individual learners and to meet the instructional needs of their students on an independent basis (Duffy, 1998; Hoffman & Duffy, 1999),

so too, should teachers be viewed as individual learners by those who provide professional development for these teachers. Mentors who worked with teachers described this type of support as “taxing” and “difficult” not because of the amount of support they provided, but because of the nature of the support. Facilitating the learning of fifteen teachers with individual philosophies and goals for their children was not an easy thing to do, but was necessary for teachers if the researchers wanted them to commit to professional development and to continue to grow as reading teachers. The mentors remained encouraged as they considered the effects this was having on their teachers. The researchers, at the time of this writing, were in the process of constructing their second year of the intervention—all but three of the mentored teachers wanted to continue learning with this model (two moved into another district and one to another part of the country). The researchers believe that the choice to construct a second year of intervention has played an important role in the decision of these teachers to continue their learning process

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Chapter 10

Principal Recruitment
Lead Teachers – The Homegrown Variety

Richard Sorenson

Abstract

Lead teachers can be recruited into the principalship role, if conditions and factors that serve as career avoidance inhibitors are addressed and eliminated. Lead teachers are continuously involved in organized professional development and are prepared to assume the leadership dictates, demands, and challenges critical to school reform and improvement. The purpose of this study was to provide analyses of barriers that discourage lead teachers from seeking administrative positions in public schools by assessing political and institutional context roles of the principalship.

Study findings revealed statistically significant contributing factors which indicated that lead teachers can effectively serve as school principals if clear descriptions of the roles and functions of the leadership position are identified; if principal preparation programs are designed to provide ongoing support and guidance; if said programs provide learning opportunities espousing experimentation, innovation, and practical application; and if school districts implement structured schedules that provide time for acquired leadership development.

Principal Recruitment
Lead Teachers – The Homegrown Variety

Madeline Hunter, a noted educational leader, once stated: "Show me an exceptional principal and I'll show you an exceptional teacher" (Olson, 2000, p. 4). While most would agree with this assessment, the more common query posed by educational researchers, scholars, and practitioners alike is how can the principalship, which is such a critical leadership position in our schools today, not be filled with highly qualified individuals? Despite the excessive investment in leadership development programs across the United States (ERS, 1999), a current and projected shortage of school principals continues to be widely reported. The shortage of quality school principal recruits in each state remains a timely topic worthy of critical analysis. Such analysis must include a comprehensive study defining specified barriers that inhibit or discourage lead teachers from seeking the positions of principal and assistant principal.

Sorenson and Goldsmith (2006a, 2008) have proposed the 3Q Dimension relative to the shortage of principals in our schools today. The 3Q Dimension proposes three straightforward questions based on the stipulations of quantity, qualification, and quality: 1) Do a sufficient number of prospective principal candidates exist (Quantity)? The answer is yes (SREB, 2003). 2) Do the prospective principal candidates meet the necessary qualifications (Qualified)? The answer is yes (TPLI, 2001). 3) Do the prospective principal candidates possess the critical knowledge and skills necessary to lead schools to higher levels of academic reform and success (Quality)? The answer is no (ERS, 2000).

As a result, a resounding call from the educational community resonates in the form of a rather simple, yet forthright question: "Who and where are these educational leaders who can provide high-quality schools for all students, and why are these leaders not responding to such a great need?" Many are inclined to believe that such capable individuals cannot be found due to the relatively insignificant number of quality applicants who pursue the principalship in public schools – especially when considering that many school districts are now extending their quest for such leaders beyond the educational system (Pounder & Young, 1996).

This trend seems rather ironic when considering, for example, that the state of Texas, over the last four years, has certified more than 7,000 school administrators – more than enough to replace every principal in every school in the state (SREB, 2003). However, district after district continues to exhort that a real shortage of high quality principal candidates exists (TPLI, 2001). Logic would then dictate that lead teachers can very well fulfill the principalship role in schools today, as these individuals are regularly involved in organized, individualized, and meaningful professional growth and as a result could very well be prepared to assume the leadership dictates, demands, and challenges of the principalship.

Theoretical Framework

Overlapping frameworks of leadership theory as related to leadership development and the selection, induction, development, and retention of effective principals from within the ranks of lead teachers was utilized to provide useful constructs for the organization and discussion of the data collected in this study. Leadership theory, in particular, has been the conceptual framework that effectively links the leadership requirements of the internal with the external environments of educational systems (Hanson, 1991). Leadership theory, in the form of cognitive resources theory and Performance-Maintenance (PM) leadership theory, serves as the starting point in developing the theoretical framework that fortifies this study.

Cognitive resources theory, as developed by Fielder and colleagues (Fiedler, 1986; Fiedler & Garcia, 1987) examines the conditions under which cognitive resources, such as intelligence and experience, are related to group performance. This theory assumes that intelligent leaders establish more effective plans and

action strategies, based on prior experiences, for accomplishing organizational goals and tasks, especially when the tasks are complex (Blyth, 1987; Murphy, Blyth & Fiedler, 1992; Vecchio, 1990).

PM leadership theory proposes that effective school leaders are highly skilled in both *performance* behavior and *maintenance* behavior (Misumi, 1985; Misumi & Peterson, 1985). The assumption implicit in this particular leadership theory is that person-oriented behavior will result in higher job satisfaction, teamwork, and organizational commitment, whereas task-oriented behavior will result in better understanding of role requirements, better coordination among subordinates, and more efficient utilization of school resources and personnel.

Literature Review

Teacher leaders as far back as the 1940s have been identified as "accomplished teacher," "superior teacher," "master teacher," "highly qualified teacher," and most recently, "lead teacher" (Gordon, 2004; Kyte, 1941; NCLB, 2002). For the purpose of this study, the term "lead teacher" was applied. Lead teacher has been defined in the literature as an educational professional who has a solid undergraduate education with credentials, possesses high intelligence, exhibits exceptional teaching abilities along with qualities of effective leadership, and has a powerful desire to grow professionally (Justiz, 2002).

Lead Teachers Defined

The Teacher Leaders Network (2003) has further defined and described lead teachers as those professional educators who "envision what most cannot see, question provincial wisdom, resist mediocrity, work for the good of students, and endeavor to influence issues at the district, state, and national level" (p. 3). Lead teachers are outstanding professionals who inspire trust and confidence, are proficient handlers of curriculum, and moreover, institute change. Lead teachers have credibility within the school community, are flexible, well-read, freely exchange ideas with colleagues, take risks, and pursue academic achievement for all students (Cunningham, 2002; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 1996). In other words, lead teachers – much like high quality school administrators – often take on the responsibility for decision making and other instructionally-focused activities (Blase & Blase, 2000; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996).

The Call for Lead Teachers as School Administrators

O'Shea (2005) stipulates that effective administrative leaders are essential if all students are to excel in all areas. The research is emphatic: Every school has the capacity for exceptional leadership that results in improved student performance, and this leadership is found most often within the very classroom walls of the same schools who are clamoring for effective administrative leadership (SREB, 2002). Additionally, research has linked the leadership behaviors and skills of principals to the various aspects of successful schooling. Lead teachers, who could very well fulfill the role of school principal, are

optimally prepared for the challenges involved in leading learner-centered schools (Buckner & McDowelle, 2000; Donaldson, 2001; Gordon, 2004). These teachers are pushing the leadership envelope in an effort to apply their own knowledge and skills in the school setting, thus revealing what they can do in leadership positions (TLN, 2003).

Attracting, Screening, and Identifying Lead Teachers for the Principalship

To promote strong leaders in today's schools, lead teachers must be encouraged to seek the principalship; then, these same lead teachers must be appropriately developed in principal preparation programs. The National Commission for the Advancement of Educational Leadership Preparation (NCAELP), a core group of 40 individuals whose job has been to examine the quality of educational leadership programs, has found that principal preparation programs are too theoretical and are not related to the daily demands of contemporary principals (Young & Creighton, 2002). NCAELP further contends that most principal preparation programs do little to assist lead teachers in terms of mentored opportunities; it moreover asserts that the inadequacy or non-existence of clinical experiences must be addressed if principal preparation programs are to be instrumental in attracting, screening, and identifying lead teachers as principal candidates.

Prudence is essential when recruiting and selecting school administrators (Cascadder, 1998). Making the wrong choice can very well have serious implications for schools and school districts in this era of high-stakes testing and accountability. When opportunities are presented to lead teachers to pursue administrative careers, there is often a negative reaction based on previous experiences with less-than-desirable principals (Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Seyfarth, 1999). Many highly qualified, competent, and talented lead teachers dismiss careers as school principals because they have observed weak school administrators, worked with ineffectual instructional leaders, and as a result, have developed negative perceptions of the principalship role.

Research Design

Qualitative as well as quantitative methods were utilized in this study to explore social processes with a focus on "discovery, insight and understanding from the perspective of those being studied" (Merriam, 1998, p. 3). Qualitative and quantitative procedures were incorporated to collect data, including the utilization of a semi-structured, in-depth survey questionnaire, observation/field notes, and data analyses. The survey questionnaire (see Appendix A) was constructed by the researcher utilizing the jury or Delphi technique as a validation process, and it further met all the Institutional Review Board (IRB) ethical and legal expectations and approval processes. The jury or panel of experts who participated in the Delphi technique process reviewed the survey instrument and offered necessary editorial comments and changes along with theoretical and practical revisions.

Participant Selection

The school districts identified in this study were selected on the basis of having participated in and/or developed and implemented selection and recruitment processes of lead teachers into various principal preparation programs. Additionally, each of the school districts and their participating personnel were convenient in proximity to the researcher. The sample of lead teacher participants provided the necessary variety of demographic factors such as school location (urban, suburban, and rural), school levels (elementary and secondary), and stages of participant leadership development (potential candidates, candidates, novice administrators, and experienced administrators).

A purposeful sampling approach was incorporated to ensure a representative selection of lead teachers and school site administrators for the purpose of survey and interview generation. Once these criteria were fulfilled, a series of lists were compiled from which random selection of participants occurred.

Data Collection

Data was collected during the fall, spring, and summer semesters of the 2004-2005 school year. Consistent with standards associated with naturalistic inquiry, the constant-comparative method was incorporated by involving inductive analyses simultaneous to data collection (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Glesne & Peshkin, 1992). Additionally, multiple semi-structured interviews were conducted throughout the course of the study. These interviews included lead teachers, principals, district directors, and superintendents. Individual interviews were necessary to obtain information related to district initiatives and planning activities regarding recruitment and selection of lead teachers as school administrators (Atkinson, 1994; Bunting, 2005; Gibney, 1987). There were 25 site visits to six school districts. The site visits prompted 32 interview sessions and 76 survey questionnaire collection opportunities.

Data Analysis

Progressive data analysis was conducted during the qualitative collection process to determine the necessity for additional probes. This approach provided necessary direction for follow up investigations during subsequent school site visits. After the interviews were transcribed, the data were carefully reviewed, maintaining themes, patterns, and generated ideas within the study (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The data was subsequently coded by theme and concept. Separate matrices were then developed for each research question and in relation to the perspectives presented by the sampling of participants.

Regarding the quantitative analysis of the data collection process, a multiple regression analysis was performed. Multivariate statistics using listwise data and correlations were reviewed by the researcher. The multiple regression analysis is a multivariate statistical technique that examines the relationship between continuously distributed independent variables and one continuously distributed dependent variable (Morgan, et al., 2004; Rudestam & Newton, 2001). The purpose of the multiple regression analysis was to attempt to predict a normal

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(or scale) dependent variable from a combination of several scale or independent variables. There are many assumptions and conditions associated with multiple regression analysis, and as a result, were appropriately tested with the *Statistical Program for the Social Science (SPSS 12 for Windows).*

This statistical process enabled the researcher to test a variety of output generated in the form of unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients (also known as *beta* weights), multiple correlations and their square (*R squared*), and changes in the values of *R* and/or *R squared* in stepwise regression procedures. In addition to these statistics, *t* and *F* statistics were utilized to indicate statistical significance of various coefficients. Finally, the analysis of data, in the form of a multiple regression, determined whether statistically significant differences existed in relation to the research questions posed within this study.

Research Questions

To address the purpose and rationale of the study, four major research questions were examined and are identified below. For each major question, additional minor questions were developed to further shape the investigation.

Research Question #1

What encourages and discourages lead teachers from aspiring to the principalship?

Research Question #2

How do lead teachers perceive that principals handle external influences?

Research Questions #3

What leadership roles and experiences have discouraged lead teachers from seeking the principalship?

Research Question #4

How does the climate and culture of a school impact lead teacher perceptions about the principalship?

Summary of Findings

Section I: Demographic information of survey respondents.

The demographic information obtained from the survey questionnaire revealed that 76 educators were surveyed. Of that number, 74% of the respondents were lead teachers, 22% were principals, and 4% were other (counselors, diagnosticians, site-specialists, instructional facilitators, etc.). Seventy percent of the survey respondents were female, and 30% were male. The vast majority of the respondents (66%) were Hispanic, with 30% identified as white and 4% identified as black. The average age range of the survey respondents was between 31 and 40 years.

The majority of the respondents held a Bachelor's degree (65%), with only 36% holding a Master's degree. None of the respondents held a doctorate. In terms of educational experience, 37% of the respondents had at least six to 10

years in the education business, compared with 25% with only one to five years' experience. Those respondents with 11 to 15 years of experience and those with 16 to 20 years comprised 18% and 16% respectively.

Section II: What encourages lead teachers to aspire to the principalship?

The multiple regression statistical analysis conducted by the researcher revealed a frequency factor which was statistically significant, thus indicative of a strong instructional focus encouraging lead teachers to aspire to the principalship (see Table 1).

Table 1
Summary of Statistical Analysis for Variables Predicting What Encourages Lead Teachers to Aspire to the Principalship (N = 76)
Lead teachers are encouraged to aspire to the position of principal because of their desire to:

	SA	A	D	SD
serve as instructional leaders	38-51%	32-42%	06-07%	
establish the vision of a school	34-45%	31-41%	09-12%	02-02%
commit to life-long learning	29-38%	40-53%	06-08%	01-01%
accept more complex demands and experiences	28-37%	30-40%	17-22%	01-01%
direct school responses to state and national emphasis on standards, assessment, and accountability	16-21%	41-54%	18-24%	01-01%
influence student achievement, parental interactions, personnel, budgeting, school safety, and community relations	33-44%	35-46%	07-09%	01-01%
provide instructional expertise in the areas of teaching and learning	28-37%	30-40%	15-20%	03-03%

Note. SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, D = Disagree, and SD = Strongly Disagree

The vast majority of the survey respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that three important and interacting factors served to encourage their desire to serve as a school principal:

1. Service as an instructional leader (93%);
2. Commitment to lifelong learning (91%); and
3. Dedication to influencing student achievement (90%).

Such responses effectively correlate with the "teacher leadership models," as defined by Blase and Blase (2000); Cranston (2000); and Evans (1996), where a commitment to lifelong learning to influence student achievement is a relevant and significant factor in the lead teacher role and relationship with the student and the profession (Beachum & Dentith, 2004; Crowther & Olsen, 1996; DuFour & Eaker, 1998; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996).

Section III: What discourages lead teachers from seeking the principalship?

The combination of variables was not significant in determining the outcomes related to this research question (see Table 2). While no single variable or factor could be specified as contributing to a lead teacher's decision not to pursue the principalship, the results of the Multiple Regression Analysis did reveal that several contributing factors do serve to inhibit or discourage lead teachers from pursuing the principalship as an administrative career (see Table 3).

Table 2

Summary of Statistical Analysis for Variables Predicting What Discourages Lead Teachers from Seeking the Principalship (N = 76)

Lead teachers are discouraged from seeking the principalship because the role of the principal is:

	SA	A	D	SD
complex and challenging	16-21%	24-31%	28-37%	08-11%
focused on school security and safety	06-07%	25-33%	37-49%	08-11%
extensive and requires much documentation	19-25%	31-41%	24-32%	02-02%
complicated by special education regulations	23-30%	18-24%	31-41%	04-05%

problematic in relation to daily demands which interfere with effective instructional leadership	27-36%	28-37%	17-22%	04-05%
compounded by the dramatic increase of litigation	29-38%	35-46%	10-13%	02-03%
restricted in relation to changes in societal attitudes	09-12%	40-53%	26-34%	01-01%
challenged as a result of increasing needs of a diverse population	09-12%	17-22%	46-61%	04-05%
accountable in relation to student outcomes drop-out rates, student attendance, and disciplinary actions	38-50%	19-25%	16-21%	03-04%
affected by negative attitudes toward school taxation	05-07%	15-20%	42-55%	14-18%

Section IV: How do lead teachers perceive principals' ability to handle external influences?

Table 3
Summary of Statistical Analysis for Variables Predicting What Discourages Lead Teachers from Seeking the Principalship (N = 76)

Contributing Factors
Lead teachers are discouraged from seeking the principalship because the role of the principal is: • Extensive and requires much documentation (66% of survey respondents agreed/strongly agreed) • Problematic in relation to daily demands which interfere with effective instructional leadership (72% agreed/strongly agreed) • Compounded by the dramatic increase of litigation (84% agreed/strongly agreed) • Accountable in relation to student outcomes such as test results, drop-out rates, student attendance, and disciplinary actions (75% agreed/strongly agreed)

While no single variable was significant in contributing to lead teacher perceptions of how principals are able to handle external influences (see Table 4.1 and 4.2), the results of the Multiple Regression Analysis indicated that specific outside factors do influence the principalship (see Table 5) and thus contribute to discouraging lead teachers from pursuing the principalship as a career option.

Section V: What leadership roles and experiences serve to discourage lead teachers from seeking the principalship as an administrative career?

The combinations of variables, as related to lead teachers' formal and informal experiences, do significantly serve as predictors of lead teachers' perceptions regarding the school principalship (see Tables 6.1, 6.2, 7, and 8).

Table 4.1
Summary of Statistical Analysis for Variables Predicting how Lead Teachers Perceive Principals are Able to Handle External Influences (N=76).

Outside factors that influence the principalship and inhibit lead teachers from pursuing the position include:

	SA	A	D	SD
increasing societal changes that negatively impact student discipline and behavior	17-22%	40-53%	18-24%	01-01%
increasing percentage of economically disadvantaged student populations	09-12%	18-24%	41-54%	08-10%
expanding school board dictates and interference in school administration	10-13%	42-56%	17-22%	07-09%
challenging superintendent expectations	14-18%	39-52%	22-29%	01-01%
continuing public demands for excellence in schools	18-24%	29-38%	25-33%	04-05%
increasing power of state government in education	17-22%	34-45%	23-30%	02-03%
incorporating school-choice into public education	14-18%	25-33%	34-45%	03-04%

(continued)

maintaining public confidence in schools	04-05%	28-37%	42-55%	02-03%
increasing politics and bureaucracy in school administration	43-57%	23-30%	09-12%	01-01%
expanding state and national accountability as related to increased student achievement	23-30%	39-51%	12-16%	02-03%
demanding narrow interest groups	10-13%	26-34%	38-50%	02-03%
continuing influence of teacher organizations	04-05%	24-32%	45-59%	03-04%

Note. SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, D = Disagree, and SD = Strongly Disagree

Table 4.2
Summary of Statistical Analysis for Variables Predicting How Lead Teachers Perceive Principals are Able to Handle External Influences (N = 76)
Critical incidents, outside influences, and associated actions that negatively influence lead teachers from pursuing the principalship include:

	SA	A	D	SD
state educational entities, legislative mandates, and local district dictates	22-29%	41-54%	13-17%	
parent organizations, concerned citizens, and external pressure groups		07-09%	37-49%	32-42%

(continued)

judicial decisions related to school discipline, personnel and other legal educational issues	19-25%	48-63%	09-12%	
Title IX considerations and the expansion of extracurricular programs	04-05%	04-05%	60-79%	08-11%
taxpayer rebellion against local tax increases for schools		14-18%	59-78%	03-04%
fewer district resources for students and teachers		22-28%	24-32%	30-40%
The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act	28-37%	32-42%	16-21%	
Special Education guidelines and regulations	15-20%	30-39%	31-41%	
Columbine and other national incidents related to school security and student safety		12-16%	58-76%	06-08%
the teacher appraisal process that has increased documentation and related paperwork and clerical responsibilities	11-15%	27-35%	38-50%	
standards-based curriculum	12-16%	03-04%	58-76%	03-04%

Note. SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, D = Disagree, and SD = Strongly Disagree

These perceptions, according to the Multiple Regression Statistical Analysis are impacted by:

1. Numerous managerial duties associated with school leadership (90%);
2. School leaders who must be politicians as well as instructional and managerial experts (100%); and
3. Pressures related to student testing and school accountability (88%).

Table 5
Summary of Statistical Analysis for Variables Predicting How Lead Teachers Perceive Principals are Able to Handle External Influences (N = 76)

Contributing Factors
Outside factors that influence the principalship and inhibit lead teachers from pursuing the position include: • Increasing societal changes that negatively impact student discipline and behavior (75% of survey respondents agreed/strongly agreed) • Increasing politics and bureaucracy in school administration (87% agreed/strongly agreed) • Expanding state and national accountability as related to increased student achievement (81% agreed/strongly agreed) • State educational entities, legislative mandates, and local district dictates (83% agreed/strongly agreed) • Judicial decisions related to school discipline, personnel, and other legal educational issues (87% agreed/strongly agreed) • The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act (79% agreed/strongly agreed)

These indicators, as agreed/strongly agreed to by the majority of the survey respondents, effectively correlate with the research accorded the managerial, political, and instructional roles of the principalship and the way each role is an inescapable reality of modern educational administration (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980; Bossert, et al., 1982; Cuban, 1988; Levitt, 1976; Sergiovanni, et al., 2004, Zaleznik, 1977), and to the analyses of Orr (2001), Pounder & Merrill (2001), and Seyfarth (1999) – all of whom agree that the greatest detriment to recruiting high quality school leaders is the role of the principalship itself. Whether it be managerial duties, politics as usual, or accountability standards and pressures (each unto itself or in combination), such variables serve not only to impact teacher perceptions of their principal, but also define, for better or worse, the principalship.

Section VI: How does the climate and culture of a school impact lead teachers in relation to their perception about the principalship?

Table 6.1

Summary of Statistical Analysis for Variables Predicting What Leadership Roles and Experiences Serve to Discourage Lead Teachers from Seeking the Principalship (N = 76)

Lead teachers' perceptions of the school principalship, based on formal and informal experiences, are impacted by:

	SA	A	D	SD
numerous managerial duties associated with school leadership		15-20%	53-70%	08-10%
school leaders who must be politicians as well as instructional and managerial experts	26-34%	50-66%		
social conflict associated with the principalship	13-17%	39-51%	24-32%	
issues of time management as related to daily instructional / managerial tasks of the principalship	30-40%	28-37%	18-23%	
pressures related to student testing and school accountability		32-42%	35-46%	09-12%
indecisiveness, often demonstrated by principals today	17-22%	35-46%	24-32%	

(continued)

non-communicative school leaders	17-22%	44-58%	15-20%	
lack of visibility often exhibited by school principals today		23-30%	36-48%	17-22%
observation, appraisal, and evaluation processes as related to teachers and staff	06-08%	39-51%	28-37%	03-04%
communication of a vision of school goals and priorities to students, teachers, and community		13-17%	27-36%	36-47%

Note. SA = Strongly Agree, A – Agree, D = Disagree, and SD = Strongly Disagree

Table 6.2
Summary of Statistical Analysis for Variables Predicting What Leadership Roles and Experiences Serve to Discourage Lead Teachers from Seeking the Principalship
(N = 76)

Formal and informal leadership roles in schools are often assumed by lead teachers who provide educational services by:

	SA	A	D	SD
accepting excessive instructional responsibilities at the classroom level	37-49%	24-32%	15-19%	

(continued)

attaching value to high standards of performance	39-51%	34-45%	03-04%	
having no tolerance for the uncommitted		05-07%	45-59%	26-34%
expecting continual improvement from other teachers based on new knowledge & experiences		25-33%	45-59%	06-08%
serving as lead learners thus teaching others what is expected of them	26-34%	46-61%	04-05%	
building parent and community support for the school		10-13%	46-61%	20-26%
assuring a safe, secure, and orderly school setting	22-28%	46-61%	08-11%	
developing a curriculum & instructional objectives related to school goals		33-43%	39-52%	04-05%

(continued)

serving as instructional experts who are sought out by faculty, staff, and administration		39-52%	34-44%	03-04%
monitoring teacher, student, and school performance	33-43%	35-46%	08-11%	
exhibiting a visible presence in their schools	15-20%	44-58%	17-22%	

Note. SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, D = Disagree, and SD = Strongly Disagree

Table 7
Summary of Statistical Analysis for Variables Predicting What Leadership Roles and Experiences Serve to Discourage Lead Teachers from Seeking the Principalship
(N = 76)

Contributing Factors
Formal and informal leadership roles in schools are often assumed by lead teachers who provide educational services by: • Attaching value to high standards of performance (96% of the survey participants agreed/strongly agreed) • Serving as lead learners thus teaching others what is expected of them (95% agreed/strongly agreed) • Developing a curriculum and instructional objectives related to school goals (95% agreed/strongly agreed) • Serving as instructional experts who are sought out by faculty, staff, and administration (96% agreed/strongly agreed)

Upon review of the multiple regression analysis, the frequency factor indicated a significant statistical relationship between the climate and culture of a school and lead teacher perceptions regarding the principalship (see Tables 9.1 and 9.2). Overwhelmingly, 100% of the lead teacher survey respondents believed that the following elements of a school climate and culture were

affected or influenced by the school principal, and thus would negatively impact the respondents' career aspirations in educational administration if such elements were not in place or ascribed to by a school leader:

1. High spirit of honesty, integrity, trust, and respect;
2. Safe and open communication;
3. Goal-oriented and student-centered;
4. Demanding, yet rewarding expectations;
5. Problem-solving efforts; and
6. Meaningful collaboration.

Each of the six noted elements strongly correlates with the research regarding behavior categories of effective leaders (Bass, 1990; Bowers & Seashore, 1966; Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Likert, 1961; Stogdill, 1948).

Table 8
Model Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting What Leadership Roles and Experiences Serve to Discourage Lead Teachers from Seeking the Principalship (N = 76)

Variable	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error of the Estimate
Factors*	.780**	.609	.462***	2.645

Note. *One tail test was utilized since the study evaluated multiple variables.
**Predictors: (Constant) – Strongly Disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree.
***46% of the variance can be predicted from the independent variables.

Discussion

Research asserts that the most crucial element in preparing high-quality school leaders is associated with individual school districts. When districts make the necessary investment in lead teacher recruitment, selection, training, and mentoring of prospective school principals, a qualified and quality-oriented pool of candidates will emerge (Baltzell & Dentler, 1992; ERS, 1999 and 2000; Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Pounder & Young, 1996). School districts seldom have adequate numbers of quality candidates to fill administrative vacancies at the principalship level, and as a result, the selection and recruitment of lead teachers can effectively serve as a wise investment in developing essential pools of candidates. While recruitment and selection planning remains a priority at the school district level, a higher interest in seeking principal recruits from among lead teachers would seem not only practical, but most viable with school district human resource personnel (Sorenson, 2006).

Table 9.1
Summary of Statistical Analysis for Variable Predicting How the Climate and Culture of a School Impact Lead Teachers in Relation to Their Perceptions Regarding the Principalship (N = 76)

Specific elements of a school culture that lead teachers perceive a campus principal affects, impacts, or influences are:

	SA	A	D	SD
high spirit of honesty, integrity, mutual trust and respect	59-78%	17-22%		
safe, open communication	59-78%	17-22%		
informal praise and recognition of others		28-37%	44-58%	04-05%
recruitment and dismissal criteria and procedures	30-40%	36-47%	08-10%	02-03%
decentralized organizational structure	22-29%	44-58%	08-10%	02-03%
effective and appropriate campus planning, budgeting, and scheduling		46-61%	26-34%	04-05%
open administrative office layout	33-43%	39-52%	04-05%	
personal example set by administration		42-55%	28-37%	06-08%
cooperation and responsibility	42-55%	28-37%	06-08%	
clear, sensory vision	41-54%	31-41%	04-05%	

(continued)

goal-oriented / student-centered	46-61%	30-39%		
empowerment of others	41-54%	31-41%	04-05%	
demanding yet rewarding expectations		55-72%	21-28%	
problems-solving efforts	23-30%	53-70%		
meaningful collaboration	35-46%	41-54%		

Note. SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, D = Disagree, and SD = Strongly Disagree

Table 9.2
Summary of Statistical Analysis for Variables Predicting How the Climate and Culture of a School Impact Lead Teachers in Relation to Their Perceptions Regarding the Principalship (N = 76)
Lead teachers describe a positive school climate, as related to the principalship, as:

	SA	A	D	SD
taking care of people	48-63%	20-26%	08-11%	
establishing an atmosphere of quality leadership	63-83%	13-17%		
utilizing approaches related to a fair sense of justice	45-59%	31-41%		
being conducive to learning	45-59%	31-41%		
providing teacher resources and materials		47-62%	29-38%	

(continued)

motivating faculty, staff, and students	63-83%	11-14%	02-03%	
being visible and approachable	59-78%	17-22%		
having a sense of humor	51-67%	23-30%	02-03%	
developing a sense of responsibility in subordinates	59-78%	17-22%		
seeking the advice and assistance of faculty, students, parents, and community	35-46%	37-49%	04-05%	
paying attention to employee concerns and/or complaints		55-72%	19-25%	02-03%
keeping the school community informed		54-71%	20-26%	02-03%
taking calculated risks on behalf of school and students	33-43%	37-49%	06-08%	
raising the level of commitment and dedication within a school community	51-67%	23-30%	02-03%	

Note. SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, D = Disagree, and SD = Strongly Disagree

Results and Conclusions

Currently, school leaders are exiting the profession in record numbers as a result of dissatisfaction with the leadership role, and continuous retirements (Daresh & Sorenson, 2003; Sorenson, 2006). This exiting of the profession is costing taxpayers, both in dollars spent and professional expertise lost, most specifically in the area of administrative retraining. As a result, a significant portion of the administrative work force within our schools is being left with limited professional experience. This exodus is taking perhaps its greatest toll on students, whose productivity is affected by unstable educational leadership and programs (Sorenson & Goldsmith, 2006a, 2008). Gordon (2004) suggest that "district superintendents, central office staff developers, and school principals all need to provide support to teacher leaders" (p. 101). He further contends that only in those schools and districts where administrators are committed to supporting and empowering their teacher leaders will true leadership emerge, reach its fullest potential, and be sustained.

The resulting research from this study further supports the proposition that *Lead Teachers as Future School Administrators* programs need to be designed to provide support and guidance to lead teachers who are interested in pursuing careers as campus administrators. These programs should focus on practical aspects of school administration such as communicative and managerial skills, discipline, human resource management, scheduling, instructional orientations, fiscal and budgetary considerations, and school law, along with other leadership traits and/or characteristics that are essential to leading a successful learning community.

The results of this study further suggest that a valuable area of research may very well be the exploration of principal preparation programs. Many times these programs unknowingly discourage lead teachers from pursuing the principalship. This occurs simply because the preparation of school administrators is often tied to traditional programs insulated not by innovation and experimentation, but by practices tied with the status quo. These types of programs prepare future school principals by having said individuals complete a prescribed list of courses which include time-honored standards such as introduction to the principalship, school supervision, and educational finance, to name a few. Generally, graduate students complete these courses in no particular order, and even more troublesome, these courses are typically presented in the "sage on stage" or lecture mode, with little relevancy and minimal practical impact. For example, why should a potential school principal spend an entire semester learning about the dregs of a state's school finance formula when a course on site-based budgeting – taught from a field-based perspective – is much more appropriate, relevant, and practical (Sorenson & Goldsmith, 2006b)? What is missing in too many principal preparation programs that adhere to existing practices, is what Achilles (1987) detailed almost two decades ago – a conceptual framework, developed with a recognition of the value of adult

learning theory, closely aligned with desired and practical outcomes and related to rigorous evaluation.

Implications for Further Consideration

The following implications for policy and practice have been formulated as a result of this study:

1. Self-selection does not work in the area of principalship selection and leadership;
2. Universities and school districts continue to fail to make the essential efforts necessary to identify individuals with great promise as future school leaders;
3. Lead teachers can serve as prospective principals in schools if appropriately recognized, valued, trained, mentored, and utilized;
4. University principal preparation programs and school districts must partner to identify, evaluate, and assess how recruitment and selection practices can encourage lead teachers to pursue the school principalship; and
5. Lead teachers, school district administrators, and university principal preparation program officials must talk openly about *their* roles in developing potential school leaders by examining, explaining, and even demanding necessary changes and reforms associated with the principalship and noting how such changes must occur to better encourage lead teachers to seek the principalship as a career option.

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Appendix

Survey Questionnaire

Examining Factors that Inhibit Lead Teachers from Entering the Principalship ©

This questionnaire is designed to reveal your insights into the role of the principalship. While your time is valuable, the survey will only take approximately 20 minutes to complete. *All information obtained from this questionnaire will remain entirely confidential*. Section I seeks demographic information relative to you and your school; Section II addresses elements of the principalship that encourage lead teachers to aspire to the position; Section III examines those factors which discourage lead teachers from seeking the principalship; Section IV explores how lead teachers perceive how principals handle external influences; Section V identifies formal and informal experiences that impact lead teachers' perceptions of the principalship; and Section VI explores elements of school culture and climate that lead teachers perceive campus principals affecting or influencing.

The term *lead teacher* has been defined in the research literature as an educational professional who has a solid undergraduate education with credentials, who posses high intelligence, exhibits exceptional teaching abilities along with qualities of leadership, and has a powerful desire to grow professionally.

SECTION I: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

The individual completing this survey questionnaire is a: ____ Teacher

____ Principal

1. Gender: ____ Female ____ Male

2. Ethnicity:____ Hispanic ____ Black ____ White

   ____ Native American ____ Asian/Pacific Islander

3. Age:

____ 25-30 ____ 41-45 ____ 56-60

____ 31-35 ____ 46-50 ____ 61-65

____ 36-40 ____ 51-55 ____ Over 65

4. Educational Background:
   (Check all the degrees, licensures and/or certifications you have obtained)

____ Bachelor's Degree ____ Teacher Certificate

____ Master's Degree ____ Counselor Certificate

____ Doctoral Degree ____ Diagnostician Certificate

____ Principal Certificate

____ Superintendent Certificate

5. Educational Experience (Total):

____ 1-5 years ____ 11-15 years ____ 21-25 years

____ Over 30 years ____ 6-10 years ____ 16-20 years

____ 26-30 years

6. School Identification:

____ Elementary ____ Middle/JHS ____ High School

7. Number of Students Enrolled:

____ 200-299 ____ 700-799 ____ 2000-2499

____ 300-399 ____ 800-899 ____ 2500-2999

____ 400-499 ____ 900-999 ____ 3000-3499

____ 500-599 ____ 1000-1499 ____ 3500-3999

____ 600-699 ____ 1500-1999 ____ Over 4000

8. Percentage of students receiving USDA free or reduced lunches:

____ 0-9% ____ 40-49% ____ 80-89%

____ 10-19% ____ 50-59% ____ 90-93%

____ 20-29% ____ 60-69% ____ 94-97%

____ 30-39% ____ 70-79% ____ 98-100%

9. Location of School:

____ Rural ____ Suburban ____ Urban

10. The campus principal has served for how many years at her/his current school?

____ 0-4 years ____ 5-9 years____ Over 10 years

SECTION II: WHAT ENCOURAGES LEAD TEACHERS TO ASPIRE TO THE PRINCIPALSHIP?

Section II presents a series of statements which serve to identify what elements of the principalship encourage lead teachers to aspire to the position.

Circle the answer that best describes you and your feelings or perceptions regarding each statement by utilizing the following scale.

SA = Strongly Agree A = Agree D = Disagree SD = Strongly Disagree

1. Lead teachers are encouraged to aspire to the position of principal because of their desire to:

▪ serve as instructional leaders	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ establish the vision of a school	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ commit to life-long learning	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ accept more complex demands and expectations	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ direct school responses to state and national emphasis on standards, assessment, and accountability	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ influence student achievement, parental interactions, personnel, budgeting, school safety, and community relations	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ provide instructional expertise in the area of teaching and learning	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**

SECTION III: WHAT DISCOURAGES LEAD TEACHERS FROM SEEKING THE PRINCIPALSHIP?

Section III presents a series of statements which serve to determine what elements of the principalship discourage lead teachers from seeking the administrative position.

Circle the answer that best describes you and your feelings or perceptions regarding each statement by utilizing the following scale.

SA = Strongly Agree A = Agree D = Disagree SD = Strongly Disagree

1. Lead teachers are discouraged from seeking the principalship because the role of the principal is:

▪ complex and challenging	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ focused on school security and student safety	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ extensive and requires much documentation	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ complicated by special education regulations	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ problematic in relation to daily demands(parent issues, student concerns, etc.) which interfere with effective instructional leadership	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ compounded by the dramatic increase of litigation	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ restricted in relation to changes in societal attitudes toward schools, teachers, and administrators	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ challenged as a result of the increasing needs of a more diverse population	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ accountable in relation to student outcomes such as test results, drop out rates, student attendance, and disciplinary actions	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ affected by negative attitudes toward school taxation	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**

SECTION IV: HOW DO LEAD TEACHERS PERCEIVE PRINCIPALS ARE ABLE TO HANDLE EXTERNAL INFLUENCES?

Section IV presents a series of statements that examine factors outside the school that influence the principalship and thus inhibit lead teachers from pursuing the position.

Circle the answer that best describes you and your feelings or perceptions regarding each statement by utilizing the following scale.

SA = Strongly Agree = Agree D = Disagree SD = Strongly Disagree

1. Outside factors that influence the principalship and inhibit lead teachers from pursuing the position include:

▪ increasing societal changes that negatively impact student discipline and behavior	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ increasing percentage of economically disadvantaged student populations	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ expanding school board dictates and interference in school administration	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ challenging superintendent expectations	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ continuing public demands for excellence in schools	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ increasing power of state government in education	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ incorporating school-choice into public education	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ maintaining public confidence in schools	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ increasing politics and bureaucracy in school administration	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ expanding state and national accountability as related to increased student achievement	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ demanding narrow interest groups	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ continuing influence of teacher organizations	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**

2. Critical incidents, outside influences, and associated actions that negatively influence lead teachers from pursuing the principalship include:

▪ state educational entities, legislative mandates, and local district dictates	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ parent organizations, concerned citizens, and external pressure groups	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ judicial decisions related to school discipline, personnel, and other legal educational issues	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ Title IX considerations and the expansion of extracurricular programs	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ taxpayer rebellion against local tax increases for schools	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ fewer district resources for students and teachers	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ Special Education guidelines and regulations	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ Columbine and other national incidents related to school security and student safety	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ the teacher appraisal process that has increased documentation and related paperwork and clerical responsibilities	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ standards-based curriculum	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**

SECTION V: WHAT LEADERSHIP ROLES AND EXPERIENCES SERVE TO DISCOURAGE LEAD TEACHERS FROM SEEKING THE PRINCIPALSHIP?

Section V presents a series of statements which serve to explore those formal and informal experiences that may impact lead teachers' perceptions of the school principalship and specifically, identify which formal and informal leadership roles lead teachers provide as educational services to schools.

Circle the answer that best describes you and your feelings or perceptions regarding each statement by utilizing the following scale.

SA = Strongly Agree A = Agree D = Disagree SD = Strongly Disagree

1. Lead teachers' perceptions of the school principalship, based on formal and informal experiences, are impacted by:

▪ numerous managerial duties associated with school leadership	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ school leaders who must be politicians as well as instructional and managerial experts	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ social conflict associated with the principalship	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ issues of time management as related to dailyinstructional / managerial tasks of the principalship	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ lack of incentives associated with the principalship	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ pressures related to student testing and school accountability	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ indecisiveness, often demonstrated by principals today	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ non-communicative school leaders	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ lack of visibility often exhibited by school principals today	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ observation, appraisal, and evaluation processes as related to teachers and staff	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ personal sacrifices made by principals for the good of their schools	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ communication of a vision of school goals and priorities to students, teachers, and community	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**

2. Formal and informal leadership roles in school are often assumed by lead teachers who provide educational services by:

▪ accepting excessive instructional responsibilities at the classroom level	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ attaching value to high standards of performance	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ having no tolerance for the uncommitted	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ expecting continual improvement from other teachers and staff based on new knowledge and experiences	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ serving as lead learners thus teaching others what is expected of them	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ building parent and community support for the school	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ assuring a safe, secure, and orderly school setting	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ developing a curriculum and instructional objectives related to school goals	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ serving as instructional experts who are sought out by faculty, staff, and administration	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ monitoring teacher, student, and school performance	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ exhibiting a visible presence in their schools	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**

SECTION VI: HOW DOES THE CLIMATE AND CULTURE OF A SCHOOL IMPACT LEAD TEACHERS IN RELATION TO THEIR PERCEPTIONS ABOUT THE PRINCIPALSHIP?

Section VI presents a series of statements which examine specific elements of school culture that lead teachers perceive the campus principal affects or influences. These statements also seek to identify how lead teachers describe the climate of their current schools.

Circle the answer that best describes you and your feelings or perceptions regarding each statement by utilizing the following scale.

SA = Strongly Agree A = Agree D = Disagree SD = Strongly Disagree

1. Specific elements of a school culture that lead teachers perceive a campus principal affects, impacts, or influences are:

▪ high spirit of honesty, integrity, mutual trust and respect	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ safe, open communication	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ values (loyalty, self-sacrifice, and service)	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ formal recognition of students, faculty, staff in ceremonies	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ informal praise and recognition of others	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ recruitment and dismissal criteria and procedures	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ decentralized organizational structure	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ effective and appropriate campus planning, budgeting, and scheduling	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ open administrative office layout	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ personal example set by administration	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ cooperation and responsibility	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ clear, sensory vision	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ goal-oriented / student-centered	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ empowerment of others	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ demanding yet rewarding expectations	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ problem-solving efforts	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ meaningful collaboration	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**

2. Lead teachers describe a positive school climate, as related to the principalship, as:

▪ taking care of people	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ establishing an atmosphere of quality leadership	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ utilizing approaches related to a fair sense of justice	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ being conducive to learning	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ providing teacher resources and materials	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ motivating faculty, staff, and students	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ being visible and approachable	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ having a sense of humor	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ developing a sense of responsibility in subordinates	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ seeking the advice and assistance of faculty, students, parents and community	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ paying attention to employee concerns and/or complaints	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ keeping the school community informed	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ taking calculated risks on behalf of school and students	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ answering the “when,” “why,” and “how” questions	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**
▪ raising the level of commitment and dedication within a school community	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**

3. The climate of your current school can best be described as:

[ ] Positive [ ] Negative

Supporting Hispanic Student Success

Chapter 11

The Efficacy of Bioelectric Impedance as an Estimator of Body Composition Analysis in Hispanic Youth

Mark Bohling
Don Melrose
Randy Bonnette
Frank Spaniol

Abstract

The purpose of this investigation was to evaluate the efficacy of the Bioelectric Impedance Analysis (BIA) as an alternative method of determining body composition in Hispanic youths aged 9 to 16 years. One-hundred seventy-six Hispanic adolescents were utilized as subjects in this investigation. The following measurements were obtained from each participant: age, height, weight, body mass index (BMI), body fat as determined by a two-site skinfold (SKF) measurement, and body fat as determined by a BIA analyzer. Correlational data showed a significant positive correlation ($r = 0.84$) between BIA and SKF group data. BMI had very little correlation to any body fat measurement ($r = 0.26$). Paired t-tests indicated a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between the BIA and SKF measurement for boys, but not girls. In conclusion, results of this investigation indicate that BIA more closely predicts body composition for Hispanic girls than for boys. Moreover, BMI tends to provide an acceptable estimate of risk assessment for obesity in Hispanic girls, but it tends to underestimate risk for Hispanic boys.

The Efficacy of Bioelectric Impedance as an Estimator of Body Composition Analysis in Hispanic Youth

The purpose of this investigation was to evaluate the efficacy of the Bioelectric Impedance Analysis (BIA) as an alternative method of determining body composition in Hispanic youths aged nine to 16 years. Less sophisticated and commonly used estimates of health risk for obesity, such as the body mass index (BMI) and the waist-to-hip ratio (WHR), fail to consistently identify at-risk individuals (Stevens, Keil, Rust, Tyroler, Davis, & Gazes,1992). This is particularly true with respect to measurements between various ethnicities and age groups. The BMI is basically a height-to-weight ratio, and the WHR measures the ratio of circumferences between the waist and the hip. Each measurement has been strongly linked with known causes of mortality. A shortcoming of each measurement is that neither the BMI or WHR is capable of

determining body composition, but each has high correlations to known causes of mortality such as diabetes and heart disease (Wilmore & Costill, 2004).

Field collection of body composition or other anthropometrical data utilizing children, especially in public schools, is prone to discrepancy and error. Primarily, skinfold (SKF) measurements involve exposing skin on various parts of the body and measuring the fold's thickness with a caliper. Preferred SKF protocols typically call for the measurement of three to seven skinfold sites. While there are one and two site measurements that can be obtained with minimal exposure of skin, they may be nonetheless considered invasive. Moreover, sensitivity concerning touching children and confidentiality when collecting SKF data regarding one child in the presence of other children must be taken into consideration (Heyward & Wagner, 2004). As a substitute for SKF measurements, more crude measurements like the BMI and WHR are utilized. The foremost problem with these measurements is that they don't actually provide a prediction of body fat as do skinfolds. They only provide an indication of possible risks due to the height and weight and waist-to-hip ratios. Data derived from these measurements may also lead to false inferences. For example, an individual or athlete who is shorter in stature, has a higher lean body tissue content, and has low body fat content, may be considered obese or at high risk for serious health problems according to the body mass index. To properly determine the truthfulness of this inference, a body composition measurement must be performed. As a method of determining body composition, BIA does not rely on invasive techniques to acquire data. In addition, its digital readout can aid in preventing accidentally disseminating data to others. Despite its potential in this situation, the BIA technique is still not routinely used.

There are strong links between ethnicity, obesity, and disease (Heyward & Wagner, 2004). The incidence of disease due to obesity is well documented (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2000). Heyward and Wagner reported that both SKF and BIA techniques are capable of measuring fatness in Hispanic individuals; however, they also maintain that much more research is needed to produce more accurate formulas for determining body composition. To date, limited research has been done with Hispanic children. If SKF and BIA measurements are to be used as risk assessors and estimates of body fatness, it is necessary that each be assessed for their appropriateness with the target population. The purpose of this investigation was to evaluate the efficacy of BIA as an alternative method of determining body composition in Hispanic youth.

Methods

One-hundred seventy-six Hispanic adolescents were utilized as subjects in this investigation. All were participants in the National Youth Sports Program (NYSP) conducted at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMUCC). The NYSP is a program that provides health and physical activity information and programming for disadvantaged youths. Subject age ranged between nine and 16 years (see Table 1 for subject data). As all subjects were minors, informed

consent was provided by parents or legal guardians as well as the participants. This investigation was reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at TAMUCC.

Table 1.
Descriptive and test data by group and gender (mean ± sd)

Variable	Group	Girls	Boys
Age (yrs.)	11.81±1.81	11.80±1.76	11.81±1.85
Height (m)	1.52±0.10	1.51±0.09	1.53±0.12
Weight (kg)	54.54±17.6	53.25±16.36	56.04±18.85

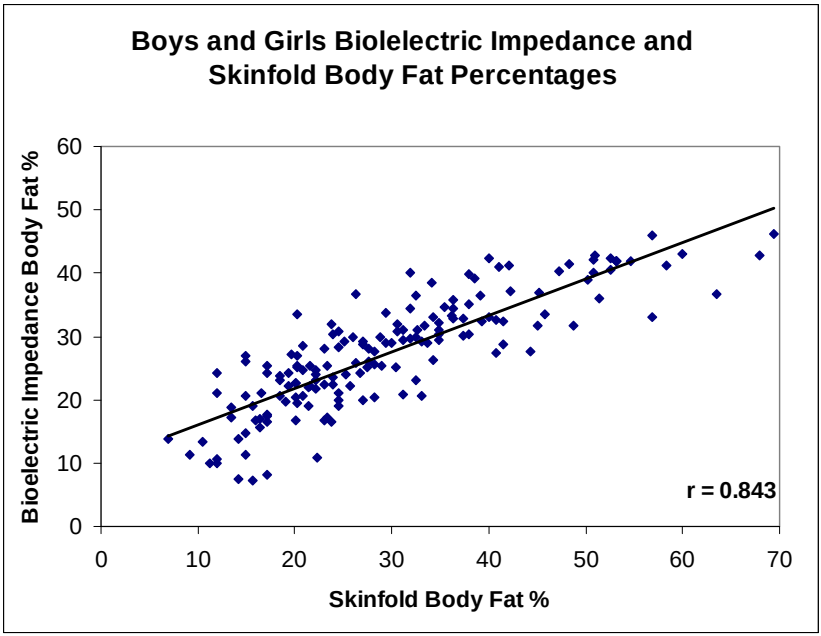
The following measurements were obtained from each participant: age, height, weight, BMI, body fat as determined by a two-site SKF measurement, and body fat as determined by a BIA analyzer. Height was measured using a standard stadiometer. Weight was measured with an electronic scale. Body mass index was calculated as a product of the participants' height and weight, as determined by the American College of Sports Medicine (ACSM, 2006). Body composition was determined in two different ways for purposes of comparison. SKF measurements were obtained at the subject's tricep and calf utilizing a Lange skinfold caliper. SKF measurements were placed into a body density formula (Jackson, Pollack, & Ward,1980) and converted to body fat percentage using the Siri formula (Siri, 1961). The Siri formula is a general population formula. An Omron BIA was also used to determine body composition. This device is a handheld model and was programmed with the subject's age, height, weight, and gender.

Data were stratified by age and gender. Means and standard deviations were determined for all variables. A Pearson's r correlation matrix was used to determine the presence of meaningful correlations. Ratings of correlation relationship were provided in Tritschler (2000). Significant correlations were accepted at $p < 0.05$. Paired t-tests were also utilized to determine the presence of signficant differences in BIA and SKF measurements for each gender. Significant differences were accepted at $p = 0.05$. Critical t values were accessed in Tritchler (2000). Microsoft Excel was used to analyze all data.

Results

Correlational data showed a significant positive correlation ($r = 0.84$) between BIA and SKF group data (Figure 1). Significant positive correlations were found for both BIA and SKF data for both girls and boys ($r = 0.85$). Body mass index had very little correlation to any body fat measurement ($r = 0.26$).

Figure 1.



Paired t-tests indicated a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between the BIA and SKF measurement for boys, but not girls. Table 2 shows data for BMI, SKF and BIA. The BMI for girls indicates an average score of 25.77 $kg{\cdot}m^{-2}$. According to ACSM (2006), this BMI is at the low end of the overweight category (25.0-29.9 $kg{\cdot}m^{-2}$). Both SKF and BIA body composition assessments for this group reflect high normal body fat percentages (20-32%) (ACSM). Obesity in girls ages six through 17 is considered >36% (Heyward & Wagner, 2004). Boys, however, had a "normal" BMI of 23.82 $kg{\cdot}m^{-2}$. The normal BMI range is 18.5 to 24.9 $kg{\cdot}m^{-2}$. Body fat measurements for boys exceeded what the BMI would indicate as a commensurate amount of body fat. An optimal body fat measurement for males is 10 to 22%. Obesity in boys ages six to 17 is considered >31%. SKF and BIA estimates of body composition indicate males were over-fat to approaching the obese category.

Table 2.
Test data by group and gender (mean ± sd)

Variable	Group	Girls	Boys
BMI ($kg{\cdot}m^{-2}$)	24.74±13.57	25.77±18.44	23.82±6.81
SKF Body Fat%	29.51±13.0	30.36±10.33	28.76±14.99
BIA Body Fat %	27.5±8.80	29.41±6.97	25.73±9.93

Review of Literature

The purpose of this investigation was to evaluate the efficacy of BIA as an alternative method of determining body composition in Hispanic youths. Results of this investigation show high correlations between BIA and SKF as measurements of body fatness. Conversely, both BIA and SKF measurements showed a less than commensurate relationship with BMI. The BMI was most reflective of body composition in Hispanic girls. For the boys, BMI appeared to categorize their risk factors below what their body composition measurements indicated. In addition, there were significant differences in body fat measurements using the BIA and SKF methods for boys, but not for girls.

There are no universally accepted values for categorization of body fat levels (ACSM, 2006), though there are numerical levels that are recognized as being associated with health risks. Ethnic differences in fat patterning and body proportions may affect the validity of generalized field measurement prediction equations (Wagner & Heyward, 2000). Casas, Schiller, DeSouza, & Seals (2001) believe that Hispanics may be at further risk for cardiovascular disease because they tend to deposit relatively more fat on the trunk than the extremities. Heyward & Wagner, (2004) reported wide discrepancies between BMI and actual body fat estimates in American Indian women. Body mass index data indicated that only 25% of their sample population was obese, while body fat estimates determined by hydrostatic weighing indicated that 78% of the sample was obese. Also, Asians have higher body fat values at a given BMI value than do Caucasians.

The BMI is primarily utilized as a descriptor of a population as it is essentially a height-to-weight ratio. The BMI is most noted for its high correlations with known causes of mortality such as cardiovascular and diabetic issues (Janssen, Heymsfield, Allison, Kotler, & Ross, 2002). However, the most noted problem with the BMI is its inability to determine body composition, which most certainly leads to error in determining actual level of health risk. The present study confirmed this as it showed very low correaltions between body fat and BMI. According to Heyward and Wagner (2004) factors such as age, ethnicity, body build, and frame size affect the relationship between body fat percentage and BMI. Therefore, it may misclassify people in terms of their risk factors. Our investigation showed misclassification of BMI in terms of body fat and risk factors specifically with the Hispanic boys, but not girls. This speaks clearly to the various factors that affect the relationship between BMI and body fat percentage. The merits of BMI categorization notwithstanding, a better indication of health risk should come from a measurement of actual body composition.

SKF measurements are a low-cost alternative to more expensive types of body composition analysis methods. The SKF technique is widely used to estimate total body fatness in both clinical and field settings (Heyward and Wagner, 2004). There are inherent issues with SKF measurement. In order to expedite data collection and reduce the invasiveness of SKF measurements,

researchers utilize protocols with fewer skinfold sites or sites taken at less invasive locations. Body composition measurements, as determined by skinfolds, are accepted, reliable, and valid when performed by an experienced technician. As with many other body composition measurements, SKF techniques are used to calculate a body density measurement. Body density measurements are then converted to body fat percentage. Accuracy depends on the use of a population-specific conversion (ACSM, 2006). In the absence of a specific formula, most researchers tend to use a general population conversion as was used in this investigation. Then general population formula is a default in the absence of a population-specific conversion formula. This is precisely what was used in the current investigation.

Bottaro, Heyward, Bezerra, & Wagner (2002) found that SKF measurements had acceptable prediction errors for Hispanic women (aged 20 to 40) when used with population-specific conversions from body density to percent body fat. Interestingly, to date there is no research to support the use of the SKF method for assessing body composition in Hispanic men (Heyward and Wagner, 2004). The body fat percentages, as indicated by SKF in this investigation, were significantly higher for boys as compared to the BIA estimates. In the absence of a higher-level body composition technique, it is difficult to say which of those measurements is most valid. To date, there is no research that has produced population-specific conversions for Hispanic children. It is acknowledged that validity may be in question with the use of SKF with this population, but the SKF method may allow for reliable tracking of general and site-specific changes in body fat for this population. Until a population-specific conversion is developed, we suggest that a general population formula is probably the best alternative when using skinfolds with Hispanic children.

BIA is a possible alternative to the invasiveness of skinfolds and the inability of the BMI and WHR to consistently estimate risk as accurately as a body fat measurement. BIA estimates body composition by passing a low level electrical current through the body and measuring the impedance of the different tissues. The degree of impedance experienced by the current enables a measurement of body density to be estimated. The body density measurement can subsequently be converted to a percentage of body fat. Bioelectric impedance tends to underestimate the body fatness of Hispanic men specifically (Lockner, Heyward, Griffen, Marques, Stolarczyk, & Wagner, 1999). Our study also showed significantly lower BIA values as compared to SKF values. If BIA does underestimate body fatness of Hispanic men, it may do the same for Hispanic boys.

Discussion

It is difficult to determine which method of body composition determination is most accurate for Hispanic youths, especially boys. Our data show that the use of BIA assessment is less indicated than using the SKF method. If BIA does underestimate body fat in Hispanic boys as it does in men, then by default, SKF

measurements may be more indicated. Ideally, another non-field measurement of body composition may be needed to help validate both BIA and SKF measurement techniques. The researchers of this study are of the opinion that the sheer amount of validation and research that has been performed on SKF in general lend it greater credibility. For the researchers, this assertion is true even if a general-population formula rather than a race-specific formula is used to convert body density measurements into body fat percentages for Hispanic boys. Typically, available body composition formulas are delineated by race, gender, or age, but usually not all three. This makes it difficult to define the validity of BIA and SKF measurements.

In conclusion, results of this investigation indicate that BIA more closely predicts body composition for Hispanic girls than for boys. Moreover, BMI tends to provide an acceptable estimate of risk assessment for obesity in Hispanic girls, but tends to underestimate risk for Hispanic boys. Results of the present study also suggest that further investigation is necessary to validate BIA with Hispanic youths.

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Supporting Hispanic Student Success

Chapter 12

Stories of Hispanic Women of Courage

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Abstract

This is an oral history study that looks into the lives of two successful Hispanic women. The two participants were selected based on their Hispanic origin, childhood experiences, and current accomplishments. Through the interview process, information was gathered regarding the relationship of "informant's experiences" and "personal identity" with their "educational reading experiences." Key phrases were recorded and categorized to discover the informant's perceived strengths and ideals. A descriptive relationship is established between those perceptions and the accomplishments of the informant. The obstacles and cultural perceptions of these narratives point to the idea that although the "adobe ceiling" does exist for the creative, persistent and courageous Hispanic female, there are cracks. These stories represent the women who have crashed through the "adobe ceiling." Their accomplishments warrant the need to collect stories of success from women who have "triumphed over" the difficulties of life.

Stories of Hispanic Women of Courage

When I was born
I was of the Mexican-American persuasion
Then I became Chicana
Then I was Latina
Then I was Hispanic
Then I was a third world member
(my mom loved that)
Then I was a woman of color
Now I am just an Amway dealer
And my life is happening. (Arrizón, 1993)

This monologue by Arrison represents the fluidity felt by many Hispanic women in the quest to define themselves within a set of changing terms and perceptions.

This oral history study looks at the stories of two successful Hispanic women who fought through adversity to achieve success. A common thread in these stories is the desire to find a way to excel and be recognized for that

excellence. Academics provide an avenue for these women to be recognized. The women in the study were selected based on their Hispanic origin, childhood experiences and current accomplishments.

Literature Review

Why do we use narratives or stories? "Through stories we try to interpret experiences and make their meanings explicit. Stories about ourselves are important in terms of how we come to understand ourselves and act as embodied beings in the world" (Biott, Moose, & Moller, 2001, p. 396). One method of recording these stories is through an oral history interview. According to Yow (2005), "in an oral history interview, narrators answer by telling stories; although, sometimes these are little stories within the larger frame of the interview, the encompassing story" (p. 300). These stories embody the "narrator's views" of themselves situated within their own history. The identity situated within one's memory is a way of making sense of oneself. It is probable that people create varied versions of their life story (e.g. Biott, Moose, & Moller, 2001).

The way a person retells his/her story is based on who the audience is and the purpose of the discourse. Personal stories/narratives serve many purposes, both personal and communal. Narratives about the lives of Hispanic women of courage are instrumental in debunking the myths and stereotypes used to justify inequities (Valverde, 1998). Delgado (1995) maintains that through narratives, parables, stories, and chronicles, the mindsets of those who hold to the myths and stereotypes can be changed. These mindsets exist within and outside the Hispanic community.

The focus on Hispanic women is important. The Mexican American female in Texas is one of 35 million Hispanics currently residing in the United States, and one of 58.5% of all Mexican Americans included within this group (U.S. Census Bureau, 2004). Of the 35 million Hispanics currently residing in the U.S., Hispanic women make up slightly less than half and are expected to increase in number as the Hispanic population climbs to 24.5% or 100 million by the year 2050 (U.S. Census Bureau, (2000). While the "glass ceiling" was initially identified primarily as a women's issue, substantial evidence has shown that the barriers to upward mobility are just as formidable for minorities. These barriers have been termed "the adobe ceiling" for Hispanics (ESA-OFCCP, Employment Standards Administration Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs, 1995).

Method

The researcher recorded and explored the narratives of two Hispanic women. Interviews were conducted using an interview guide developed by Griffith and Labercane for this project (personal correspondence). The interview guide consisted of six basic questions:

- Can you trace for us the educational and social path you took to arrive where you are at present time?
- What are some of the most memorable moments of that journey?

- What sorts of things have you lost and gained making the transition from your Hispanic roots to where you are now?
- What did you give up and gain to pursue your dreams? Has it been worth it?
- How often, when, and where do you speak Spanish and in which contexts? (at home, with children, parents, and friends?).

Interview 1

The first interview was with Marion Luna Brim. Ms. Brim is an author, public speaker and the founder and owner of Love Chrysler in Corpus Christi. The interviewer initially contacted her by phone, and a time for the interview to take place was decided upon. They met in Ms. Brim's office during regular business hours. Although the ninety-minute interview session was recorded on tape, the interviewer also took notes by hand. Ms. Brim, being a skilled interviewee, controlled the first few minutes of the interview. She began with "Well, you tell me about yourself first. Warm me up a little bit. You are a teacher at St. James?" She continued her affirmations, "Wow congratulations, I'm impressed." In fact, she appeared to be conducting the interview. Once she had gained enough information to establish a comfort zone, she allowed the interviewer to begin asking her questions about her life. The interviewer followed the interview guide, deviating only to clarify her statements. The interview process worked very much like the process described by Yow (2005). The interviewer would ask her a question, and she would answer by recounting a personal story or a series of personal stories. The interviewer asked "What was your home life like?" She responded:

> Ok. Well I was the oldest of five children growing up. And I can tell you that growing up we were very, very poor. It wasn't until really after I left home, which I left home at an early age, that my parents started to see the fruits of their labor. So as the oldest of five children, for example, when I was in the third grade when my mother first married my stepfather we moved to Arizona and lived, five of us five children, imagine, she had four from a previous marriage and they had one early together very early on, we lived in an 8ft by 35 ft trailer. Trailer, it is hard to call it a mobile home because it was a trailer. And oh, I can remember how my mother would make one little peace of meat stretch for the entire family.

The interview took approximately one and one half hours and covered fourteen pages of transcribed conversation. Following a method suggested by Yow (2005) to lend understanding to the words used in the interview, and as a result of reading over the transcript several times, the interviewer developed several categories: I am unconventional; I am ambitious; I am Hispanic; I am resourceful; I am strong; I am smart; I am a risk-taker; and I am tenacious. According to the methods proposed by Chanfrault-Duchet (1991), the researcher began to look for key phrases or repeated phrases, and recorded under the

appropriate headings. These phrases were then analyzed to investigate perceived strengths and ideals.

The researcher also read and re-read the stories several times searching for themes. Throughout the stories of Ms Brim the theme of strength through adversity could be found. Her fight with poverty as a child, her battle with cancer, her devastating divorce and adult financial devastation in her perception only made her stronger. For example, some of her thoughts are instructive: "I think we only grow through pain," and "Forced change is going to be a part of our lives, but we can change the situation just by virtue of how we look at it." Her life is one of power and strength.

Interview 2

The second interview with Ms. Lara, who is a doctoral student at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi and a kindergarten teacher at a local elementary school, took place in two sessions. The first session lasted forty-five minutes. The interview was based on the same topics used with Marion Luna Brim. This interview started much faster. Because Ms Lara and the interviewer have known each other for more than a year, they did not have the several minutes needed to establish a comfort level. The first question was "Margaret, can you trace for me the educational and social paths that you took to arrive where you are today?" Her answer opened with an expression of surprise: "…Never did I think that where I am today is where I was going to go. I had no clue." She attributed much of her success to the encouragement of a special fifth grade teacher, Dr. Silva. Lara states: "But, I don't think without that particular teacher explaining to us the process and how school does not end, would I have continued on, and I remember her saying, 'If you are good at something stick to it,' and the one thing I was good at was reading."

Lara followed the same pattern of answering questions with stories as was observed in the Brim interview and discussed in Yow. I occasionally re-asked a question to get a more directed answer or to refocus the interview. I found it necessary to ask about memorable moments twice. I found, for Lara, memorable moments may not involve her own success but celebrating the success of those whom she loves: "I will tell you that when we went to my brother's, I've been to everybody's graduation of course…"

Lara's interview was less directed and had much more description than the Brim interview. The interview had been going along well when a storm blew in. Due to the severity of the storm, the completion of the interview was postponed. A week later the interview resumed. To be sure to include all pertinent information, Lara listened to the ending of the previous interview. She then elaborated on the previous interview and introduced new information. The previous interview ended with Lara telling her childhood dreams of becoming a stay-at-home mother. After Lara listened to the last five minutes of the previous interview, she gave examples of different women in her community, including her mother, who stayed home to raise their children. One bit of new information

Lara introduced in the continuation turned out to be one of her biggest obstacles. Lara stated:

> I will tell you that a little bit of the obstacle, that 'You've come a long way, baby' thing. When I was about four, she (my mom) was in and out of the hospital for years because she suffered from, she was manic depressive, she was gone for months at a time.

The Lara interview lasted approximately two hours, conducted over two days, and took twenty-one pages to transcribe. Following the same procedure that had been used with the Brim interview, key and repeated phrases were selected and recorded under the appropriate headings. Similarities and differences in the major themes found in the Brim and Lara interviews were found and recorded.

Results Discussion

This study focuses on the stories of courage of two successful Hispanic women. Although each of these two women followed very different paths, their stories trace personal paths to success and also demonstrate many commonalities shared by the two women. Obstacles and setbacks, such as poverty, family illness, and personal illness, which could only be overcome through tenacity and strength, were a part of their lives.

Both women developed, in very different ways, their own identity of what it means to be a Hispanic woman. From the interview, it is evident that Lara is very much entrenched in her culture, whereas Brim spends time recollecting hers and offers a more objective view. The interviews also demonstrate how literacy was important in the success of both of these women. By looking at the phrases and stressed concepts of the interview discourse, the researcher selected and analyzed the indicators of self-concept. The stories of each of these women revealed much about their personal histories and their ideas of self.

Obstacles

Brim worked her way through high school and recalled getting her first job: "I actually fibbed my age so that I could get a job at Luby's Cafeteria as a floor girl, carrying trays." She married at the age of 17, seeing it as a path to adulthood: "Wanting a pass out of home, and wanting a 'password' into adulthood, I married very young."

Lara also recounted a childhood of poverty. One story she told recounted memories of missing her siblings after they left for college:

> Only on holidays did they come back to visit because money was, you know, we didn't have that kind of money. Um, just a little story behind that. The only car my parents had, they let my brother take it. So, it was like I'm gonna say that there was maybe two or three weeks where we didn't have a car because my brother had gone off to school. We did without until we found another car to replace the one he had taken.

Like Brim, Lara worked during her high school years. However, Lara did not enjoy her work like Brim enjoyed hers. Lara states:

> I worked at Baskin Robbins and worked there for three and a half years. Growing up at sixteen, seventeen and eighteen (years old) working there, I bought the clothes I needed for school because my mom and dad couldn't afford the things I wanted so we had to do it that way. That was the only option…all through high school getting out late at 11:30 and having to (work) and all on the weekends. Thinking about sacrifice, it was a huge sacrifice.

Neither Lara's mother nor father obtained degrees beyond a high school diploma. Throughout much of Lara's childhood, her mother was absent due to frequent hospitalizations for depression. Unlike Brim, Lara did not move frequently. Lara grew up in an Hispanic community where most of the girls her age became pregnant during high school. Lara was not like these girls, "When I look back at our parents and the values that my neighbors' parents had, and what we had, were the same. The other ones (girls from the other areas of the neighborhood) I didn't think had the same (values)." Lara went on to explain that her immediate neighbors had strong family and religious ties, similar to her own, that made them different from many of the people in her neighborhood.

Hispanic Identity

The level of cultural identity varies among Hispanics. Even the terms used to assign identity and the origins of the terms vary. A few of the terms are (a) "Hispanic," (b) "Mexican American," (c) "Latin American," (d) "Spanish," (e) "Latina" and (f) "Chicana." The term "Hispanic" is a government-assigned term, whereas "Chicana" has political origins and "Mexican American" is regionally based. The terms are not always interchangeably used, because depending on region and preference, some terms are offensive. Chicana is defined by Ruiz (1998) as being a term to reflect a political consciousness; however, E. Rodriguez, a first-generation American-born Hispanic and native of Texas, defines it as being "first generation American born Latina." On the other hand, M. Lara, the interviewee and a native Texan, remembers her grandmother teaching her that the term Chicana is degrading.

Brim, when asked about her connection to her "Hispanic roots," replied, "I've gotten somewhat anglicized." She also stated that her roots were still there and, although she did not continue to practice many of the cultural activities on a regular basis, she could return to those roots anytime she wanted: "I can make tortillas as good as any of the women in the family. Mine might be shaped like the state of Texas. I'd match mine up against anyone's. So the cooking is still there for me. The language, I can turn it on and off."

Unlike Brim, who sees herself as anglicized, Lara is intentionally entrenched in her Hispanic culture: "There are friends that I know that I have kept close because we share the same traditions and we share stories, and you know I wouldn't be able to do that with anybody who doesn't eat the traditional whatever or doesn't do a traditional dance…"

Lara's sense of being Hispanic, as well as her devotion to her family, is a theme that runs throughout her stories: "You know during the Christmas holiday there is the tradition of making tamales …" She does admit that her level of education has changed some cultural perceptions she grew up with. One perception that has changed was that the highest occupational level for a woman was being a mother and part-time worker. "During that time the women who lived on our block—and predominately it was a Hispanic community—all of the moms stayed home. None of them worked."

Lara equates her cultural identity with family identity. Her stories celebrate her family involvement and cultural involvement. One story focused on her Thanksgiving family reunions with all of her aunts, uncles, and cousins, and how she excels because of the desire to be a good role model for her younger relatives. She attributes her involvement in the Hispanic culture to family ties, stating, "I've got my family close by, my parents are still close by, so those (Hispanic) traditions, we've (siblings and I) been able to keep them."

Power of Academics

The ability to read and comprehend lies at the core of educational success. Brim and Lara both showed a reliance on their academic ability to further their education and occupational success. Both came to their own understanding of the importance of academics in different ways.

While recollecting the difficulties of always being the "new girl," Brim also recalled how "academics provided me what I needed to fit in and be admired." Literacy continues to propel Brim into the area of occupational success. Today, Brim owns and runs a car dealership, and she travels around the United States speaking and writing books on selling and success.

Lara very candidly admitted that, until the fifth grade, she had no idea that education continued beyond high school. She remembers her teacher telling the class, "If you are good at something, stick to it." Lara determined that she was good at reading. Lara did stick with reading, and it remains central to her occupation as a kindergarten teacher, and to her involvement in the doctoral program she is a student in.

Self-Concept

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale (Fitts, 1965) identifies five external aspects of self-concept (moral-ethical, social, personal, physical, and family) and three internal aspects (identity, behavior, and self-satisfaction). Several of these aspects can be found within the interviews of Brim and Lara. According to the researcher, self concept or self efficacy is the way a person sees himself/herself. Furthermore, self-efficacy theorists assert that low self-efficacy causes motivational problems; that is, if students believe they cannot succeed on specific tasks, they will superficially attempt them, give up quickly, or avoid or resist them (Margolis and McCabe, 2006). A person's self-concept is foundational to the aspirations of that individual. West and Sweeting (1997) demonstrated the correlation between self-concept and behavior.

Ms. Brim clearly sees herself as unconventional. She referred to herself as "fortunate," "important,t" and "different." In fact, regarding her own success, Brim stated that "If you want to make a difference, you've got to be different." "Ambitious" is another term reflected in Brim's statements: "From there I moved on to another job with more hours because I was very ambitious. What I have learned is you never arrive. It's a journey."

As well as a theme in her stories, Brim's view of herself as situated within the Hispanic culture is revealed in several statements: "I am one generation removed from the "Spanish only" generation. I can make tortillas as good as any of the women in the family." She stated that she was very resourceful. That resourcefulness is revealed in her ability to make her own clothes, become the teacher's pet, and find funding for business ventures.

In her statements regarding childhood poverty, adult cancer, and divorce, Brim revealed recognition of her inner strength. In fact, she said, "I've got lots of bullet holes in me, but I'm still standing." As she discussed her ability to use situations to her advantage, she revealed the perception of herself as smart. She acknowledges herself as a risk-taker in the way she stepped out in the face of much adversity: "I didn't have enough money to buy a used car, let alone an agency." Her philosophy that "No" doesn't hurt, and "every no makes you tough," demonstrates her tenacity, as does her sending her portfolio to 60 or 70 CPA firms, before finding someone to invest in her.

Lara sees herself as a "late bloomer," and in that way, she perceives herself as unconventional. She also sees herself as having followed an often uncommon path for her time. For Lara, this meant that she did not become a mother out of wedlock and was able to continue her education beyond high school.

Unlike Brim, Lara's statements show a high dependence on the perceptions of others. Her ambition is based on the desire to "give back" to her father and to confirm for others that their perception of her ability is correct. She sees herself as being in touch with her Hispanic roots; although she expressed regret that she did not learn Spanish as a child. Although she speaks Spanish now, she admits she would be much more fluent if she had spoken it from childhood.

Lara's concept of herself as resourceful is very strong. She began working two months before she turned 16 in order to purchase her own school clothes, and she bought her first car and paid for her own braces. "Strong" is a word with which Lara identifies. She calls herself a "tough girl." Her concept of her own inner strength is revealed in the way she recounts her dealing with her mother's illness and the social/emotional difficulties of waiting on her peers at the ice cream shop. She doesn't perceive herself as being as smart as she is tenacious. She said, regarding her education, "I knew I was going to have to work really hard, and I did." Lara's battle with the fear of failure has been a big part of her life. She sees herself as being a risk-taker because she, despite her fear, managed to pursue her dreams of a doctorate, currently underway.

Conclusion

Stories enable us to look into the events of one's life and our self-perceptions to find connections with success. In both narratives, the themes of great obstacles and Hispanic identity can be traced. The existence of self-concept is also present within the actual phrases and words. The obstacles and cultural perceptions of these narratives point to the idea that, although the "adobe ceiling" does exist, there are ways to persist for the creative, persistent and courageous Hispanic female. These stories represent the women who have crashed through the "adobe ceiling," and their accomplishments warrant the need to collect stories of success from Hispanic women who have "triumphed over" the difficulties of life.

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Chapter 13

Supporting Success for English Language Learners: Dual Language Education

Frank Lucido

Abstract

Dual language education continues to show promise as a model for educating English language learners. This study describes three case studies of exemplary dual language schools and the best practices that were observed during school visits. The dual language schools were located in Texas, Illinois, and New Mexico. Based on the best practices observed in these schools, recommendations are made for the implementation of effective dual language programs.

Supporting Success for English Language Learners: Dual Language Education

Dual language education continues to hold promise as an effective educational model for educating English language learners (ELLs) and promoting bilingualism in English speakers. As the number of English language learners continues to increase in Texas and throughout the United States, dual language education programs have also continued to increase, thus providing effective models for bilingual education. The Center for Applied Linguistics (2006) reported that there were 329 dual language programs in 29 states plus the District of Columbia. The programs listed meet criteria for dual language (two-way immersion) programs as described in the Center for Applied Linguistics Directory. These include (a) integration: language minority and language majority students are integrated for at least 50% of instructional time at all grade levels; (b) instruction: content and literacy instruction in both languages is provided to all students; and (c) population: with the program, there is a balance of language minority and language majority students, with each group making up between one-third and two-thirds of the total student population.

Two of the basic forms of dual language (two-way immersion) are the 90/10 model and the 50/50 model. In 90/10 programs, 90% of the curriculum in the early elementary grades is taught to both groups of students using the minority language and 10% using English language arts. In the 90/10 model, students spend 90 percent of their kindergarten school days in the non-English minority language, and this percentage gradually decreases to 50 percent by fourth or fifth grade (Garcia & Jensen, 2006). The general rationale behind the 90/10

model is to teach and model the minority language as much as possible because this is the language that needs the most support for bilingual development. In the 50/50 model, English and the other language are both used 50% of the time to teach the curriculum. Different languages are used to teach different subjects in the curriculum. For the English speaker, the school would be the most available opportunity to learn and practice the minority language. The 50/50 model is based on the belief that both languages need to be acquired from the beginning and the best way to do this is to split instructional time between the two languages. Schools may introduce variations of these two models depending on their personnel, resources, priorities, community support, or program goals (Cloud, Genesse, & Hamayan, 2000).

Rationale

Garcia and Jensen (2006) noted that there are three major goals for students in dual language programs:

1. To help children learn English and find success in U. S. schools;
2. To help these children become competent in their own language without sacrificing success in school; and
3. To promote linguistic and ethnic equity among the children, encouraging them to bridge the gaps between cultures and languages. (p. 32)

Dual language education is grounded in language acquisition research. First, the premise is that considerable language learning can be acquired naturally during non-language arts classes, such as mathematics, science, or social studies. This process, Genesse (1984) contends, is similar to first language acquisition in which children communicate with each other about issues that are not related to language (as cited in Lindholm-Leary, 2001). Second, Genesse (1987) asserts that learners can progress in second language development according to their own rate and style, again in much the same as first-language learners (as cited in Lindholm-Leary, 2001). Third, based on research regarding language learning and age, Genesse asserts (1984) that early immersion in a second language can facilitate a child's second language learning by taking advantage of his/her special neurolinguistic, psycholinguistic, and cognitive capacities to learn language (as cited in Lindholm-Leary, 2001). Collier (1989) and Genesse (as cited in Garcia & Jensen, 2006) assert that research further indicates that academic knowledge and skills acquired through one language pave the way for acquisition of related knowledge and skills in another language. Fourth, language input to the students is adjusted to their conceptual and linguistic level, using comprehensible input to facilitate language comprehension and acquisition. Lastly, the two languages are kept separate and never mixed during instruction in the early years of language acquisition (Lindholm-Leary, 2001).

Review of Literature

Dual language programs are committed to providing students with an enriched education program in two languages. Part of the educational requirements of No Child Left Behind is Annual Yearly Progress based on state criterion referenced tests or standardized tests. Many dual language programs are found in schools with low socioeconomic status, or in schools in which 80 to 95% of the students qualify for free and/or reduced lunch. Schools with high percentages of students qualifying as English language learners actually credit the implementation of their dual language programs with helping to achieve Annual Yearly Progress (Kriteman, 2006). With the emphasis on high academic achievement in two languages, dual language education acknowledges and encourages the knowledge and skills the students bring to the classroom by building on prior knowledge and experiences. Two-way bilingual programs, or dual language programs, provide reading instruction in the native language and in English both to English language learners and to English speakers (Calderon & Minaya-Rowe, 2003; Howard, Sugarman, & Christian, 2003). The programs try to enroll half language minority students and half native English speaking students in each classroom, thus promoting cross cultural awareness (Garcia & Jensen, 2006). The instructional strategies used by dual language teachers take advantage of both the majority and minority language speakers serving as the language models throughout the school day. Students feel empowered and capable of meeting the teacher's high academic expectations (Kriteman, 2006).

Research by Collier and Thomas (2004) focused on 11th grade results from nationally standardized tests on the total reading subtest (measuring academic problem solving across the curriculum, including math, science, social studies, & literature). The study, of students who entered a U.S. school district in kindergarten through first grade with no proficiency in English, found the following:

Program	Research Findings from Thomas and Collier (2004) Level of Student Achievement
No Program- Program Refusal By Parent	English language learners whose parents refuse bilingual/ESL services show large decreases in reading and math achievement by Grade 5. Cross sectional findings indicate that the largest number of dropouts come from this group, and those remaining finish school near the 12th percentile (25th NCE) on the standardized reading test (from their 1996-2002 analyses).

ESL Pullout Program	Typical end of school achievement for graduates of ESL pullout (2-3 yrs.) is 11th percentile (24th NCE)-highest is 18th percentile (31st NCE); and its dropout rate is highest among the programs (from the1991-1996 analyses).
Transitional Bilingual Ed. Program as an isolated program in a school.	Students in transitional bilingual education programs (TBE) in a segregated classroom within a school for 2-3 yrs, reached the 24th percentile (35th NCE).
Transitional Bilingual Ed. Program integrated with native English speakers for half day instruction 3-4 year olds.	English language learners in transitional bilingual education (TBE) for 3-4 yrs, integrated with native English speakers for half-day instruction in English, reaches the 32nd percentile (40th NCE) (from the 1991-1996 analyses).
Enrichment 90/10 and 50/50 One-Way and Two-way dual language education programs	Enrichment 90/10 and 50/50 one-way and two-way dual language education programs (or developmental bilingual, bilingual immersion) are the only programs that were found (to date) that assist students to fully reach the 50th percentile in both L1 and L2 in all subjects and to maintain that level of high achievement or reach even higher through the end of schooling. The fewest dropouts come from these programs (one-way – one language group receiving schooling through two languages; and two way groups receiving integrated schooling through two languages). (50/50-half the time is taught in each language; 90/10 early grades 90 percent instruction in minority language, gradually moving toward 50/50 by grade 5).

(Thomas & Collier, 2004, pp. 1-2)

The vision of bilingualism and multiculturalism for a dual language program necessitates the concept of additive bilingualism, that is, all the students are provided the opportunity to acquire a second language at no cost to their home language (Cloud et al, 2000). Additive bilingual programs such as dual language are associated with content area achievement, and with building proficiency in the second language and the home language (Lindholm-Leary,

2001; Ramirez, 1992; & Collier & Thomas, 2004). These programs are also associated with improved self esteem and cross-cultural attitudes (Cazabon, Nicoladis, & Lambert, 1998; Kirk-Senesac, 2002; Lindholm, 1994; Lindholm-Leary, 2000; Lindholm-Leary & Borsato, 2001; Lindholm-Leary & Borsato, in press).

There are many research studies that have shown dual language programs to be an effective model of instruction for both language minority and language majority students. A longitudinal study of 484 students in 11 Spanish/English two-way dual language programs across the United States found that students in the study demonstrated impressive levels of performance on oral language, reading, and writing measures in English (Christian, Genesee & Lindholm-Leary 2004). One hundred percent of Spanish dominant children in the Key School, a 50/50 dual language school in Arlington County, Virginia, demonstrated oral English fluency by third grade, as shown on the LAS-O Oral English Proficiency measure and classroom observations (Christian, 1997). In a study of four dual language California schools following the 90/10 program model, Lindholm (1999) found that by the fifth grade, students were clearly fluent in English and made gains in English reading at most school sites; however, they did not attain grade-level performance in reading. Research has continued to show that dual language education is a viable model of instruction for bilingual education.

Methodology

This case study research was conducted through the use of surveys, observations, and interviews at three dual language campuses: one in the El Paso, Texas, area; one in Chicago, Illinois; and the third in Albuquerque, New Mexico. The schools were identified as dual language schools which were implementing effective dual language programs based on their exceeding standards on state or national accountability tests. A research team of two university professors, two elementary school principals, and two dual language teachers visited the schools, conducted the interviews with the administrators and teachers, and observed classroom instruction. During the campus visits, questionnaires were distributed and collected on site. Interview protocols with the administrators and teachers, the teacher survey questionnaires, and the classroom observation instruments were created before the campus visits. Data was triangulated from four administrator interviews, 40 teacher interviews, 20 teacher questionnaires, and over 60 classroom observations. The data was then tallied and analyzed. Themes related to the four research questions were then determined.

The research questions addressed were:

1. What are the instructional practices in effective dual language schools?
2. What are the characteristics of the teachers in effective dual language schools?
3. What are the characteristics of the administrators in effective dual language schools?

4. What are the implementation practices that are in place to ensure success in dual language schools?

Case Studies of Schools Visited

Alicia Chacón International—Ysleta Independent School District

Alicia R. Chacón is a school-wide kindergarten through eighth grade two-way bilingual program located in the Ysleta Independent School District, near El Paso, Texas. The uniqueness of the Alicia Chacón program is that it adds a third language to the curriculum for all children. Children choose from Japanese, Russian, Chinese, or German as a third language to develop in the school. The school was established in 1995 as a magnet school and has representation from all areas of El Paso.

Ysleta School District describes the characteristics of the Alicia Chacón 90/10 two-way dual language immersion program as follows:

> The program supports an additive bilingual environment that has full support of school administrators, teachers, and parents. Parents and students are encouraged to make a six-year commitment to the program. English only speakers enter only at the kindergarten level or first grade. Both English and Spanish speakers are instructed together. There is no translation or repeated lessons in the minority or majority language. Separation of the two languages is a key component of the program. Quality language arts instruction is offered in both languages. (Ysleta ISD, 2004, pp. 7-8)

The goals of the program at Alicia Chacón are to develop (a) a high level of proficiency in understanding, speaking, reading, and writing in both English and Spanish, (b) a positive attitude toward those who speak another language and toward their culture, and (c) student's linguistic and academic proficiency at or above grade level in both languages.

At Alicia Chacón Elementary, all students learn to read in Spanish first. English literacy is introduced in the third grade. Language learning is accelerated by a 50/50 student mix in the classrooms. There are high expectations and a focus on the core academic curriculum rather than a watered-down version. At the school there is an active parent-school partnership.

Ten distinct practices emerged as the classrooms were visited at Alicia Chacón. The research team observed (a) words walls for the development of vocabulary; (b) the use of graphic organizers; (c) environmental print in the classrooms; (d) group projects in science, reading, and social studies displayed throughout the school; (e) a positive and caring atmosphere in the classroom; (f) higher order questioning strategies used by the teachers; (g) small group instruction as well as teacher directed large group instruction; (h) role-playing activities for oral language development; (i) learning centers in the early elementary grades; and (j) many literacy activities with students' work displayed in the classroom.

Interviews with the administrator and teachers attributed the effectiveness and success of the program at Alicia Chacón to several characteristics. These included (a) a demonstrated commitment of the students, (b) parental support for the program, (c) stability of the teaching staff, (d) collaboration between the staff members, (e) project-based instruction, and (f) hands-on instruction in math and science. The effectiveness and success of the program was also attributed to characteristics such as (g) the integration of technology into the curriculum, (h) availability of materials for program implementation, (i) a belief system that supports bilingualism, (j) teachers' assessment and continuous monitoring of language development, (k) a balanced literacy approach to literacy development in both languages, (l) emphasis on writing across the curriculum, and (m) strong professional development emphasis focused on second language learning.

Alicia Chacón continues to do very well on state accountability measures. The school has earned at least a "recognized" rating in the Texas School Accountability System since 1996. The school is committed to the success of its dual language program.

Inter-American Magnet School—Chicago Independent School District

The Inter-American Magnet School is a public school located in Chicago, Illinois which is committed to promoting bilingualism in all children. Since it is a magnet school, students from throughout Chicago travel there. The administration, teachers, parents, and students are dedicated to teaching and learning in two languages. All stakeholders value bilingualism and multiculturalism. From pre-kindergarten through eighth grade, English-dominant and Spanish-dominant students learn together in classrooms. Students are selected by lottery from racial/ethnic categories, and gender is also considered (Urow & Sontag, 2001).

The two-way program begins in pre-kindergarten with students receiving instruction 80% of the school day in Spanish and 20% in English. In fifth and sixth grades, the language distribution is 60% Spanish and 40% English. In seventh and eighth grades, there is a 50/50 percent language distribution. Parents are informed of the program's implementation and sign a contract signifying that they understand and agree with the dual language philosophy of the school.

The school curriculum centers on the study of the Americas. The goal of the program is to provide a different historical perspective that will enable the children to be discriminating learners with a broad base of cultural understanding. Curriculum documents indicated that in pre-school the students learn about themselves. The child learns who he/she is, where they are from, and how they relate to their environment.

In kindergarten, the curriculum centers on families around the world. The children study the concept of family and are exposed to different lifestyles and diverse celebrations of families around the world. The first grade curriculum focuses on the Native Americans. Children study science topics integrated into the study of Native American cultures.

Second graders concentrate on Central America and the Caribbean. The students study the cultures of these areas with a focus on the islands of Cuba and Puerto Rico. Children are also introduced to African American history and how slaves were brought from Africa to the Caribbean.

In the third grade year, the Incas are the focus of the students' study. The study covers the history and culture of this civilization and students explore the contributions of this South American empire.

Fourth grade students study the Mayas. The Mayan civilization is studied by integrating social studies, language arts, math, and science concepts as a unit. As part of their study, the students build a rain forest in the classroom.

The fifth grade studies the Aztecs. Students study the history of the Aztec civilization and the encounters between the Spaniards and indigenous peoples. Students also explore the American pioneer era, and the history of immigrants to the U. S.

During their sixth grade year, students survey the history of Latin America, Asia, and Africa. Students explore the historical and contemporary connections between these areas and the United States. Themes of social justice are also examined.

In the seventh grade, the thematic focus is the early history of the United States. Students explore themes and topics such as American Native American civilizations, the American Revolution, and the Industrial Revolution. A competency test on the U.S. Constitution is also taken in this grade.

The eighth grade focus includes modern United States history. Students explore themes from the Civil War through the twentieth century. Contemporary issues such as Latinos in the U.S. are also studied. Students also take the Illinois Constitution competency test.

In interviews with the administrator and the teachers, the research team found that some of the major contributors to the schools' success included (a) parental support and involvement, (b) a collaborative spirit hard of working teachers, (c) a study of the Americas in the social studies, (d) dual language philosophy embraced by all stakeholders, and (e) professional development provided at the school and participation in dual language conferences. Contributors to the school's success also included (f) cooperative grouping for instruction, (g) sheltered instructional strategies, (h) projects-based learning, (i) thematic-based curriculum and instruction, and (j) acceptance of language differences. Other contributions included (k) the availability of materials and resources, (l) technology integrated into the instruction, (m) teachers' assessment of language development on a regular basis, (n) administrative support for the teachers and dual language program, and (o) structural provisions for shared planning and meeting.

The Inter-American Magnet School, the oldest two-way immersion school in the Midwest region of the United States, continues to provide a quality education for English language learners. Students perform well on state assessments and norm referenced tests. The school serves as a model for dual

language program implementation serving the academic and linguistic educational needs of its diverse population.

East San José Elementary School—Albuquerque Public Schools

East San José Elementary School is located in Albuquerque, New Mexico. San José had an enrollment of 525 students in grades pre-kindergarten through fifth grade. The school brochure states the benefits of a dual language education. Dual language education programs have three core goals; namely, "bilingualism and bi-literacy," "high academic achievement," and "cross cultural knowledge and awareness." (East San Jose School, 2007, p. 1).

The dual language program at East San José is one of the leading bilingual programs in the state. The program delivers instruction to develop bilingualism and bi-literacy skills in English and Spanish. Language learning is integrated into all curricular areas. In addition, the school has a traditional bilingual education program in which the bilingual resource teacher delivers daily Spanish lessons that teach functional vocabulary and academic content. The rest of the instructional day is taught in English in the traditional program.

The school is also a science magnet school that focuses on environmental science and ecology. The program gives children the opportunity to develop an awareness and knowledge of the world through science class, community service, and culture-based projects created by the students and the community. Students were observed participating in many environmental hands-on activities and projects communicating in both English and Spanish. Projects include worm beds, a greenhouse, a pond ecosystem, a "forest" model and what is called the *East Side Gardens*. *Gardeners of the Heart* are a group of students who work on extracurricular science projects as part of the environmental science program.

Students are supported in their science investigations with technology available throughout the school. There are computers in every classroom, and there is also a 25-station MAC computer lab. Students create PowerPoint presentations, conduct research on the Internet, participate in video conferencing, and publish their writing and their projects.

Another of the major focuses of the school centers on the performing arts. Many of the students are involved in two Mariachi groups, the *Ritmo Latino* dance group, a jump rope team, a school chorus, and a drill team. Students also participate in the National Dance Institute.

The language arts curriculum at East San José Elementary centers on balanced literacy using the "Four Blocks Literacy Framework." The Four Blocks framework for language arts includes: guided reading, self-selected reading, writing, and working with words. The dual language program begins with a 90/10 (Spanish/English) language distribution in kindergarten and first grade; 80/20 in second grade; 70/30 in third grade, 60/40 in fourth grade, and 50/50 in fifth grade. The program provides many opportunities for the children to read and write in both Spanish and English. There is also a family literacy program that provides parent-child workshops in reading.

The school also has a comprehensive math curriculum. The foundation of the comprehensive math curriculum is an investigative program, which involves the students in hands-on, inquiry-based mathematics. There is a balance between the development of mathematical concepts and their application with practice and mastery of the basic math operations and facts.

According to the surveys, as well as the interviews with the administrator and teachers, the success of the schools was attributed to the (a) Four Blocks literacy program and Balanced literacy approach to language development; (b) the Six Traits writing program with rubrics for writing; (c) project-based instruction in science and social studies; (d) hands-on activities in the classrooms; (e) large and small group instruction; and (f) positive classroom climates. In addition, the school's success was attributed to the use of (g) environmental science projects; (h) after-school activities such as the Mariachi groups and folkloric groups; (i) teachers wanting to be in the program; (j) teachers' belief in children as language learners; (k) vertical and horizontal team planning and curriculum alignment; (l) the hiring of instructional coaches that have helped in the classrooms; (m) technology integrated into the curriculum; (n) strong parental involvement in the school; and (o) the monitoring and assessment of language development on a regular basis.

East San José continues to help its population of English language learners. Through strong collaboration between the administrator, the teachers, parents, and the students, East San José has become a model dual language program in New Mexico.

Conclusions

Data was analyzed based on the responses from the administrators and teacher interviews, teacher surveys, and classroom observations to answer the four research questions being addressed by the study. The following were the effective instructional practices that were observed in the three dual language schools that were visited. As observed, the instructional practices included:

1. Grouping for instruction based on language development.
2. Cooperative learning groups for instruction.
3. A focus on literacy development in English and Spanish.
4. A balanced literacy approach to literacy development.
5. Thematic instruction (a major emphasis at all three schools).
6. Project-based instruction in all the schools.
7. Hands-on learning in math, science, and social studies.
8. Teachers staying "in the language;" they do not translate between the two languages being used in the program.

Good instruction takes on a more complicated role in dual language programs since two languages are involved in developing bilingualism and bi-literacy. As cited in Lindholm-Leary (2005), Berman, Minicucci, McLaughlin, Nelson and Woodworth; Doherty, Hilberg, Pinal, and Tharp; Sloan; Echevarria, Short and Powers; and Montecel and Cortez agree that it is very important to use a variety of techniques that respond to different learning styles and language

proficiency levels. When teachers use positive social and instructional interactions equitably with both ELL's and proficient English speakers, both groups perform better academically according to the California State Department of Education; and Doherty, Hilberg, Pinal & Tharp (as cited in Lindholm-Leary, 2005).

As observed, the characteristics of the teachers in the three effective dual language schools included:

1. A belief in children as language learners.
2. Involvement in both horizontal and vertical curriculum planning.
3. A spirit of cooperation and collaboration.
4. Attendance at professional development provided by the school on a regular basis.
5. Use of a variety of methods and strategies in the classroom.
6. Exemplified hard work to make the programs work.
7. A high level of Spanish language development in order to teach Spanish proficiency in the upper grades.
8. A perceived empowerment (by their administrators) to make instructional decisions that affect children's learning.

Thomas and Collier's (2004) research verifies the findings of this study: Teachers express excitement once they have made it through the initial years of planning and implementing enrichment dual language programs; they love teaching now and would never leave their jobs. They feel they have lots of support once the staff development and teacher planning time is in place for this innovation. Teachers can see the difference in their students' responsiveness and engagement in lessons. Behavior problems lessen because students feel valued and respected as equal partners in the learning process (p. 11).

The characteristics of the administrators in the three dual language schools included:

1. A belief in children as language learners.
2. A collaborative administrative style that empowers teachers to make appropriate instructional decisions.
3. A knowledge and understanding of second language acquisition research and belief in the philosophy of dual language programs.
4. An ability to provide the educational resources for implementation of the dual language program.
5. An ability to ensure teachers had time for horizontal and vertical planning.
6. An ability to provide for faculty attendance of professional development opportunities on a regular basis.
7. The monitoring of student academic and linguistic progress in both languages on a regular basis.
8. Communication with the parents and community about the benefits of the dual language program.
9. The ability to provide for adequate program staffing.

Collier and Thomas (2004) further found that administrators of dual language schools talk about the planning time needed and about the complications of program implementation. However, they add that they love their jobs and are committed to making dual language work for the benefit of the students and the community. The research of Collier and Thomas also found that the first years of implementation are not easy. A principal's commitment to and vision of implementing a successful dual language program relies on adhering to the decision to implement a full enrichment model that enhances student success.

In order to ensure success in dual language education, the following practices were instituted at the schools:

1. Programs were started in the early grades.
2. Programs were implemented one grade at a time.
3. Teachers and staff were hired that wanted to teach in a dual language school.
4. Collaboration with all of the stakeholders was emphasized so that stakeholders know their responsibilities in the program implementation.
5. Research and theory of dual language education were studied and learned.
6. Parent information meetings were held on a regular basis.
7. Parents were given an orientation session before children were allowed to enroll.
8. Parents signed a participation contract.
9. A strong professional development component was provided for all teachers and staff.
10. Time was allowed during the school day for vertical and horizontal team planning.

Research continues to demonstrate that dual language education is a positive instructional model for English language learners. Dual language education provides an enriched education model for all students instead of a deficit or remedial education that has been the perception given by earlier bilingual education models. As the population continues to diversify and the English language learner population increases, school districts should consider implementing dual language education in every school as a strand in the elementary schools. In a school that has five first grade classes, two of the classrooms could be dual language, one classroom could support a transitional bilingual education classroom, and the other two classrooms could be English only classrooms. This configuration of programs would afford all children and parents the opportunity to become bilingual and bi-literate from an early age. The children entering kindergarten classrooms this year will graduate in the year 2019. Are we preparing our children to be economically, socially, and linguistically viable in our "shrinking" world?

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Chapter 14

Grouping Strategies for English Literacy Development of Bilingual Children

Matilde A. Sarmiento-Arribalzaga

Abstract

The challenges facing bilingual students are well documented in the literature of literacy acquisition in an additional language (Blackledge, 2000). We are faced with a paradox in which the research literature suggests that being bilingual is advantageous, and yet many bilingual learners fail to reach their true potential. A primary goal for bilingual students is to acquire the second language for learning literacy skills and academic content, as well as for developing proficiency in that language. Effective interaction and communication between students is essential to accomplishing this goal. Cooperative learning is a highly effective instructional practice for these students because it allows them to work collaboratively, engage in meaningful experiences with language and content, and receive more individualized instruction and support from the teacher.

Grouping strategies for English literacy development of bilingual children

The field of education is saturated with studies documenting the poor performance and achievement deficits of Mexican-American children throughout their school years (Fitzgerald, 1999; Jimenez & Gersten, 1999). ELLs (English language learners) are known to be at higher risk of school failure than their peers. Risk starts early, and the achievement lag of these children often widens with age and progression in the educational system (Mora & Grisham, 2001). ELLs are often from lower socioeconomic background and disadvantaged status in the community and school setting. These disadvantages, along with the lack of uniformity in bilingual programs and ambiguity and diversity of educational goals, often predispose ELLS to the risk of academic failure (Reyes, 1992; Paratore, Melzi & Krol-Sinclair, 1999).

Children who come to our schools without the appropriate linguistic, cognitive, and social skills deemed necessary for academic success are considered at risk for failure by many educators. Often, the educational focus centers on students' perceived deficits, cultural or otherwise (Mora & Grisham, 2001). This deficit perspective ignores both the cognitive and linguistic schema already in place in these children that form the basis for academic learning in schools (MacSwan, 2000; Rodriguez-Brown, Li, & Albom, 1999).

Recognizing the social nature of literacy is important, even from the beginning of an ELL's schooling experience. The language arts curriculum is

inextricably tied to social relationships, cultural backgrounds, and life events. Considering the effect of social interaction in a language arts classroom illuminates the complexity of literacy and learning (Delpit, 1995; Meloth & Deering, 1999; Abedi, 2001).

The "deficit" hypothesis and literacy development

The "deficit" hypothesis has a negative connotation of becoming and being bilingual in several ways. The hypothesis proposes that learners who speak limited English and are emergent bilinguals from linguistic minority backgrounds bring little or nothing to classroom learning about literacy. These learners are perceived as substantially disadvantaged not only linguistically but also in terms of appropriate and relevant experiences, and the school and classroom are perceived as having to provide these experiences (Lee, 2002). Further, the "deficit" hypothesis may also extend to include the language and literacy environment of the home, where parents are perceived as being "illiterate" and not providing, or not being able to provide, literacy experiences for their children (Ravitch, 2000).

The leading problem encountered by Hispanic parents is that they are frequently unaware of essential practices that can help their children develop academic skills (see Table 1 for additional resources for parents). They may be confused about what the school expects from their children and feel uncertain about how to help their children. Recent studies address the effects of cultural differences, parents' lack of self-esteem, and a host of misconceptions about their children's academic development (Hughes, Schumm, and Vaughn, 1999; Paratore et al., 1999). According to Snow, Barnes, Chandler, Goodman, and Hemphill (1991), even children from nurturing home literacy environments have been found to do poorly in reading if school practices are inadequate.

Hyslop (2000) found that in all the Latino families studied, the practice of family literacy was an important and integral part of family life. The researcher concluded that "...looking to family literacy interventions as the primary solution to the problems of school failure for many Latino children is to dismiss the complexity of challenges they face both inside and outside of school" (para. 10).

ELLs can succeed in the classroom if teachers look beyond the labels assigned to such children, instead seeking to understand the varying ways in which children use language, and include these ways of knowing as integral patterns of interaction in the classroom. Teachers who are effective with ELLs recognize the long-term nature of second language acquisition, particularly literacy development (Romo, 1999).

Table 1 Studies About Hispanic Parents and Family Literacy

Home Literacy Activities: Perceptions and Practices of Hispanic Parents of Children with Learning Disabilities (Hughes et al., 1999) investigated Hispanic parents' perceptions and practices with respect to home reading activities.

Parents in this study reported using a wide variety of reading activities on a regular basis but experienced frustration in helping their children at home.

Involving Hispanic Parents in Improving Educational Opportunities for Their Children (Sosa, 1996) discusses logistical barriers such as time, money, safety, and child care; attitudinal barriers such as disagreements, dissatisfaction, and communication problems; and expectations barriers as forces that hinder involvement of migrant/immigrant parents. This study provides alternative ways to involve these parents, as well as strategies to cultivate more successful experiences.

An Examination of Hispanic Parent Involvement in Early Childhood Programs (Kelty, 1997) developed a bilingual survey to register the feelings of parents toward involvement in their children's preschool and kindergarten and to determine the unique needs of parents during interactions with the schools. The survey was tested with 50 parents, and the results were tabulated to determine differences between the feelings of Hispanic and non-Hispanic parents.

Latina Mothers' Involvement in their Children's Schooling: The Role of Maternal Education and Acculturation (Moreno & Lopez, 1999) investigated the influence of language proficiency and family socio-economic status on Latina mothers' involvement in their children's schooling. This study specifically investigated the influence of sociocultural factors on (a) personal and psychological factors, (b) contextual factors, and (c) levels of involvement.

The "traditional" bilingual classroom

A primary goal for bilingual students is to acquire the second language for learning literacy skills and academic content, as well as for developing proficiency in that language. Effective interaction and communication between students is essential to be able to accomplish this goal. Cooperative learning is a highly effective instructional practice for these students because it allows them to work collaboratively, engage in meaningful experiences with language and content, and receive more individualized instruction / support from the teacher. What is occurring far too often in the bilingual classroom is that students are taught without acknowledgement or understanding of their academic language knowledge levels.

A primary need of bilingual teachers is methods of assessing and evaluating students' acquisition of language, both oral and written. These data yield valuable information for informing day-to-day instruction decisions and identifying students who need additional support. ELLs move through a series of predictable stages as they progress in their language development toward native-like fluency in English. ELLs are characterized by predictable phases, beginning with a silent period, or preproduction stage, when they are busy listening to and assimilating the sounds and structures of English. Other

features characterize progress through the stages of early production, speech emergence, and intermediate and advanced fluency. Though the stages of language acquisition themselves are predictable, individual language acquisition varies as students develop at their own pace (Mora, 2001b).

Many times the curriculum and teaching practices are such that students are not able to approach tasks according to their language knowledge levels. The students rarely or never work in collaborative small groups that are teacher- or student-led. This type of classroom does not reflect or promote the important role that social interaction and collaborative learning play in the classroom (Baloche, 1998).

The print-rich environment

ELLs need to be immersed in a print-rich environment that facilitates literacy activities and development. There is general agreement that a rich literate environment is fundamental for literacy development. This environment allows bilingual children many opportunities to be read to, to read with others, and to read by themselves materials that have content that is relevant to their lives and language that is predictable and familiar. Children are encouraged to explore print through their reading and writing. When children have these opportunities to write their own stories, to read their own and others' stories, and to write in response to reading, they are able to employ much of their knowledge of reading in meaningful ways (Chapman, 1995; Barrentine, 1996; Sipe, 2000).

The print-rich environment must include a large library stocked with titles in English and Spanish at varying levels of difficulty, both fiction and nonfiction; bulletin boards that reflect classroom, local community, and worldwide events; various writing centers; graphic organizers of formats and contexts; as well as ongoing pictorial word walls that list pertinent vocabulary and language structures from themes being covered in class. All of these become resources for students to access as they construct new meaning and map these new meanings onto their existing cognitive frameworks (Sipe, 2000; Fitzgerald, 1999; Mora, 2001a).

A print-rich environment offers a wealth of opportunities for students to make use of print and practice literacy habits and skills. The arrangement of the classroom is often viewed as a backdrop for teaching and learning; with careful attention and preparation, one can create a classroom environment that meaningfully supports an instructional program and student learning (Mora, 2001b; Mora & Grisham, 2001). Print-rich classrooms are filled with visually prominent "functional" print. There is a difference between displaying charts that serve a purpose and those that serve to decorate the classroom. Charts that could be displayed in English and Spanish include those containing: days of the week, months of the year, color charts- with pictures and names of different colors, alphabet and number charts, a daily schedule, a list of classroom helpers, classroom rules, a morning message, student attendance, rhyming words, word families, important vocabulary for a specific content area; and sight words. Displays could also contain stories written by students, written student responses

to open-ended questions about a story they have read, independent student writing incorporating concepts from other content areas (e.g., science, social studies, math), and worksheets that require students to include meaningful written contributions.

Bilingual teachers' teaching style

The transition between oral and written language needs to be seamless. A bilingual classroom should have teachers who can describe their teaching style as dialogic (Dyson, 1993a)—encouraging student responses, which can then become a fundamental focus of a bilingual education curriculum. A bilingual teacher needs to build on the children's home literacy experiences, interests, and questions throughout their learning experiences. This is important because the development of literacy is a social process that is embedded in the child's relationship with others such as parents, siblings, grandparents, and friends. These people have served as models and shaped the child's literate behavior regardless of their income level. Although low-income parents can be limited in the literacy experiences they can provide for their child, such as traveling or buying things, these children live in a literate society, and they are inevitably exposed to a considerable amount of print in their homes and neighborhoods.

The decision to adopt the dialogic teaching style is an important step in the process of converting our bilingual classrooms into learning communities. Bilingual education teachers should be inspired by the promise of a new horizon in the knowledgeable society in which "no child is left behind" as a result of ethnic, cultural, or socio-economic background. Teaching on the basis of equality and dialogue—or the principles set out by dialogic learning—is a way to ensure more learning for all children (Dyson, 1993b).

The aims of dialogic teaching and learning include high expectations for every child, high educational quality, and high educational results. The learning processes created help to overcome current barriers in the education system, improving school performance and avoiding children's exclusion from the education system. Researchers have found that bilingual students participate in more literacy activities than have been perceived in mainstream educational settings (Delgado-Gaitan, 1992, Farr, 1994), especially when the definition of literacy is extended to include functional literacy tasks and took into account the informal social network that promotes such tasks. Moll (1992) has advocated an understanding of this social network, termed "funds of knowledge," as a method of enhancing teachers' understanding of their bilingual students.

Types of grouping

The classroom environment has to invite cooperation and sharing among students who are motivated and engaged by being exposed to a curriculum that is relevant and authentic. Throughout a school day, students in a bilingual classroom setting must be able to work in a variety of flexible grouping configurations—small groups, partners, individually, or whole groups (see Table 2). The breakdown of small group, individual, and whole group learning is not

based on a predetermined prescribed curriculum; it is based on the needs and interests of the students (Chapman, 1995). Groups should engage learners emotionally and teach language specifically.

Table 2
Flexible Grouping for Instruction

TYPES OF GROUPINGS	PRIMARY USES
Whole-class meetings	Community-building, planning, introducing new concepts or skills, reading/writing/thinking strategies, closure
Teacher-led small groups	Common need, guided practice, task-focused help, sharing reading, and writing assessment
Student-led small groups	Supported practice, shared tasks, collaborative responses, common interest, shared reading and writing
Partners (dyads)	Supported practice, mentoring, tutoring, shared tasks
Individual	One-on-one instruction, individual assessment, independent practice, individual response

Source: Chapman (1995).

Tabors (1997) emphasizes that environments designed to help young language learners feel competent also facilitate second language learning. An effective approach is to create a strong classroom culture that changes students' beliefs and behaviors, thereby convincing them to engage with their peers. The following are some ways in which educators can create such a classroom culture. Schedules need a balance of active and quiet, small-group and large-group, teacher-directed and child-directed activities. Tabors (1997) notes that in an all-English environment, young ELLs with less English proficiency often gravitate to activities that do not require interactions with others. These "safe-heavens" provide a comfortable base from which young children can venture into other classroom activities. While such areas may be helpful to ELLs, it is equally important that there be areas that encourage increased interaction between peers. There is substantial evidence that students working together in small cooperative groups can master material presented by the teacher better

than students working on their own (Chapman, 1995; Meloth & Deering, 1999; Mora, 2001a).

Bilingual teachers need to explore and discover for themselves that informally grouping and regrouping students in a variety of ways throughout the school day can make their job easier, and students more productive. Known as flexible grouping, this practice allows teachers to employ several organizational patterns for instruction. Students are grouped and regrouped according to specific goals, activities, and individual needs. When making grouping decisions, the dynamics and advantages inherent in each type of group must be considered. Both teacher-led and student-led groups can contribute tremendously to learning; but with bilingual education students in the process of literacy development, a third type of group—performance-based (Mora, 2001a; Kagan, 1994; Webb & Palincsar,1996) —is equally beneficial.

Performance-Based Groups

Sometimes groups of students with similar needs might benefit from additional support in the completion of a task. Unlike traditional ability groups, performance-based groups are formed for a short time and respond to the dynamic nature of learning. Performance-based groups are most effective when formed on the basis of a particular need, rather than in response to predetermined performance levels. Performance-based groups provide a means for increasing students' access to a particular concept or skill. Suitable strategies for these groups include introducing language, using concrete models, playing a concept game for skill practice, or practicing strategies (Airasian, 1991).

Teacher-Led Groups

Teacher-led groups are the most common grouping design used in classrooms today. They include whole-class, small group, and individual instruction. Teacher-led groups are an effective and efficient way of introducing material, summing up the conclusions made by individual groups, meeting the common needs of a large or small group, and providing individual attention or instruction. Whole-class instruction is also used to introduce new materials and strategies to the entire class. Working with the whole class to introduce new concepts can build common experiences and provide a shared basis for further exploration, problem solving, and skill development. Whole-class instruction with bilingual children also can help in the identification of students' prior knowledge and experiences that will affect new knowledge and language acquisition (Kagan, 1994).

Student-Led Groups

Student-led groups can take many forms, but they all share a common feature, which is students controlling the group dynamics and maintaining a voice in setting the agenda for the group to follow. Student-led groups provide opportunities for divergent thinking and encourage students to take

responsibility for their own learning. ELLs in groups learn to work with peers from varying linguistic backgrounds and with different experiences, sharpening social skills and developing a sense of confidence in their own abilities (Kagan, 1994).

Putting it all together

The following is a glimpse inside a non-traditional constructivist classroom for bilingual education students in kindergarten. Ms. Estrada's classroom has just concluded reading *Too Many Tamales* by Gary Soto. After the reading is finished, the connection between story reading and journal writing is not forced or mandated, but expected from all students. Some children begin to use their reading experience as material for their writing, while other students choose to focus on stories of their lives as they write and draw their thoughts. In this classroom, after the children participate in the read-aloud, they move from the reading area, where they have been sitting on a carpet in front of the teacher's chair, to the writing area, where they sit on chairs at tables. Their journals are in front of them, along with crayons, markers, and pencils. Around the room, there are a variety of different forms of print, including a word wall, alphabet chart, chalkboard with morning message, and bookshelves with the titles at a child's eye level. Students' composing processes are creative, messy, collaborative, and talkative; the room buzzes with voices and movement.

Ms. Estrada created an environment that allows for social exchanges and collaboration during language arts instruction. Rather than requiring journal writing to be a quiet process where students sit in their assigned seats, this teacher recognizes the importance of collaboration in learning. Therefore, students are encouraged to talk as they write and move to different locations around the room. Unlike many traditional bilingual classrooms, journal writing is not treated as a quiet time for children to write their thoughts independently. The teacher is able to integrate and value many different forms of literacy in such a way that the classroom becomes an
active environment in which second language learners thrive.

Students move to work together, copy letters from their surroundings, and find a good spot to sit and work. After the children have drawn pictures and written their own words or letters, the teacher works with individual students to talk about their journals and listen as they dictate their stories. The journals capture and reflect ideas from the stories students read and from their discussions with peers in class. Furthermore, journals capture the progression of the students' writing. A student's journal in this type of classroom reflects more than individual literacy development; it shows the merging of ideas from classmates as they talk and interact. On an individual level, students develop an understanding of words and stories. On a classroom level, students collectively develop a culture of response, which is a way the whole class interacts to learn and develop literacy (see Table 3–Literacy Classroom Schedule).

Table 3
Literacy Classroom Schedule for Bilingual Students

Monday (Day 1)

Whole class - the teacher will read *Too Many Tamales* by Gary Soto to the class, and key vocabulary will be identified and defined. Students will watch a film about corn production and consumption, after which the class discusses the content of the film and their experiences with corn.

Bilingual Pairs - students select corn stories to read.

Whole class- teacher and students brainstorm questions to guide and direct the rest of their study on corn.

Tuesday-Wednesday (Days 2 & 3)

Small groups - students that require more assistance with literacy tasks meet with the teacher to retell the story *Too Many Tamales*, in their own words and to begin writing their own corn/tamales stories.

Individuals/pairs -students guided by a list of questions selected from the previous day's brainstorming activity, read textbooks or other nonfiction books and agricultural magazines, visit internet sites that were previously bookmarked by the teacher, or view other videos available on corn to gather more information and prepare oral or written reports on corn.

Cooperative groups - 2-3 groups of students each work on an analysis of the literary elements (characterization, plot, setting, etc.) of *Too Many Tamales*, then combine their work to develop a chart to present to the class. After getting the first group started, the teacher divides her attention between the groups. She poses questions and answers questions.

Thursday (Day 4)

Whole class - class meets together to report on their progress and to review and synthesize what they have been learning from various sources. Preliminary charts will be presented, and students are expected to explain how they are organizing them and why.

The dialogic teaching and learning style in this classroom creates many opportunities for children to interact with one another to make sense of their lives. As the teachers and students negotiate the curriculum through interaction and discussion during the language arts period, students are able to consider multiple ways of knowing, inquiring, and seeing the world (Leland & Harste, 1994). The relationship between literacy development and social interactions is complex and significant to students' learning (Vygotsky, 1978). In this

classroom environment, children's social interactions and language learning reflect the social construction of knowledge in literacy development. Because children are free to express themselves in a variety of ways, they are able to use different forms of language to make sense of the world around them.

What makes this classroom work

There were two main reasons why this classroom encouraged extensive peer interaction and contributed to a unique learning environment. First, the teacher encouraged discussion about stories related to what the children were familiar with. This environment promoted extensive literacy activities in the classroom. In the morning, the class wrote stories together based on students' experiences. During the read-aloud, the teacher encouraged many text-to-self connections. When it came time for journal writing, students continued to share their own ideas, which often continued to merge text and life.

In this classroom, stories began as a whole-class activity, and students had various opportunities to talk, read, and write with peers. The interactions during the read-aloud were significant to the creation of stories and literacy development. The teacher allowed for a large amount of uninterrupted time to read the picture book(often around 30 minutes). All of the students' comments were encouraged, and personal connections to the text abounded as a result of the teacher's deliberate efforts to encourage students' contributions. A teacher more focused on the textual elements of the story might not encourage these types of social interactions in the classroom. Nonetheless, the conversations created a model for further interactions in the whole class and in small groups.

Ms. Estrada's class was selected to participate in this four-month (spring semester) study because 23 students in her class were all labeled non-English speakers (NES) at the beginning of the school year. Her class consisted of a culturally and linguistically diverse population. The students attended a school that had been identified by statistics as being an area of low SES (socioeconomic status) in the San Antonio area. Quantitative data was not obtained, since the purpose of this study was to identify instructional and grouping strategies the teacher was using to promote literacy development in her classroom.

Qualitative data, on the other hand, was plentiful, consisting of students' writing (i.e. journal writing, student-created charts, diagrams, outlines, concept maps, etc.) and video/audio tapes of specific instances during instruction. Video/audio tapes were reviewed and transcribed, which allowed the researcher to provide a description of the dynamics and interaction in the classroom. Different language and literacy contexts were examined, such as one-to-one interactions, small-group discussions, and large-class settings, with the focus always on what children are actually doing as they read and write. The children's writing samples were of critical importance, since they were daily documentation of their literacy development. Writing was compared from the fall to the spring semester.

The impact of Ms. Estrada's instruction is evident in the tremendous growth demonstrated through the children's writing. Their vocabulary, ideas, and phonological awareness permeates their writing as well as the classroom environment, which is socially and educationally supportive. For example, during one of Ms. Estrada's "read aloud" sessions the students were fascinated by the word "onomatopoeia." The teacher proceeded to describe and use the word in context as well as provide examples. Naturally this led to a lively discussion, and they were able to provide many examples from their own experience with onomatopoeia. Three days later, "Monica" included the word onomatopoeia in her journal; she used her Spanish letter-sound relationship to spell the word as **"onumonapeax**;" within the same journal entry she spells "**becase"** (because), "**parints**" (parents) and "**mat**" (mad). In this case the type and size of Monica's vocabulary contributes to her success on other literacy-type tasks.

Conclusion

A solid conceptualization of how language and learning are connected and how learning takes place most effectively is a critical foundation for instructional planning in classrooms with ELLs. Bilingual children can and do succeed academically when instruction includes the organization of highly literate environments in which a variety of language experiences takes place. The classroom environment should also practice different types of "literacies" that are encouraged and understood. Instruction should include contextual features such as student choice; student work based on their own experiences and interests; and collaborative construction of meaning (Mora, 2001a; Mora & Grisham, 2001).

Of all the challenges teachers face, perhaps the most daunting is being able to view students' cultural and linguistic backgrounds as sources of strength, not deficits to be overcome. Students' backgrounds are not barriers but foundations for future learning. Literacy, which is consistently associated with educational success and achievement, is part of the cultural capital valued by our society, and literacy achievement serves as a primary gatekeeper for entry into educational institutions, the workforce, and leadership positions (Gutierrez, 1992). It is important, therefore, to take to heart the reality that the environments within which students learn will affect what they learn, how they learn, and how they feel about learning.

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Chapter 15

Hispanic Children's Literature in the K-5 Classroom

Corinne Montalvo Valadez
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Margaret Lara

Abstract

The growing Hispanic population translates to an increase of students with cultural and linguistic needs that are changing the dynamics of our nation's classrooms. Educators must be ready to meet the academic challenges of this diverse population. One way that educators can prepare themselves to meet the needs of their culturally diverse classrooms is the inclusion of multiethnic children's literature, specifically Hispanic children's literature. Children's literature is an important part of the school curriculum because it encourages and engages students in higher level thinking through their reading, writing, and discussions (Cullinan & Galda, 2005; Norton, 2002). It is a powerful tool for helping students understand themselves, their homes, their communities, and their world. This study surveyed teachers from an educational service center region in the South Texas area about their awareness of Hispanic children's literature.

Hispanic Children's Literature in the K-5 Classroom

Children's literature is an important part of the school curriculum. Walk into any school and you will find children's literature being used as read alouds, literature circles, or to enrich and extend the curriculum. One reason teachers use children's literature is to encourage and engage students in higher level thinking through their reading, writing, and discussions (Cullinan & Galda, 2005; Norton, 2002). Children's literature is a powerful tool for helping students to understand themselves, their homes, their communities, and their world. In order for literature to facilitate students' understanding of themselves, they need to read books about people who look like them, speak like them, and share their values and traditions (Bishop, 1997; Tenorio, 1994). According to Giroux (1991), the discursive world is important to how people relate to themselves and to the world around them. He writes, "It is the textual world through which people develop a sense of self and collective identity and relate to one another" (p.231). However, most of the literature read in today's classrooms reflects the mainstream culture that is European American, monolingual, and middle-class (Singer & Smith, 2003), despite the increasing diversity within American schools (Irvine, 2003; Leftwich, 2004).

Evidence of the increasing diversity found within American schools can be found in the latest census (U. S. Census Bureau, 2000). The census notes the increasing numbers in the Hispanic population. This trend is most evident in the states of California, Florida, and Texas. The growing Hispanic population easily translates to an increase of students with cultural and linguistic needs that are changing the dynamics of our nation's classrooms. Educators must be ready to meet the academic challenges of this diverse population.

One academic challenge can be seen in the most recent reading achievement scores of the National Association for Educational Policy (NAEP) (NCES, 2005). While the reading achievement scores indicate that there has been an increase in the reading scores for Hispanics in the last 30 years there is still a significant gap between European American and Hispanic students across the grade levels. Gutierrez (2002) encourages educators at all levels to consider the cultural-historical approach as a means to increase student achievement. Recognizing the cultural-historical approach and implementing culturally responsive pedagogy are effective means of meeting the academic and social needs of culturally diverse students (Gay, 2000; Gay & Howard, 2001; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Shade, Kelly, & Oberg, 1997). Educators can capitalize and empower learners intellectually, socially, emotionally, and politically by accessing cultural referents to impart knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Ladson-Billings, 1994). In other words, educators need a framework of instruction that builds upon the students' social and cultural history.

Culturally Responsive Pedagogy and Reader Response

Culturally responsive pedagogy uses the cultural knowledge, prior experiences, and performance styles of diverse students to make learning more appropriate and effective for them; it teaches to and through the strengths of these students (Gay, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 1994). Culturally responsive pedagogy (CRP) acknowledges the legitimacy of the cultural heritages of different ethnic groups. CRP teaches students to know and praise their own and each others' cultural heritages by incorporating multicultural information, resources, and materials throughout the curriculum.

Culturally and linguistically diverse students bring their own personal experiences that may be different from the characters portrayed in the literature (Au, 2006; Flores-Duena, 2004). A mismatch between the reader's personal experiences and the literature may result in a breakdown of comprehension (Au, 1993; 2006; Nieto, 2004). Zimmerman and Hutchins (2003) discuss the importance of allowing students to connect to texts. They insist, "The meaning you get from a piece is intertwined with the meaning you bring to it" (p. 45). An opportunity to encourage connecting with text occurs through children's literature that is culturally familiar. Flippo, Armstrong, Gribouski, and Hetzel (2001) suggest that there is a reciprocal relationship between culture and literacy. "Cultural diversity mediates the acquisition and expression of literacy, while at the same time literacy education molds and influences an individual's cultural identity" (Flippo et al., 1997, p. 645). More specifically, encouraging

connections and validating the culture of Hispanic students can be achieved through the use of Hispanic children's literature.

Central to the theory of reader response is Rosenblatt's work on transactional reading (1978). She explains transactional reading as an experience in which the understandings one creates when reading are influenced by the reader's personal beliefs and experiences. During the reading process, the text activates the reader's schemata, and the reader makes connections of prior experiences with the text. According to Rosenblatt, "Critical theory and practice both suffer from failure to recognize that the reader carries on a dynamic, personal, and unique activity" (1978, p. 35).

Further, Rosenblatt's theory of the transactional view of reading asserts that there are two stances for reading: efferent reading and aesthetic reading (1978). She explains that efferent reading occurs when "the reader's attention is focused primarily on what will be the residue after the reading – the information to be acquired, the logical solution to a problem, the actions to be carried out" (p.23). Aesthetic reading takes place when "the reader's attention is centered directly on what he is living through during his relationship with that particular text" (Rosenblatt, 1978, p.25). The reader's associations, feelings, attitudes, and ideas interact with the text, and this "synthesizes these elements into a meaningful structure" (p.25).

Methodology

The rationale for this study revolves around the idea that educators who are aware of racial and ethnic identity development (theirs and others') are better prepared to respond to students from their own background as well as with those who are from other cultural, ethnic and racial backgrounds (Nieto, 2004). Multiethnic literature is a step in the process of creating and celebrating cultural diversity in all classrooms.

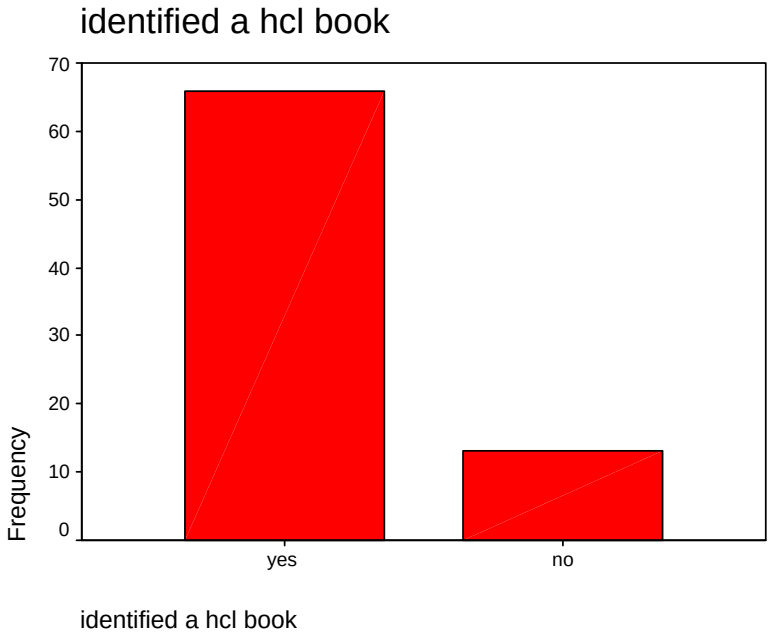
The purpose of this study was to identify kindergarten through grade five classroom teachers' awareness of Hispanic children's literature. The 79 teachers surveyed taught at an elementary campus from one of the 42 school districts within the region and attended workshops at an education service center in the South Texas area. They were asked to name their favorite Hispanic children's trade books and identify which Hispanic children's literature trade books they used in their classrooms. Almost 28% (n=22) of the participants taught third grade, while only 7.6% (n=6) of the participants taught fifth grade (see Table 1). One teacher (no response) identified herself as a special education teacher responsible for students in kindergarten through fifth. The rest of the grade levels were evenly represented (see Table 1).

Table 1
Teacher Participants

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Kindergarten	14	17.7	17.7
1st Grade	11	13.9	31.6
2nd Grade	14	17.7	49.4
3rd Grade	22	27.8	77.2
4th Grade	11	13.9	91.1
5th Grade	6	7.6	98.7
No Response	1	1.3	100
Total	79	100	

Sixty-five of the participants were able to identify at least one title (See Figure 1). Only fourteen of the participants did not have a favorite Hispanic children's literature book or were unable to identify any books that they used in the classroom (Figure 1).

Figure 1.
Teacher Responses



Books Identified by Teachers

As part of this study, teachers were asked to determine their favorite Hispanic children's literature book. Teachers noted that they were familiar with several of the titles because they were stories included in their district's adopted

reading series. The books generated from teacher responses (with identifying information) are listed in Appenix A. A booklist featuring other books is also included in Appendix B.

Guidelines for Selecting Quality Books for Hispanic Children

It is hoped that the lists provided as appendices will serve as an impetus for educators to begin their personal collections. However, it is important for educators to develop a critical eye when selecting titles to add to their collection. Remember that children are naturally curious about their lives and issues that affect them, and books are an excellent tool to allow them to become more familiar with their cultural heritage. Murray & Velasquez (1999) believe that good books can help children develop pride in their ethnic identity, provide positive role models, develop knowledge about cultural history, and build self esteem. Through books children can see how others, like themselves, can accomplish goals, and be motivated to make good career choices.

Here is a list of suggestions for parents and teachers to follow when selecting books that positively portray the Hispanic population.

- Choose books that positively reflect the culture without stereotyping.
- Purchase books that provide both English and Spanish versions of the story for advanced English Language Learners.
- Opt for books where the text does not overemphasize the language.
- Select books where the illustrations do not overemphasize the physical characteristics of the population.
- Do not assume that children will only choose books that depict his/her heritage; children are naturally curious about all ethnic groups.
- Look for books that have topics that are appealing and relevant to the children.
- Locate books that are fiction as well as non-fiction. The children need to hear stories that are fanciful and need to read/listen to books that deal with the environment around them.
- Include stories that provide a positive portrayal of boys and girls alike.

Providing young children with positive role models and characters enables them to look on their own lives through different lenses. Stories with rich descriptions of the lives and personalities of inspiring individuals (mythical, or real, contemporary or historical) entertain as well as serve as role models for children (Singh & Lu, 2003). When choosing books, Schon (1999) believes that the most important factors that teachers should keep in mind are the needs and interests of the students themselves.

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Zimmerman, S., & Hutchins, C. (2003). *7 keys to comprehension: How to help your kids read it and get it.* New York: Three Rivers Press.

Appendix A
Books Identified by Teachers

Ada, A. F. (1997). *Gathering the sun: An alphabet in Spanish and English.* New York: Rayo.
This is a book of poems, one for each letter of the Spanish alphabet, about working in the fields and nature's bounty. ISBN: 0688170676 US $6.99.

Dorros, A. (1997). *Abuela.* New York: Young Penguins Group.
While riding on a bus with her grandmother, a little girl imagines that they are carried up into the sky and fly over the sights of New York City.
ISBN: 0140562257 US $ 7.99

Kimmel, E. (2000). *The runaway tortilla.* New York: Winslow Press.
In Texas, Tia Lupe and Tio Jose make the best tortillas - so light that the cowboys say they just might jump right out of the griddle. One day, a tortilla does exactly that. Mocking her pursuers, the tortilla runs through the desert, encountering a variety of animals found in the desert. She dodges them all, but is finally outwitted by Senor Coyote in this flavorful twist on the classic tale "The Gingerbread Man."
ISBN: 189081718X $ 16.99

Lomas - Garza, C. (1996). *Family pictures*. San Francisco: Children's Book Press.
Family Pictures is the story of Carmen Lomas Garza's girlhood in Kingsville, Texas: celebrating birthdays, making tamales, finding a hammerhead shark on the beach, picking cactus, going to a fair in Mexico, and confiding in her sister her dreams of becoming an artist. These day-to-day experiences are told through fourteen vignettes of art and a descriptive narrative, each focusing on a different aspect of the traditional Mexican American culture she experienced.
ISBN: 089239207X US $ 7.95

Mora, P. (2000). *Tomas and the library lady.* New York: Bantam Doubleday Books for Young Readers.
While helping his family in their work as migrant laborers far from their home, Tomas finds an entire world to explore in the books at the local public library.
ISBN: 0375803491 US $ 6.99

Munoz-Ryan, P. (2002). *Esperanza rising.* New York: Scholastic Inc.Esperanza and her mother are forced to leave their life of wealth and privilege in Mexico to go work in the labor camps of Southern California, where

they must adapt to the harsh circumstances facing Mexican farm workers on the eve of the Great Depression.
ISBN: 043912042X $5.99

Saenz-Alire, B. (1998). *A Gift from Papa Diego*. El Paso, Texas: Cinco Puntos Press.
Little Diego loves his grandfather, but they don't see each other often because Papa Diego lives in Mexico. Little Diego asks for a Superman outfit for his birthday. He wants to fly across the border to Mexico to be with his grandfather. His parents buy him one, but will Little Diego be able to fly? How will he be able to enjoy one of his happiest birthdays ever?
ISBN: 0938317334 $10.95

Soto, G. (1997). *Chato's kitchen.* Penguin Young Readers Group. Chato, the coolest cat in East L.A., couldn't be happier when a family of mice moves into the barrio. When Chato gets out the pots and pans to prepare a feast in honor of their new neighbors, he gets more than he can handle with the surprise guest the mice bring along.
ISBN: 0698116003 US $ 6.99

Appendix B
A Dozen Other Picks

Ada, A. F. (1997). *My name is Maria Isabel.* New York: Rayo.
Third grader Maria Isabel, born in Puerto Rico and now living in the U.S., wants badly to fit in at school; and the teacher's writing assignment "My Greatest Wish" gives her that opportunity.
ISBN: 068980217X US $ 3.95

Andrews-Goebel, N. (2002). *The pot that Juan built.* New York: Lee & Low Books.
A cumulative rhyme summarizes the life's work of renowned Mexican potter, Juan Quezada. Additional information describes the process he uses to create his pots after the style of the Casas Grandes people.
ISBN: 1584300388 US $ 16.95

Anzaldua, Gloria. (1993). *Friends from the other side*. San Francisco: Children's Book Press.
Did you come from the other side? You know, from Mexico?" So begins the friendship between Prietita and Joaquin, the young boy who, with his mother, has crossed the Rio Grande River to Texas in search of a new life. Prietita, a brave young Mexican American girl, defends Joaquin from the neighborhood kids who taunt him with shouts of "mojado" or "wetback." But what can she do to protect Joaquin and his mother from the Border Patrol as the van cruises slowly up the street toward their hiding place?
ISBN: 0892391308 US $ 7.95

Bunting, E. (1997). *Day's work. Minneapolis*, MN: Sagebrush Education Resources.
What begins as a search for day-work ends with discovering one of life's valuable lessons. Grandpa speaks no English, so Francisco accompanies him to help him find day-work. Even without the benefit of an English vocabulary, however, Grandpa makes himself understood in a meaningful way that benefits them both.
ISBN: 0395673216 US $ 16.00

Chambers, V. (2005). *Celia Cruz, Queen of salsa.* New York: Dial.
Accomplished children's book author Veronica Chambers gives young readers a lyrical glimpse into Celia's childhood and her inspiring rise to worldwide fame and recognition. ISBN**:** 0803729707 US $ 10.39

Cisneros, S. (1997). *Hairs/Pelitos.* New York: Bantam Doubleday Dell Books for Young Readers.

A girl describes how each person in the family has hair that looks and acts different, Papa's like a broom, Kiki's like fur, and Mama's with the sweet smell of bread before it's baked.
ISBN**:** 0679890076 US $ 6.99

Hayes, J. (2001). ¡*El cucuy!* El Paso, TX: Cinco Punto Press.
Everyone hears at least one teasing reference to the "bogeyman" when they're growing up, but not everyone knows him by name. In the Southwest and much of Mexico, he's known as el Cucuy. Many Mexicans and Mexican-Americans will tell you, "I grew up with el Cucuy." There are plenty of stories of lazy, disobedient children whose feet were set back on the straight and narrow path by an encounter with this ogre.
ISBN: 0938317784 $15.95

Mora, P. (2005). *Dona Flor: A tall tale about a giant woman with a great big heart.* New York: Avon Books.
Doña Flor is a giant woman who lives in a puebla with lots of families. She loves her neighbors—she lets the children use her flowers for trumpets, and the families use her leftover tortillas for rafts. So when a huge puma is terrifying the village, of course Flor is the one to investigate.
ISBN: 0375923373 $17.99

Mora, P. (2002). A *library for Juana.* New York: Knopf, Borzoi Books.
When she was three years old, Juana Inés followed her sister to school and peeked in the window, then begged the teacher to be allowed to stay so she could learn how to read. Soon she was making up stories, songs, and poems—she loved learning and she loved reading. And she couldn't wait to have her own collection of books! Sor Juana Inés is still considered one of the most brilliant writers in Mexico's history: her poetry is recited by schoolchildren throughout Mexico and is studied at schools and universities around the world. Here is the story of her life.
ISBN: 0375806431 $15.95

Munoz-Ryan, P. (2005). *Nacho and Lolita.* New York: Scholastic Inc.
A very rare pitacohi bird falls in love with a swallow and plucks his colorful feathers to transform dry, barren San Juan Capistrano into a haven of flowers and flowing water, which the swallows can easily find when returning from their annual migration.
ISBN: 0439269687 $16.99

Soto, G. (1994). *The skirt.* New York: Random House Children's Books.
When Miata leaves on the school bus, the skirt that she is to wear in a dance performance is lost. She needs all her wits to get it back without her parents' finding out that she has lost something yet again.
ISBN: 0440409241 $ 4.50

Supporting Students Emotionally

Chapter 16

Motivating Strategies for At-Risk Students with the America Reads Program

Sang Hwang

Abstract

The chapter describes a program to assist young readers to learn reading, highlighting the role of the university tutors who assist at-risk students (K-3) with interactive reading activities in a one-on-one setting. It suggests practical ideas for those who are considering the program for their area schools, including planning ahead before each semester, having well-planned tutor orientations, and maintaining communication. The paper also presents useful websites for tutoring strategies and introduces creative hands-on activities, such as vocabulary slide, polka-dot, puzzle sight words, contraction hotdog, two-dice compound, mystery boxes, and so forth.

Motivating Strategies for At-Risk Students with the America Reads Program

The America Reads Challenge program is a nationwide, federally funded reading effort focused on kindergarten to third grade to encourage children to read proficiently and independently. Initiated by former President Bill Clinton in 1997, the program assists at-risk students who are performing one or more levels below their current grade level by providing individual instruction during their primary grades (Grote, 2006). The America Reads Challenge program connects colleges and universities to local school districts by utilizing Federal Work-Study college students to tutor young struggling readers in elementary schools, after-school programs, and other community agencies. Appendix A lists colleges and universities participating in the America Reads Program.

Both university tutors and children at the elementary schools benefit from this program. University tutors receive financial support as work-study students and obtain practical teaching experiences in an authentic environment. Young children get special attention from the university tutors while they spend time reading and playing educational games. Since the major purposes of the America Reads Challenge program are to motivate children to read, to build their self-confidence, and to assist them in becoming life-long readers, tutors are encouraged to make enjoyable games and to select texts based on their students' interests. Children at schools are provided choices to pick their own texts each time.

Sheets and Hurtado (2001) reported that over 1,000 colleges and universities participate in the America Reads Challenge program today, and the

program promotes opportunities for the tutors to learn about the nature of teaching, the relationship of the school to the wider community, and the commitment of professional educators. Many colleges and universities, including New York University and San Francisco State University, are reporting successful results both with children's academic growth and increased self-esteem (Adler, 1999). Other documented outcomes of the America Reads program illustrate significant improvement in the literacy skills of the children the college students are tutoring (U.S. Department of Education, 1997; Barbara, Bowman, Donovan, and Burns, 2006; Krashen, 2004). McDaniel (2002) adds that the program is effective, beneficial, and rewarding for all participants.

The purpose of this chapter is to present information about the America Reads program in general, to introduce the program at West Texas A&M University, and to share useful ideas and sources that tutors learned through their experiences.

The America Reads Program at West Texas A&M University

West Texas A&M University (WTAMU) began participating in the America Reads program in the fall of 1997. The program has financially supported approximately 131 work-study students who tutor children at public schools around the Panhandle area of Texas. During the 2005 fall semester, 98 children benefited from this program at seven public schools. The program is supported by the WTAMU Office of Student Financial Aid in partnership with the WTAMU College of Education. All the applicants are required to file the Free Application for Federal Student Aid (FAFSA) and must be approved by the financial aid office to begin working. The students must be education majors and schedule tutoring sessions around their class schedules. Tutors receive orientation and training sessions each semester. During the sessions, they use successful strategies to motivate children to develop the love of reading and to learn new activities from the university coordinator. The student tutors are paid eight dollars an hour.

As McDaniel (2002) reported, one of the limitations of the America Reads program is that this initiative has very few regulations besides the policy that America Reads tutors must work with elementary school children five to eight years of age. Therefore, the university coordinator takes full responsibility for implementing the program, including the number of schools to work with, how many tutors to hire, how often they need to meet for training and support, and so forth. There is no compensation for training, coordination, or other day-to-day operations for the university coordinator.

Each semester, the university coordinator at West Texas A&M University contacts the public schools to determine whether or not they are interested in participating in the program. The official letter, sent to principals, may include the background of the America Reads program, how the program selects tutors, what tutors do with students at school, and the mutual benefits for the university and the public schools. Individual schools may perform their own screening and

background checks, supervise the students on-site, and co-sign the work-study timesheets. Upon approval, tutors contact the schools and arrange the schedule.

There are orientation meetings for new tutors and additional training sessions for all tutors at least twice each semester. During the orientation sessions, the university coordinator explains the basic information about the program, practical steps to take until they get paid, and the motivational strategies that work with at-risk students. The tutors need to get to know each other. Tutors exchange their contact information in order to communicate with each other and are encouraged to bring useful ideas to share. They learn about the program and receive related websites to search on their own. The orientation is essential because tutors sometimes need to explain to children, teachers, administrators, or other school staff members why they are there and how they will accomplish their goals with the school children. Tutors are also informed about the school setting requirements at the public schools, including signing in at the school office, being confidential about each child's private information, dressing professionally, and so forth (see Appendix B).

Well-prepared lesson plans are the key to the success of the program. During the training sessions, tutors are given sample lesson plans and ways to implement each lesson, based on the children's unique needs. Some things that tutors learn in the training sessions involve (a) the need to offer students choices in the selection of books based on their interests; (b) the importance of knowing individual students (see Appendix C for a sample interview form); (c) the integration of reading and writing instruction coupled with hands-on games after each activity; and (d) the requirement to reflect daily on their success with their children by having them keep journals and portfolios.

Until 2005, tutors were paid mileage by recording the time when they left home for tutoring until the time they get back home, including their actual tutoring hours. However, tutors at WTAMU did not receive extra money for preparation time or for attending the training sessions. The university coordinator believed this could be used as a way to motivate tutors in the program. When the university coordinator first suggested tutor compensation for preparation and training to the personnel at the financial aid office, the coordinator received a pessimistic response. Eventually, through continued discussion, tutors at WTAMU were able to receive payment for preparation time and attendance of the training sessions. Tutors were delighted to be paid for the hours they spent planning each lesson and making educational activities for the next instructional session. Tutors actively participated in each training session to learn new information.

Some of the hands-on activities that were discussed in the training sessions are addressed in Appendix D. Links to help America Reads tutors prepare to work with students and other helpful and practical websites are provided in Appendices E and F.

Success of the Program

At the end of each semester, tutors completed the tutor survey to provide practical feedback for program improvement (see Appendix G for the sample questions in the tutor survey.). In the fall of 2005, most tutors rated their tutoring experience 4 or 5 on a scale of 1 to 5 with 5 being an excellent experience. Tutors expressed that the training sessions helped them with clear ideas on how to direct children. The tutors related that they saw definite improvement in the students' reading skills in the program. The following are examples of tutors' responses:

- "Yes, I did notice an improvement with the students. I tried to teach them to use strategies."
- "Yes, I was encouraged by how the children brightened up when it was reading time."
- "Yes, one of the little gals wasn't connecting sounds with letters. She now blends words."
- "I saw real improvement on the part of three of my first graders. I hope they become the first members of their families to receive college degrees. I know they can do it."
- "The students became more interactive as the tutoring sessions continued and I saw some improvement."

The tutors felt that the America Reads Challenge was a worthwhile program to help children enhance their reading skills. Most of the tutors agreed that this program provided benefits both for themselves and for the children. However, they were concerned about the time that they worked at school. Few schools had after-school-hour programs. Tutors expressed a need to have more opportunity for working with children after regular school hours. To address this concern with the schools, it was suggested that the university coordinator encourage the principals to add the information to the permission letters to parents to determine whether or not parents could pick their children up after school. The additional time would allow for a better learning environment and more high quality instruction.

Suggestions and Conclusions

As mentioned earlier in this study, there are no clear guidelines in the America Reads Challenge program except for assisting children five to eight years of age. Furthermore, the university coordinator, at least at West Texas A&M University, does not receive any compensation for managing the program. Despite these limitations, the America Reads program is an effective, beneficial, and rewarding experience both for university tutors and for children at schools (McDaniel, 2002).

Based on the experiences with this program at WTAMU, some practical guidelines seem warranted for those who are considering the America Reads program. These include well-planned tutor orientation, planning, and rich communication skills:

1. <u>Well-planned tutor orientation</u>

- Educate the tutors about the program beforehand, so they know their duties.
- Tell tutors that they need to explain to the children and the teachers what they will do with the children when they meet them for the first time at school.
- Ask tutors to introduce themselves to administrators, teachers, librarians, and other school staff persons.
- Have tutors communicate with school staffs and administrators to locate secure places to work with the children. If one place is not available for any reason, tutors should know where to go next.
- Require tutors to prepare clear lesson plans. Tutors must have a clear idea about what to do each day and how to motivate children in a unique way.

2. Planning
    - The university coordinator should contact the public schools before each semester by sending e-mails and official letters to the principals and obtaining their permission to have tutors work with the children on their campus.
    - The university coordinator should check to determine if a school has after-school programs. This will provide tutors with tremendous choices of potential children and help create a better atmosphere without disruptions during school hours.
    - The university coordinator should ensure that program brochures or flyers for recruiting new tutors are ready to be distributed before the beginning of the semester to showcase at the student employment service. If possible, brochures should be distributed to the faculty beforehand.
3. Rich communication skills
    - Besides the communication techniques required between public schools and the university, the America Reads program requires rich communication between the university coordinator and each tutor by exchanging e-mails and phone calls, sharing concerns and questions, and keeping in touch on a regular basis.
    - Communication with the financial aid office within the university is also necessary to: keep program information up-to-date, confirm new information about the criteria for tutors, and offer suggestions for the program improvement.

Based on one university's experience, the America Reads program seems to be worthwhile for the children, as the tutors offer appropriate instruction to meet each child's special needs. This experience also helps the university tutors obtain practical ideas for working with children in real-life situations. Furthermore, the program provides great opportunity for the tutors to apply what they learned in classes and examine which approaches work under specific conditions with different types of students.

The success of the America Reads Program calls for careful planning and rich communication. This program can provide at-risk children with the perception that reading is fun and exciting and that they can enjoy reading on their own for the rest of their lives. In this way, the initiative helps students develop the self-confidence needed to become lifelong readers.

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Appendix A

Universities/Colleges participating in the America Reads Program

- *California Reads*
  In an effort to better coordinate reading and literacy activities in California, a number of interested organizations and individuals met in San Francisco on June 4, 1997 under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Education's Region IX office. This consortium, the **California Reads Roundtable**, meets on a regular basis and uses this website as a means to better coordinate reading activities in California: (http://literacynet.org/ar-ca/home.html)
- *Tennessee Technological University*
  Our mission is to accept the child exactly where he or she is, building a comprehensive literacy scaffold on his or her strengths. The focus of our effort will be on the development of the whole child, intellectually, socially, emotionally, and academically to facilitate the child's growth and independence in reading. (http://www.pampetty.com/americareads.html)
- *University of Washington*
  The University of Washington began participating in the America Reads program during Fall Quarter 1997. The program currently supports over 100 work-study tutors who work at over 40 different sites in the greater Seattle area. (http://www.washington.edu/students/osfa/AmericaReads/introduction.html)
- *America Reads at Clemson University*
  Clemson University joined the America Reads Challenge by developing a program during the 1997/1998 academic year. The program consists of work-study students and volunteer students from a wide range of disciplines and colleges at Clemson University and volunteers from the surrounding community. (http://virtual.clemson.edu/groups/americareads)
- Southern Illinois University at Carbondale
  Tutoring children who need help with reading, like throwing starfish back into the sea, is about making a difference–one student at a time. This program has taken the coordination of Southern Illinois University at Carbondale (SIUC), the federal government, and the local schools. Ted Sanders, President of SIU, is one of the national co-chairs of the *Partnership for Family Involvement in Education* and joins with some famous personalities on this committee. (http://www.siu.edu/~arc)
- *Bank Street College*
  Bank Street College is considered the best resource on the Internet for the America Reads program, and it is frequently referred to as "America's most trusted name in early childhood education." Bank

Street College is proud to host the America Reads Challenge web site. (http://www.paec.org/david/reading/amreads.pdf)

- *University of Vermont*

  The University of Vermont has been involved in the America Reads Challenge since 1997. UVM America Reads strives to provide high quality experiences for children and families receiving support for early literacy as well as for UVM students providing that support. We are working to provide additional literacy support for young children and families consistent with best practices documented in current research related to literacy learning and effective tutoring. We also work to provide challenging and supportive experiences for UVM students to explore while contributing to their community by supporting the efforts of area schools and agencies. (http://www.uvm.edu/~uvmreads)

Appendix B

School Settings Requirements for WT Readers and America Reads Tutors

1. THE ULTIMATE CONCERN IS THE SAFTEY OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL STUDENTS. UNLESS YOU ARE A PATRON OF THE SCHOOL, YOU ONLY ARE ALLOWED IN THE SCHOOL AT THE DISCRETION OF THE SCHOOL AUTHORITIES.
2. Sign in at the school office immediately upon arriving and sign out when leaving. Wear your WTAMU school identification at all times when in the school building. The school authorities also may require a visitor's badge of some type.
3. What you observe and hear in a school setting is to be held in strict confidentiality.
4. If you observe a school practice with which you disagree, remember that you are not yet a professional with a professional's judgment. Only use public school personnel's names in a positive way.
5. Dress professionally. All visible tattoos should be covered. Visible body piercing, other than ear lobes, may take away from your professional appearance. No caps or hats should be worn inside the school setting.
6. Be on time and maintain any observation, appointment, or work time scheduled. In case of illness, notify the school secretary before your scheduled time, or as soon as possible.
7. Plan on leaving your cell phone in your car. Some schools may prohibit visitors from bringing cell phones into school buildings.

Appendix C

Survey Questions for Students (I)

(Used by students at the beginning of the program, before tutoring)

Name: _____

1. Tell me about yourself. (Tell me two things you would like to share about yourself.)

2. Do you read for fun or read because you have to for class?

3. What are your favorite topics (subjects) to read about?

4. What books are you reading now? Tell me about it.

5. Do you read at home? Do your parents or other adults read with you? Do you read to/with your brothers and sisters?

6. What do you do in your spare time?

7. What things do you want me to do to help your reading?

8. Do you have any specific concerns to share?

Appendix D
Sample Activities from the Training Sessions

1. Vocabulary Slide (Good for vocabulary and comprehension) (Dunn, 2000)
   - Supplies:
     ½ gal. juice/milk carton, scissors, masking tape, ruler, 3x2 ½ index cards, 5x8 index cards, and pen.
   - Directions:
     a. Pull open the top of a half-gallon milk or juice container.
     b. Cut the side folds of the top portion down to the top of the container.
     c. On the front edge, measure down both (a) 1 ½ inches and (b) 2 ½ inches. Draw lines across the container. Remove that space.
     d. Mark up from the bottom (a) 1 ½ inches and (b) 2 ½ inches. Draw lines across the container. Remove that space.
     e. Cut one 5x8 index card to measure 7 ½ inches by 3 ½ inches.
     f. Fold down ½ inch at both ends of the smaller strip. Fold down ½ inch at one end of the longer strip.
     g. Insert the smaller strip into the bottom opening with the folded edge resting on the upper portion of the bottom opening. Attach it with masking tape.
     h. Bring the upper part of the smaller strip out through the upper opening, with the folded part going down over the center section of the carton. Attach it with masking tape.
     i. Work with the longer strip, one end is folded down and the other end is unfolded. Insert the unfolded end of the longer strip into the bottom opening of the container from the outside. Be certain that the strip goes up along the back of the container. Push it into the container until the folded part rests on the bottom part of the container. Attach it with masking tape.
     j. Attach the upper edge of the longer strip to the back of the container creating a slide. Secure it with masking tape about 5/8" from the top of the carton.
     k. Fold down the top flags of the container and tape them in place, forming a rectangular box.
     l. This activity can be used for vocabulary and comprehension. Use small, 3x2 ½ inch index cards to write the questions. For vocabulary, write the vocabulary words on one side and the definitions in other side. For comprehension, write the question and the choices in one side and the correct answer on the other side.

2. Polka-Dot (A to Z Teacher Stuff, L.L.C., 2006)
   - Supplies:
     Index cards, pencil, hole-punch.
   - Directions: This is a great multiple choice tester for students after reading.
     a. Create questions for checking comprehension with four choices.

b. At the bottom of the index card are four holes. When the students think they know the correct answer, they will insert their pencil in that hole. If the answer is correct, the card should slide out. If it is incorrect, it will not.
c. When creating four holes, make an open slot for the correct answer so the card can slide out safely.

3. Puzzle Sight Words
   - Supplies:
     Student's favorite character puzzle, such as Sponge Bob or dinosaurs, with 12-20 pieces (big enough to write words on the back).
   - Directions:
     a. Write target sight words or vocabulary words on the back of the puzzle.
     b. Pick a piece of puzzle and read the word on the back. Put it where it fits to complete the puzzle.
     c. This activity is good before reading. Select sight words or vocabulary words from the text that you will use.
4. Contraction Hot Dog (Brooks & Byles, 2006)
   - Supplies:
     Construction paper, scissors, stapler, pen, pencil.
   - Directions:
     a. Make a list of contraction words that you want to teach, such as can't, doesn't, aren't, you'll, and so on.
     b. Make hot dog buns and sausages on the construction paper. Write the contraction pair on each side, such as 'can not' on the bun and 'can't' on the sausage. Continue until you fill out all the contraction words on each shape.
     c. Let the student match the contraction words and insert the sausage into the bun to make a hot dog. Continue until your student completes all.
     d. You may use the "Fold-over Contraction" activity for this lesson.
5. Two Dice Compound
   - Supplies:
     Two dice, construction paper, scissors, glue, pen.
   - Directions:
     a. Make two dice in the paper (or use two dice, if available) and write the compound word on the dice. For example, write 'cow' on one die and write 'boy' on another die.
     b. Roll the dice and see if two words can make a compound word together.
     c. You may use two dice for prefix or suffix instruction as well.
6. Mystery Boxes (Pearman, Camp, & Hurst, 2004)
   - Supplies:
     Miniature objects from the story, a shoe box, crayons.
   - Directions:
     a. Choose a box with a lid.

b. Decorate the box.
c. Place the objects you have collected into the box.
d. Decide the order in which you will remove the objects (from the general objects to more specific objects) and what, if anything, you will say about each one.
e. Present your mystery box to the students and allow them to predict what the story might be about. Take one object at a time. Provide enough time to think about it.

7. Sequence activity with a Paper Chain

- Supplies:
  Construction papers, scissors, tape or glue, markers.
- Directions:
  a. Read a book and have different parts of the story written on strips.
  b. Have the student put the pieces in order.
  c. Place the strip that describes the first event on top and make a paper chain in the correct order.

Appendix E

Preparing to Work with Students: Links Provided to Help America Reads Tutors

- (http://www.ed.gov/inits/americareads/)
  Department of Education's America Reads web site: Step one in understanding the components of America Reads. Links to many government sponsored resources.
- (http://www.ed.gov/inits/americareads/resourcekit/)
  Government support page listing: The America Reads Challenge, Finding and Serving Children, Language and Reading Materials, What's Needed to Reach the Challenge, Using the Media, Liability Issues, Evaluating your Work, Recruiting and Training Tutors, Reaching Out to Families and Teachers, Forming a Community Coalition, Starting a READ*WRITE*NOW site.

Appendix F
Useful websites for tutors

1. Ideas for overall topics:

- www.lessonplanspage.com (creating new ideas; K-12, songs, poems, classroom themes, and lots of teacher resources)
- www.teachers.net (many great activities to use in the classroom)
- www.lessonplans.com (has news related to education and the latest trends; articles to help teachers to do a better job and learn more about their jobs)
- www.sitesforteachers.com (almost everything you could think of; a search engine for activities and teacher sites)
- www.gamingw.net (many different types of games, easy to modify)
- www.proteacher.com (choice of technology activities, the practice activities, and a place to discuss ideas with other teachers)
- www.col-ed.org (a variety of teacher resources that connect many different sites with a variety of subjects)
- www.theteacherscorner.net (a variety of arts and crafts for all seasons, connects to different types of books)
- www.edhelper.com (interesting resources for pre-K and Kindergarten)
- www.dltk-kids.com (different craft ideas, seasons, holidays, etc.)
- familyfun.go.com (good craft ideas, promoting home/parent involvement)
- www.crayola.com (supports family involvement, wonderful craft ideas)
- www.primarygames.com (interesting ideas for lessons; easily adaptable to hands-on activities for use)
- www.adrianbruce.com/reading/games.htm (downloadable games; easy to modify to fit other types of lessons; created by a teacher who wanted to share his experience)
- www.busyteacherscafe.com (many neat ideas; can be used for several different lessons)
- www.abcteach.com (offers ideas for early literacy)
- www.lessonplanet.com (good resource for teachers needing innovative ideas)
- www.primarygames.com (activities and lesson designed for primary grades)
- www.thekidzpage.com/learninggames/learningonline.htm (has printable kids' activities)
- quizhub.com/quizhub.cfm (provides assessments and lots of ideas on puzzles and quizzes)
- www.ourschoolfamily.com (all about literacy centers!)
- www.hyperhelper.org (deals with holidays! Activities and crafts to do on holidays)
- www.kidzonline.com (looks up activities and lesson plans for everything)

- www.readwritethink.org (provides extra tips on carrying out the lesson)
- www.learningpage.com (creative lesson plan; easy to modify)

2. Ideas for specific topics:
   - www.msrossbec.com (ideas for sight words, literacy centers, and good examples of guided reading)
   - www.literacyconnections.com/SightWordPractice.html (sight words with fun and creative ideas)
   - www.quia.com/mc/123083.html (good compound word games)
   - www.internet4classrooms.com/skills_5th_lang.htm (ideas for compound words; mostly for older students)
   - www.enchantedlearning.com (great ideas for writing activities; easy to browse through)
   - www.vocabulary.co.il/ (very colorful and fun activities; interactive games)
   - iteslj.org/Lessons/Akgun-ReadingCom.html (has sentence activities with many different choices to choose from)

Appendix G

America Reads Tutor Survey

1. How would you rate your tutor experience on a scale of 1 to 5 with 5 being an excellent experience? Why?

1 2 3 4 5

2. How many students received your assistance this semester? Did you work one-on-one only or worked in a group, too? Explain the situation.

3. Which activities were the best or your favorite? Please make a list of books, activities, and websites that you would like to share with other tutors, along with the best activities.

4. Was there clear communication between the teachers, administrators and yourself? What did you do when you had questions at school?

5. Do you feel that your students benefit from the tutoring program? Have you seen improvement in the students' reading with this program? Describe it in details.

6. How could the America Reads program be improved to facilitate an improved learning environment for the children?

7. What improvements are necessary for the America Reads Tutoring Program?

Chapter 17

Emotional Intelligence and College Success: A Research-Based Assessment and Intervention Model

Darwin B. Nelson
Gary R. Low

Abstract

Numerous studies indicate that emotional intelligence (EI) – the healthy understanding, use, and expression of emotions – is an important factor in college students' academic success. This article describes a nationally-recognized program designed to develop students' EI in terms of competency factors (interpersonal, personal leadership, self management, and intrapersonal), which are each comprised of specific skills (e.g., assertion, empathy, commitment ethic, self-esteem). The EI intervention program is characterized by a five-step emotional learning process in a structured instructional program: explore, identify, understand, learn, and apply. Recent applications of the program at Texas A&M University-Kingsville are discussed in terms of student achievement and student retention, and suggestions are made for further research.

Emotional Intelligence and College Success: A Research-Based Assessment and Intervention Model

Since the publication of the Personal Skills Map (PSM) (Nelson & Low, 1980) and the Emotional Skills Assessment Process (ESAP) (Nelson & Low, 1999), there has been a consistent and growing research base that points to the need and value of incorporating personal skills and emotional intelligence (EI) into academic and student development programs (Fry, 1990; Leesburgh, 1990; Link, 1982; Pope, 1981; Stottlemyer, 2002; Vela, 2003). There are numerous current examples of student and academic development programs, interdisciplinary faculty research/application projects, doctoral research, and leadership training and development (Low, 1998; Nelson, Low, & Vela 2003; Potter, 2005; Williams, 2004). The consistent indicator emerging from completed research is that improving EI is a key factor in achievement, college success, personal health, career performance, and leadership.

An important new direction is the inclusion of emotional intelligence as an important component of institutional effectiveness. EI assessment, intervention, and evaluation provide a valuable research perspective in studying both student performance and institutional effectiveness. Research studies show a positive and significant relationship of EI skills and competencies to student

achievement and retention (Potter, 2005; Vela, 2003; Williams, 2004). This article describes the development and implementation of an emotional intelligence program to increase retention and academic success of freshmen in a Hispanic-Serving Institution in South Texas.

Transitions through education from school to college to career are challenging and difficult, especially for minority, first generation, and non-traditional college students. These transitions are critical to academic achievement, program completion, and college success. With the current emphasis on academic accountability as measured by tested performance, there is a need for an increased emphasis and more balanced perspective on the development of social and emotional behaviors essential to academic and career excellence. Educational gaps have been created by underachievement and attrition.

Nationally and in Texas, colleges and universities are challenged to provide educational access and opportunities for greater numbers of students and to improve their participation and success rates. Research findings indicate that personal factors and emotional intelligence skills are important to student achievement and college success (Nelson & Low, 2003). New program models are needed to address the issues of low achievement, attrition, lack of motivation, and student engagement.

Research findings indicate that emotional intelligence skills are important and perhaps critical factors for student achievement, retention, and personal health (Nelson & Low, 1999, 2003; Low & Nelson, 2004, 2005; Epstein, 1998; Bartlett, 2002; Stottlemyer, 2002; Vela, 2003; Chao, 2003; Nelson, Jin, & Wang, 2002; Elkins & Low, 2004; Nelson & Nelson, 2003; Williams, 2004; Potter, 2005; & Smith 2004). Extensive interdisciplinary research indicates that emotional intelligence and related non-traditional measures of human performance may be as or more predictive of academic and career success than IQ or other tested measures of scholastic aptitude and achievement (Gardner, 1983, 1993; Gardner, Mayer, & Sternberg, 1997; Sternberg, 1985, 1995; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Dryden & Vos, 1994; Astin & Astin, 1993; Townsend & Gephardt, 1997; Weisenger, 1985, 1998; Cooper & Saway, 1997; Epstein, 1998; Nelson & Low, 2003; Low & Nelson 2004, 2005). These findings provide a compelling case for including emotional skill development in academic and student services programs in schools and colleges.

Colleges have long recognized the importance of experiential and out-of-class co-curricular learning. An early pioneer in student development referred to the need for more effective self-management and “intelligent self direction” (Bennett, 1933). This initial observation by Bennett is true today, and emotional intelligence is an emerging and important construct in high achievement and personal well-being. Emotional development of students does not seem important until behavior becomes observable and problematic. Familiar examples are underachievement, attrition, school violence, absenteeism, substance abuse, lack of motivation, and psycho-educational problems. Even though educators are compassionate, specific help is often absent, ineffective, or

too late. Proactive programs to identify and develop emotional skills are needed to prevent problematic behaviors, not react to them after the fact.

Emotional Intelligence Education Model

Emotional intelligence is a learned ability to understand, use, and express human emotions in healthy and productive ways. In the authors' education-based model, emotional intelligence is defined as a confluence of developed abilities to (a) accurately know and value self, (b) establish and maintain healthy and productive relationships, (c) get along and work well with others in achieving positive results, and (d) effectively manage the demands and pressures of daily life and work (Nelson & Low 2003). Our EI-centric and person-centered assessment and learning models include the *Emotional Skills Assessment Process* (ESAP) and the *Emotional Learning System* (Nelson & Low, 1999, 2003). The assessment, learning, and program evaluation models serve as gateways for self-directed experiential learning and one model to develop specific EI skills, behaviors, and attitudes.

Table 1

I. **II. Emotional Skills Assessment Process (ESAP)** **EI Competencies and Skills**	
Part I: Relationships and Interpersonal 1. Assertion 2. Anger Management 3. Anxiety Management	**Part III: Self Management** 8. Drive Strength 9. Time Management 10. Commitment Ethic 11. Positive Change
Part II: Personal Leadership 4. Comfort/Social Awareness 5. Empathy 6. Decision Making 7. Leadership/Positive Influence	**Part IV: Intrapersonal** 12. Self Esteem 13. Stress Management

The focused research, development, and validation of the PSM (Nelson & Low, 1980) indicated that the emotional system is key to achievement, college success, and personal health. These data suggested that there are important

relationships and positive contributions of the experiential system and emotional mind to success and personal well-being. The ESAP model of emotional intelligence is organized and structured around four competency sets and thirteen emotional skills, as displayed in Table 1. These thirteen facets of EI can be identified by the assessment model to help students to develop more healthy and effective behaviors. The ESAP competency sets and skills are used as a model for experiential learning.

Emotional Learning System

The *Emotional Learning System* (Nelson & Low, 1999, 2003) is a step-by-step process to learn, develop, and apply emotional skills. This experience-based learning is built on the ESAP assessment of 13 facets of emotional intelligence. The *Emotional Learning System* uses person-centered assessment, reflection, constructive thinking, and skill development lessons to guide student learning. The application of learning styles further strengthens the emotional learning process for students. The five-step learning process is described as follows:

1. EXPLORE (Self Assessment): A person-centered assessment students complete as an authentic, inquiring, and discovery process. ESAP surveys are used as a foundation for the learning system.
2. IDENTIFY (Self Awareness): Students identify skill strengths and weaknesses (changes to make) from their personal assessment of emotional intelligence skills. An action plan is constructed to facilitate and guide learning.
3. UNDERSTAND (Self Knowledge): Students reflect on their assessment and action plan. Then, they use constructive thinking to learn key EI skills and understand their impact on achievement and college success. The understanding process includes learning how emotional skills are important to self-defined and self-directed experiential learning, goal setting, personal responsibility, and goal achievement.
4. LEARN (Self Development): Students complete lessons and develop practice sessions to more fully develop, strengthen, and enhance skills that are personal priorities. New and improved behaviors, attitudes, and skills require practice to become habits.
5. APPLY (Self Improvement): Students intentionally attempt to use and model emotional intelligence skills on a consistent and daily basis. The application and use of skilled behaviors and attitudes are learning processes built on reflective and constructive thinking. Students learn that both their cognitive and emotional minds are central to good judgment, responsible behaviors, and successful outcomes.

The *Emotional Learning System* provides a systematic process that students can follow to build the key skills and competencies of emotional intelligence. The learning process demystifies emotional behavior and empowers students through a focus on learning new ways to think, act, and feel.

A confluence of research findings provided a sound basis for the

development of an innovative student development program to explore, identify, understand, learn, and apply the key facets of emotional intelligence. A university-wide intervention program was developed as an attempt to improve the achievement and retention of freshman students. The program emerged from a partnership between University College and the College of Education through a Title V grant-funded program to improve academic success with first-year students. The authors assisted in the design of a research-derived model to implement EI into college success courses. Their "Emotional Skills Assessment Process" was used as the assessment foundation and their "Emotional Learning System" was used for the instruction and learning component for the Javelina Emotional Intelligence (EI) program at Texas A&M University-Kingsville.

Method

The research sample (N=2,498) was comprised of first-year college students enrolled in Fall 2002, Fall 2003, and Spring 2004, and it included 1,298 females and 1,200 males. The majority of the students were Hispanic (65%), followed by white (33%) and African American (2%). All students enrolled in required professional foundational courses were given the opportunity to participate in the study. Informed consent was obtained. The research sample was divided into three groups based on their level of involvement in the Javelina EI program.

Group one consisted of students who completed all EI intervention components. Group two was composed of students who had the opportunity to complete the EI program but did not do so. Group three was composed of students who did not participate in the EI program and served as a control group. Professors teaching group three chose not to incorporate the Javelina EI program in their course content. The research sample included students enrolled in classes in all five undergraduate colleges of the university.

Measures

The ESAP was administered during the first week of classes, and results were used to identify 13 facets of EI. The ESAP is a 213 item instrument presented in an independent response format using a modified Likert scale (three points). In the ESAP assessment model, 13 facet measures of EI are identified and conceptualized as emotional intelligence skills. The ESAP is a measure of current cognitive functioning and has demonstrated convergent and discriminant validity with established measures of emotional intelligence (Nelson, Low, & Vela, 2003).

Procedures

The Javelina EI program was developed as a brief and systematic intervention program to help students explore, identify, understand, learn, and apply the EI facets (skills) measured by the ESAP. Administrators, faculty, and graduate students completed a two-day training seminar on how to implement the Javelina EI program. Administration, interpretation, and learning materials

were standardized, and intervention activities were systematic.

The Javelina EI program consisted of emotional learning components that included ESAP assessments, structured lessons, and homework. The focus of the EI intervention program was on developing time management, goal setting, and personal responsibility skills. The Javelina EI program included these components:

1. Completion of the Emotional Skills Assessment Process (ESAP) (Nelson & Low, 1999).
2. Introduction to the importance of emotional intelligence to academic achievement, college success, and career development. Trained guest presenters conducted the class to present EI content and engage students in discussions of college success.
3. Connection of EI skills assessment to college success. The same guest presenter conducted the class and discussed the student profile of skills from the EI survey administered in step 1. The EI skill of time management was a focal point of the class and the seven-step process.
4. Facilitation of structured group by student mentors and instructor on time management and how to plan and use time for academic success.
5. Completion of homework and out-of-class activities related to time management.
6. Facilitation of structured group by same student mentors and instructor to process and discuss homework.
7. Organization and submission by students of EI packet for academic credit.

From 2001-2004, the Javelina EI program was a central feature of the foundations course. The intervention program was designed to communicate a positive and student-centered learning climate for first-year students and provide assistance in the transition from high school to the university environment. The required student success class was used as the venue for this project because it provided a balance of academic development, career exploration, student support, and study skills.

Results

Analysis of data collected from the EI project (N = 2,498) suggested a significant difference in retention among those students who successfully completed the project compared to those who did not and the control group. A One-Way Analysis of Variance was used to test for significance. The results of this test were $F(2,2495) = 27.3$, $p = .000$. Students who completed the EI project (n = 1,639) were retained at a significantly higher rate (M = 1.58, SD = .49) compared to those who did not (n = 375) complete the project (M = 1.37, SD = .48) and the control group (n = 484; M = 1.52, SD = .50).

Fifty-eight percent of students completing the EI program (n = 952) were retained compared to 37% (n = 140) retained who did not complete the EI

program, and 52% (n = 252) retention of control group students. The hypothesis of no significant difference in retention between the students who successfully completed the EI program, compared to those who did not and the control group, was rejected.

Analysis of data collected from the EI program suggested a significant difference in Grade Point Average (GPA) between those students who successfully completed the project compared to those who did not. A One-Way Analysis of Variance was used to test for significance. The results of this test were F (2,2495) = 54.7, p = .000. Students who completed the EI project (n = 1,639) earned a significantly higher GPA (M = 2.28, SD = 1.03) compared to those who did not (n = 375) complete the project (M = 1.67, SD = 1.16) and the control group (n = 484); M = 1.98, SD = 1.13).

A low GPA leading to dismissal from the institution was significantly higher for those not completing the EI program (54% of GPAs below 2.00) and the control group (41% of GPAs below 2.00) compared to those who completed (30% of GPAs below 2.00) the EI program.

The hypothesis of no significant difference in GPA between students who successfully completed the EI program compared to those who did not was rejected (Boyle, 2004).

The study encompassed the academic terms of Fall 2002, Fall 2003, and Spring 2004, during which a total of 2,498 students participated. Of this total, 1,344 (54%) were retained while 1,154 (46%) left the institution (Table 2).

Table 2
Emotional intelligence and retention by cohort year

Cohort	EI Completed			EI Not Completed			No EI		
	N	R	NR	N	R	NR	N	R	NR
F2002	764	447	317	122	39	83	235	124	111
F2003	751	419	332	130	49	81	186	104	82
S2004	124	86	38	123	52	71	63	24	39
Totals	1,639	952	687	375	140	235	484	252	232

Note. R = Retained; NR = Not Retained

In an initial research project, data from the Javelina EI program showed that achievement and retention rates were improved for students in this program. Analysis of data collected from the EI project indicated a significant difference in grade point average (GPA) in those students who successfully completed the program compared to both those who were exposed to but did not complete the

EI learning process and to students in classes that did not participate in the program. A lower GPA, leading to possible dismissal from the institution, was earned for those not completing the EI program (68% of GPAs below 2.00). A control group of students who did not participate in the EI program earned lower GPAs (38% of GPAs below 2.00). These data contrasted with the positive findings (only 27% of GPAs below 2.00) for students who completed the EI project. Students who completed the EI program earned significantly higher GPAs. Student retention also was improved (Boyle, 2004).

In addition to a positive effect on academic achievement (GPA), the EI program also had a positive impact on retention. For the Fall cohort (N=1,121) year, 59% of students who completed the EI curriculum were retained compared to 32% retained (N=122) who did not complete the EI curriculum. There was a 53% retention of control group (N=235) students (Boyle, 2004).

In a more detailed and comprehensive follow-up analysis, Boyle (2004) conducted a study to determine what, if any, differences occurred in terms of retention when utilizing the Javelina EI program in selected undergraduate courses. Retention, in this study, referred to students who were enrolled at the university one year later.

Discussion

Emotional intelligence is a complex construct that is difficult to quantify and clearly define. The operational definition and assessment model used in this study is only one approach to measuring facets of EI. The limitations that follow have importance when interpreting the results of this study.

1. The design of the study does not allow inferences of cause and effect.
2. The EASP is a self-report measure of general cognitive functioning and as such can only reflect some of the facets of EI.
3. Criteria measures (GPA and retention) are influenced by many variables.

Recent doctoral level studies showed a significant relationship between academic performance and the skills of emotional intelligence for both high school and college students in South Texas (Stottlemyer, 2002 ; Vela, 2003; Williams, 2004; Smith, 2004; Potter, 2005). These studies suggested that learning and applying EI skills may positively impact the success of students during the critical transition period from high school to college and beyond. A substantive and growing “culture of evidence” illustrated the positive effect of emotional intelligence on academic achievement and retention.

In addition to the positive research findings from institutional and doctoral studies, the EI-centric project resulted in other favorable university outcomes. A rich research database was developed, which resulted in other studies and applied educational research. The integrative and inclusive features of the program provided an array of positive and productive outcomes from a variety of perspectives.

From a student perspective, many students received the benefits of EI-centric instruction and student support services. Undergraduate and graduate peer mentors received EI training and gained experience in facilitating classroom discussions and leading groups in class. Several graduate students were able to complete supervised internship experiences and graduate research projects in educational applications of emotional intelligence.

From an instructor perspective, a number of faculty participated in EI-centric professional development and gained skills and ideas for engaging students in goal setting, achievement motivation, study, skills, and personal responsibility. Several instructors cited the EI program for its impact on student achievement.

From a research and educational applications perspective, the EI program resulted in a number of significant achievements. Several doctoral studies and additional graduate research projects utilized the data and referenced program activities. Interdisciplinary faculty presented programs for numerous national, state, and regional conferences. The Institute for Emotional Intelligence was created and convened on the campus of Texas A&M University-Kingsville in 2004. Each year annual institutes are convened to present, share, and disseminate research findings and application projects featuring EI-centric programs in schools, community colleges, universities, and organizations.

In summary, the research literature provides a clear and compelling case for the importance of emotional intelligence to college success, academic achievement, retention, personal health, and leadership. The EI Research Initiative at Texas A&M University-Kingsville provides an academic structure for continuous and ongoing doctoral-level research, interdisciplinary collaborative research, and dissemination of research data and results. The Institute for Emotional Intelligence is an annual professional conference and provides a two to three day forum for sharing applications and disseminating quantitative and qualitative research findings.

The Javelina (EI) program evolved into an effective student and academic development program for first-year students. Texas A&M University-Kingsville received national recognition when the program was selected as an exemplary student development program committed to college success by the American College Personnel Association in 2003. Further, the program was cited by faculty as an innovative and comprehensive program, which improved student achievement and retention. With the interest, encouragement, and support of students, teachers, faculty, and administrators, a substantive “culture of evidence” is building to support the positive contributions of emotional intelligence to academic achievement, student retention, and college success. Additional and well-designed experiential studies are needed to further investigate and clarify the effectiveness of EI intervention and the effectiveness of EI intervention programs for first year college students.

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Chapter 18

Are We Having Fun Yet? Promoting Motivation and Engagement in the Classroom

Jalene P. Potter

Abstract

Given the perception that students' interest in reading decreases with age, there is an increasing concern to understand the instructional practices effective teachers use to motivate students. Researchers have created a list of positive and negative teaching behaviors that can influence student motivation and engagement. From this list, five categories were created which include (a) teaching style behaviors, (b) classroom content behaviors, (c) communication behaviors, (d) behaviors that develop a positive/negative student self-concept, and (e) classroom management behaviors. The purpose of this paper is to describe and provide examples of two of these behaviors: teaching style and communication behaviors. By providing good professional development with these behaviors in mind, educators can create an awareness of the instructional practices needed to increase the motivation and engagement of our students.

Are We Having Fun Yet? Promoting Motivation and Engagement in the Classroom

What are motivation and engagement? According to WordNet (2003), "motivation is the psychological feature that arouses an organism to action toward a desired goal; the reason for the action; that which gives purpose and direction to behavior." Engagement is "the act of sharing in the activities of a group." Skinner, Wellborn, and Connell (1990) define engagement as "children's initiation of action, effort, and persistence on schoolwork, as well as their ambient emotional states during learning activities" (p. 24). According to Guthrie and Anderson (1999), engaged reading refers to the relationship of motivation, conceptual knowledge, strategies, and social interactions during literacy activities.

In the 1990s, the cornerstone of the research mission of the National Reading Research Center was the promotion of student engagement in literacy. As students' value for reading seems to decrease with age, educators' concern with understanding the motivational practices of effective teachers seems to increase (Pressley, 2002). A growing number of researchers are providing work on motivation and engagement to help teachers identify situations in the

classroom and provide ideas educators may use to motivate and engage their students. According to Guthrie, engagement is strongly related to reading achievement. A national sample of students showed that highly engaged readers attained higher achievement than less engaged readers (Guthrie, 2001).

According to a review of the literature by Bogner, Raphael, and Pressley (2002), "the motivating classroom positively affects students' willingness to learn and overall engagement in literacy activities" (p. 137). In their own study of seven first grade classrooms, they made observations and conducted interviews, and created a list of positive and negative behaviors that teachers use to motivate students to engage in literacy activities. The five categories included (a) teaching style behaviors, (b) classroom content behaviors, (c) communication behaviors, (d) behaviors that develop a positive/negative student self-concept, and (c) classroom management behaviors.

As a curriculum specialist, the researcher of this study observes that the teaching style behaviors and communication behaviors enacted by teachers are most crucial in motivating and engaging students in any content area subject. The focus of this paper will be on these two categories and on some examples of instructional practices which have been observed will be discussed.

Teaching Style Behaviors

According to Baker, Dreher, and Guthrie (2000), "By examining what exemplary teachers do, we learn by default what does not typically occur in current instruction, and we gain insight into the best practices that can best serve the needs of all children" (p.11). One teaching style behavior identified by Bogner, Raphael, and Pressley is to positively support appropriate risk-taking in the classroom in a variety of ways. One way is to use the Think-Pair-Share cooperative discussion strategy developed by Frank Lyman and his colleagues in Maryland (Lyman, 1981). For instance, after discussing the Great Depression, students are asked to THINK of how they would have felt if they would have lived during this time period. Students then PAIR up to discuss their conclusions. Pairing students allows the individual to express his or her thoughts in a non-threatening way before sharing with others. The final step is for the pairs to SHARE their thinking with the rest of the class. In addition, teachers can support appropriate risk-taking by providing a reward for participating in classroom discussions. In one first grade classroom, the researcher observed a teacher who encouraged her students to answer questions or share their thoughts by providing a reward. She would say, "Thank you for sharing your thoughts with us," and would give the sticker to the student. This strategy taught the students that their contributions were valued.

On the other hand, teachers often discourage appropriate risk-taking by calling only on the students who have raised their hands. This encourages the students who are not comfortable with participating in discussions to keep their hands down. Another way teachers discourage risk-taking is through their actions after students respond in class discussions. For example, after a student answers a question or discussion topic in class, the teacher simply tells them that

their answer is wrong. This does not validate their contribution to the discussion and negatively affects the child's motivation to engage in the activities in the classroom.

Another teaching style identified by Bogner, Raphael, and Pressley (2002) is to encourage creative and independent thinking. Teachers can provide a variety of activities that enable students to demonstrate learning. For example, after reading *The Three Little Pigs*, students can choose to write a story about three little turtles, write a different ending to the story, or produce artwork displaying a scene from the story. Allowing the students to choose how they will respond to the story promotes creativity and individuality. When teachers model how to use resources to solve problems or help create projects, they are showing their students that there is more than one way to reach a goal. Teachers can also create questions on assessments in which there is more than one right answer. Through modeling, the teacher demonstrates to her students how the thought process of devising an answer is as important as the answer itself. In contrast, giving students worksheets and/or assessments with multiple choice formats teaches students that there is only one answer when solving a problem.

Communication Behaviors

By providing effective praise and feedback to students, teachers encourage students to revel in their accomplishments and to work on ways to improve their performance. When teachers provide valuable comments and suggestions for improvement on projects or papers, students understand that learning is never-ending. When teachers provide immediate validation of a student's answer, they are enticing the student to stay engaged in the activity. Timely validation also encourages responses from other students.

On the other hand, when teachers only give students "grades" on papers or assessments, they are not helping students to grow academically. For example, a student writes a research paper for a culminating project. When the paper is returned, the only feedback he or she receives is a grade of 82. This student knows that according to the teacher's unpublished standards, the work was not of great quality but is unsure of how to improve. Does he/she need to improve on sentence structure? Add more detail to the work? Or is the information provided incorrect? If the teacher provides comments on what he or she did well and suggestions for improvements, then the student could increase the score on the next paper. For example, through effective praise and feedback, the student will learn that the thoughts were clear, but the misuse of quotations affected the grade. Another way that teachers facilitate negative and unnatural communication in the classroom is described by the Initiation-Reply-Evaluation (IRE) pattern. In this pattern, teachers ask the questions, students respond, and then their answers are evaluated by the teacher. The three-part IRE sequence is described as the "natural" interaction, meaning, the one to which we've become socialized, between teachers and students during classroom conversations (Cazden, 1988). According to Cazden, these natural interactions are usually answers to teachers' test questions and not authentic conversations that arise

during lessons. As Cazden argued, “We have to plan more deliberately for the many purposes for talk in our classrooms” (p.77).

When teachers make learning relevant to larger life, they are encouraging students to see the bigger picture. Many students who have never had to move do not have the background knowledge of what life would be like for an immigrant. Through the use of video streaming, students who are studying immigration in social studies can view a video of a girl who has emigrated to another country. In a high school geometry class, an effective teacher relates the use of right angles to their importance in constructing a roof. Without the precise 90º angle, the roof will not hold. When teachers work to incorporate activities into other content areas, they are demonstrating the relationships of topics. Effective teachers question students as to why it is important to learn the skill or concept and how they will use it in their daily life. When teachers do not model how to make connections to previously learned concepts, the students may not be able to make the connections themselves. This habit teaches the students that the information learned is only important enough to stay in the classroom.

Professional Development

Based on the ideas presented in this paper, professional development can be provided for teachers and administrators. As mentioned earlier, only two of the five behaviors from Bogner, Raphael, and Pressley were discussed. Presenters can identify all of the teacher behaviors that can positively and negatively affect student engagement and motivation. These behaviors include (a) teaching style behaviors, (b) classroom content behaviors, (c) communication behaviors, (d) behaviors that develop a positive/negative student self-concept, and (e) classroom management behaviors.

The first step is to define the terms motivation and engagement. These definitions may include those from the dictionary, from research articles, and from participant contributions. This can lead to a group discussion of the relationship between these two words: does motivation influence engagement, does engagement influence motivation, or do they both influence each other equally?

Next, introduce the study by Bogner, Raphael, and Pressley in which seven first grade classrooms were observed to identify these positive and negative behaviors. Presenters should introduce the behavior, define it, and then provide a few examples. For instance, one of the categories not described earlier is classroom management behavior. Some examples include providing rewards that stimulate students, whole class monitoring, and monitoring of individual students (Bogner, Raphael, and Pressley, 2002). For the activity, participants should be divided into groups and given a category or a specific example. They can brainstorm ways to present this positive teaching behavior in their classroom or ways to positively affect student engagement and motivation in this way, as they have seen exemplary teachers model. This activity allows teachers to analyze, reflect on, and evaluate their own teaching behaviors. Another variation

to this activity includes providing the participants with a specific teaching behavior. Their task would be to place this example in the appropriate teaching behavior category and then to explain if it is a positive or negative behavior. As an extension, participants could be asked to change the negative teaching behaviors into positive ones. The final step is to regroup with the entire audience and share the results. Participants should be encouraged to take part in this follow-up discussion by making a contribution to the examples listed, asking for clarifications, or questioning a response.

Conclusion

Effective teaching stimulates and sustains student engagement (Handelsman, Briggs, Sullivan, & Towler, 2005). As teachers learn to analyze their instructional practices and their students' reading, they will become more engaged in improving their teaching (Baker, Dreher, & Guthrie, 2000). Bogner, Raphael and Pressley (2002) developed five categories of teacher behaviors that can affect student motivation and engagement in the classroom. Many instructional practices by effective teachers can overlap into multiple categories. For example, teachers can support appropriate risk-taking by praising those who choose to explore and implement individuality. These behaviors can be categorized under a teaching style behavior, a communication behavior, and behaviors that develop a positive student self-concept. According to Williams (1996), "From the students' point of view, teacher engagement is a prerequisite for student engagement" (p.125). Truly effective teachers increase the motivation and engagement of their students by what they do and what they say.

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