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JOHN DEWEY AND CURRENT PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICES:  
IS DEWEYAN PEDAGOGY IMPLEMENTED TODAY?

presented by

Gloria Gosen Musial

has been accepted towards fulfillment  
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Dr. Janet Elaine Alleman  
Major professor

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JOHN DEWEY AND CURRENT PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICES:  
IS DEWEYAN PEDAGOGY IMPLEMENTED TODAY?

By

Gloria Gosen Musial

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to Michigan State University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Educational Administration

1992

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## ABSTRACT

### JOHN DEWEY AND CURRENT PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICES: IS DEWEYAN PEDAGOGY IMPLEMENTED TODAY?

By

Gloria Gosen Muslal

John Dewey began to lay the foundation for changes in American public education almost 100 years ago. The purpose of this study was to describe and explain if and how Deweyan pedagogical practices have been implemented in a public elementary school in 1991-1992.

The central concepts in the study were instructional behaviors set out by Dewey. These were selected by the researcher, formulated into a matrix, and validated by a panel of experts. Data were collected through observations and interviews in a public elementary school in 1991-1992. The validated matrix of pedagogical practices was the standard through which interactions were viewed and analyzed. Through analysis of the data from the observations and interviews, it was found that Deweyan pedagogical practices in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 are not evident in terms of a pattern, but flickers

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exist. Instructional strategies are best described as "conservative."

It was theorized that the behaviors found in the study lead to both intended and unintended effects that result in reinforcement of conservative instructional pedagogy. At the same time, the reinforcement of conservative instruction preserves both the effects and the behaviors themselves. The cycle of reinforcement generated by conservative behaviors and the intended and unintended effects virtually drives out patterns of Deweyan-style innovations which enter the process in a one-way pattern only. Implications of the results of the study include that interventions must break the cycle of reinforcement for Dewey's ideas to be more evident in public schools today.

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This work is dedicated to my family.  
They sacrificed a lot for this project, yet they  
never failed to communicate their confidence in me.  
My strength comes from them and God.

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There are many people who provided guidance and support for this study. I wish to recognize and thank all who aided me in this endeavor.

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Finally, I wish to acknowledge the assistance of an entire elementary school community. The school staff, the students, and the parents accepted, supported, and trusted me. I thank them deeply.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### Background

During his lifetime, John Dewey (1859-1952) was hailed as America's greatest educator. He remains one of the best known thinkers of the twentieth century as well as one of our most influential educators. Almost 100 years ago Dewey wrote his first article and began to lay the foundation for changes in American public education. He was a prolific writer, and, although he has been dead almost 40 years, contemporary education scholars continue to use his work as a basis for research and recommendations.

Dewey (1899, pp. 32-35) decried a pedagogy in which children were required to be passive and conforming. "Learning? certainly, but living primarily, and learning through and in relation to this living," Dewey (1899, p. 37) said. Meyer (1931, p. 5), when describing Dewey's philosophy regarding experience and learning says, "Education is more than inactive listening; it is more than a pouring-in procedure." Dewey envisioned pedagogical practices which responded to learners' needs for activity and experience.

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For the purposes of this study, eight pedagogical practices rooted in Dewey's were selected and studied. They are introduced and discussed in the next eight subsections.

### Classrooms that are cooperative social organizations

Dewey (1938) urged educators to develop and to work within classrooms that are cooperative social organizations because "democratic social arrangements promote a better quality of human experience, one which is more widely accessible and enjoyed" (p. 25). Education should be considered a social process that is realized to the degree to which the pupils in the classes form community groups of which their teachers serve as members and leaders, Dewey (1938, pp. 65-66) related. Believing that "the adult world was too complex for children and that the amount of knowledge was overwhelming" (Cavanaugh, 1990, p. 277), Dewey wanted classroom teachers to "promote ways of learning and living that demonstrate habits of cooperation, free communication, and reflective thinking" (Wirth, 1966, p.124). His theory was "[democratic] values are learned better when lived than when merely talked about" (Cavanaugh, 1990, p.277). Dewey (1916) wrote, "The measure of the worth of the administration, curriculum, and methods of instruction of the school is

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the extent to which they are animated by a social spirit" (p. 358).

Schools that are cooperative social organizations

Dewey addressed the importance of schools as cooperative social organizations. He wanted to "use the schools to promote democratic cooperation" (Cavanaugh, 1990, p. 221). In 1899, Dewey wrote,

[the] school itself shall be made a genuine form of active community life (p. 11) . . . and organized on a social basis (p.14) [as] . . . a miniature community, an embryonic society (p. 15).

The common needs and aims [of the school as a society] demand a growing interchange of thought and growing unity of sympathetic feeling. (p. 11)

There should be "[a] spirit of free communication, of interchange of ideas, suggestions, results, both successes and failures of previous experiences," Dewey (1899, p. 13) wrote.

Regarding the organization of the school and the teacher's role within that organization, Dewey stated that a "cooperative social organization" should apply to both the teaching body of the school as well as to the pupils (Mayhew & Edwards, 1936, p. 371). Teachers should be treated as colleagues by administrators of the school (Wirth, 1966, p. 188).

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In a discussion about how the pedagogical practices of the University of Chicago Laboratory School, for which he served as director, related to its theoretical principles, Dewey discussed teachers as "experts who maintain agreement and harmony through continued consultation and cooperation" (Mayhew & Edwards, 1936, p. 36, citing Dewey, 1897b). Teachers, students, administrators, and parents shared in the same educational benefits as a result of sharing in the same social process, he said (Mayhew & Edwards, 1936, p. 382). Wirth (1966, p. 124) states, "The school was designed to be a community because an important feature was the coordination between individuals and society that could result . . . Minds and selves are formed by free interaction with others--through communication, cooperation, inquiry, and thinking."

Dewey considered continual interchange among teachers as serving to integrate and coordinate program and disciplinary matters. Teachers in the University Laboratory School were released from teaching responsibilities 20-30 minutes each day so they could "visit and advise with other groups and teachers" (Mayhew & Edwards, 1936, p. 375). The transcript of a teachers' meeting chaired by Dewey in 1899 provides insight into Dewey's feelings about teacher association



and interchange as important for "supervision, critic teaching, and technical training" and his caution that such consultations, which could be informal interchange or the more formal interchange of a weekly meeting, must "have a marked intellectual quality" and must sometimes be "allotted to the specific discussion of underlying principles and aims of the school" (Mayhew & Edwards, 1936, pp. 370-371).

#### Integration of scientific problem solving into learning experiences

Dewey conceived of thinking as a method of problem solving in which the scientific method is applied to all sorts of problems "from the simple everyday type of problem to complicated social problems and abstract intellectual problems" (Tanner & Tanner, 1987, p. 37). This is one of his ideas which has had the most influence on the theory and practice of American education (p. 36). Dewey (1938, p. 108) spoke of scientific problem solving as an integral part of a rich learning environment when he discussed the "systematic utilization of scientific method as the pattern and ideal of intelligent exploration and exploitation of the potentialities inherent in experience."

Subject matter and the development and training of the mind should not be isolated and independent of each other, Dewey (1916, p. 138; 1933, pp. 230-232) thought. The scientific method provided

a working pattern of the way in which and the conditions under which experiences are used to lead ever onward and outward (Dewey, 1938, p. 111) [into] an expanding world of subject matter. (p. 108)

"Thinking is the method of intelligent learning" and "the method of an educative experience" (Dewey, 1916, pp. 153 & 163).

#### Student development of self direction

Student development of self direction was very important to Dewey. Dewey (1899) said that any chance society had to be "true to itself" was "by being true to the full growth of the individuals who make it up" (pp. 4-5). When the school reflects the life of the larger society, Dewey said, part of what will be accomplished as it "introduces and trains each child into membership within such a little community" will be to provide each child with "the instruments of effective self-direction" (pp. 27-28).

Dewey (1938) focuses on student development of the "power of self-control" as "[t]he ideal aim of

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education (p.75)." Self-control, as defined by Dewey (p. 77) is the freedom and power of the learner to participate both in the formation of purposes which will direct his activities in the learning process as well as in the organization of the means to execute those purposes.

Use of interdisciplinary units of study that incorporate the active involvement of students as they address problems relevant to real life

Dewey (1899, pp. 37-38) viewed the child as already intensely active, and "the question of education is taking hold of [the child's] activities, of giving them direction . . . so they tend toward valuable results, instead of scattering and being left to merely impulsive expression," he said. Dewey (1899) described the use of interdisciplinary units of study incorporating active involvement of students as they address problems relevant to construction or occupation work, scientific observation and experimentation. He said,

the object of such forms of practice in the school. . .is found in their connection, on the social side, with the life without; while on the individual side they respond to the child's need of action, of expression, of desire to do

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Various forms of active work, in the form of communal projects, are the means through which "the entire spirit of the school is renewed" and through which the school "has a chance to affiliate itself with life" (Dewey, 1899, p. 15).

If the child's activities are related to life as a whole, Dewey (1899, p. 80) said, then the child's studies are unified and naturally correlated. Active work must be conceived of "as methods of living and learning, not as distinct studies," Dewey (1899, p. 11) wrote.

#### Use of cooperative learning approaches to instruction

In 1897, Dewey (1897b, cited in Mayhew & Edwards, 1936) wrote about cooperative learning approaches to instruction as instrumental to the development of social skills and discipline when he said:

[the] only genuine order and discipline are those which proceed from the child's own respect for the work which he has to do and his consciousness of the rights of others who are, with himself, taking part in this work . . . the emphasis . . . upon various forms of practical activity gives ample opportunity for appealing to the child's social

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sense . . . moral growth is measured by the extent to which children practically recognize in the school the same moral motives and relations that obtain outside. (p.32)

Dewey (1899) continued to discuss cooperative learning approaches to instruction when he stated, "[M]utual assistance [is] the most natural form of co-operation and association . . . Helping others. . . is simply an aid in setting free the powers and furthering the impulse of the one helped"(p.13).

Educational activities in school should be related to real life and "provide a context of work and play in association with others . . . an opportunity for a social atmosphere . . . a miniature social group in which study and growth are incidents of present shared experience" (Dewey, 1916, p. 358). Learning activities should "involve intercourse, communication, and cooperation--all extending the perception of connections," Dewey (p. 358) said.

In 1938, Dewey wrote that a teacher's greater maturity and knowledge are for arranging "conditions that are conducive to community activity and to organization which exercises control over individual impulses by the mere fact that all are engaged in communal projects" (p. 64). He called experience



gained through social cooperation in communal projects the "mother of all discipline worth the name" (Dewey, 1899, p.15).

Knowledge and use of students' experiential backgrounds and developmental levels to make the various disciplines of knowledge part of a total and growing experience

// Dewey (1902) urged educators to know and use students' experiential backgrounds and developmental levels to make the various disciplines of knowledge part of a total and growing experience. / He described the child and the curriculum as "simply two limits which define a single process . . . instruction" which should move from "the child's present experience out into that [experience] represented by the organized bodies of truth that we call studies" (p. 97). In // 1938, Dewey wrote, "It is a cardinal precept . . . that the beginning of instruction shall be made with the experience learners already have; that this experience and the capacities that have been developed during its course provide the starting point for all further learning" (p. 88). / The teacher should be concerned with

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that is usable with reference to it; how such elements are to be used; how his own knowledge of the subject matter may assist in interpreting the child's needs and doings, and determine the medium in which the child should be placed in order that his growth may be properly directed. (Dewey, 1902, p. 105)

Emphasis on a process approach to instruction including regard for books and reading as tools for learning

Through his writings, Dewey emphasizes a process approach to instruction that includes regard for books and reading as tools for learning. His discussion clearly focuses on teaching and learning as a continuous process of reconstruction of experience in which growth or maturity should be ever present (Dewey, 1938, pp. 52 & 111). Reading, Dewey believed, should be taught "in close connection with other subjects, not as a subject by itself. . . not as a textbook . . . [but] as an additional tool in his [the child's] equipment" (Dewey, 1897b, cited in Mayhew & Edwards, 1936, pp. 26-27).

"Acquiring is always secondary, and instrumental to the act of inquiring," Dewey (1916, p. 148) said. "Reading and writing, as well as the oral use of language, may be taught . . . as the outgrowth of the

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"plenty of opportunities and occasions for the necessary use of reading, writing (and spelling), and number work . . . not as isolated studies, but as organic outgrowths of the child's experience" (p. 106). Dewey (1897b, cited in Mayhew & Edwards, 1936, p. 33) believed that "it is impossible to separate the attainment of knowledge from its application . . . [w]ithout the consciousness of application, learning has no motive to the child."

### Summary

Dewey devised and described ways American education could be made more relevant for a changing American society. Dewey urged educators to

- \*develop and work within classrooms that are cooperative social organizations (Baker, 1955, p. 153; Dewey, 1897b, p. 26; 1899, pp. 11-14; 1916, p. 99; 1938, pp. 58, 65 & 77-78; Mayhew & Edwards, 1936, pp. 32, 305, 393-394 & 472; Meriam, 1959, p. 30)

- \*create cooperative social organizations within schools (Mayhew & Edwards, 1936, p. 36, p.167; pp. 368-370 & 376-377)

- \*integrate scientific problem solving into learning experiences (Dewey, 1902, p. 92; 1916,

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pp. 148-151, 153 & 163; 1938, pp. 98-99, 105-106 & 111-114; & Mayhew & Edwards, 1936, pp. 422-426 & 431)

**\*focus on student development of self direction**  
(Dewey, 1899, pp.3-4 & 28; 1938, pp. 74-77; Mayhew & Edwards, 1936, p. 33)

**\*design and use interdisciplinary units of study that incorporate the active involvement of students as they address problems relevant to real life** (Dewey, 1899, pp. 37-56; Mayhew & Edwards, 1936, pp. 27-32)

**\*use cooperative learning approaches to instruction** (Dewey, 1899, pp. 11-14, 32-35 & 71-80); 1916, p. 358; 1938, pp. 61-68; Mayhew & Edwards, 1936, p. 27)

**\*know and use students' experiential backgrounds and developmental levels to make the various disciplines of knowledge part of a total and growing experience** (Dewey, 1899, pp. 37-38; 1902, pp. 97 & 105; 1938, pp.44-45 & 88-91)

**\*use a process approach to instruction in which books and the ability to read are regarded as tools for learning** (Dewey, 1899, pp. 20, 50, 67, 68-69, 70, 72, 81 & 106-107; 1916, p. 358; 1938,

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p. 52, p.111; Mayhew & Edwards, 1936, p.26; pp. 373, 452)

Educators who are familiar with Dewey's works may wonder if and how pedagogical practices of teachers in today's elementary schools reflect the pedagogy Dewey described beginning almost 100 years ago.

#### Purpose of the Study

The researcher's purpose in this case study is to describe if and how Deweyan pedagogical practices have been implemented in a public elementary school in 1991-1992.

#### Methodology

For the purposes of this study, the researcher used a method of educational research called educational ethnography, a form of descriptive, on-site research. In gathering data on pedagogical practices from staff members and students (informants), the researcher employed a variety of methods including observation, interviews, field notes, audiotape recordings, and collections of artifacts.

The eight Deweyan instructional practices and behavioral indicants of those practices were formulated into a matrix. A panel of experts knowledgeable about Dewey validated the matrix as representative of Dewey. Then, the researcher used the validated matrix as the standard for viewing the

interactions of teachers and for addressing the research questions.

### Theoretical Framework for This Study

Many propositions relating to Deweyan pedagogical practices may be formulated from the ideas contained in Dewey's works. My Pedagogic Creed (1897a), The School and Society (1899), The Child and the Curriculum (1902), all written while Dewey served as Director of the Laboratory School at the University of Chicago; Democracy and Education (1916), written while he was Professor of Philosophy at Columbia University; and Experience and Education (1938), written while he was Professor Emeritus of Philosophy in Residence at Columbia University serve as sources for this researcher's synthesis of the propositions that follow.

### Essential Deweyan Propositions Applicable to This Study of Pedagogical Practices.

1. If the goal of education and the process of education are believed to be congruous, then the task of teachers is to aid students in the use of the various disciplines of knowledge as resources to address problem-oriented issues related to the interests and experiences of the students.

2. If teachers take the responsibility to find out the background of experience of their students and

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to select those things within the range of each student's experience that relate to the curriculum and that have the promise and potentiality of both knowledge and further growth/ then students and teachers can experience orderly/development toward expansion and organization of experiences, find the meaning of experience growing out of a former experience, and lead into a subsequent experience which expands meaning and significance.

Knowledge and use of students' experiential backgrounds and developmental levels to make the various disciplines of knowledge part of a total and growing experience in classrooms and schools that are cooperative social organizations are reflective of Deweyan Propositions One and Two.

3. If teachers assume responsibility for knowing students' experiential backgrounds, for knowing ways in which a particular discipline of knowledge may become part of a total and growing experience, and for leading students in the development of democratic, intelligent control, then teachers guide and direct the group to select activities which lend themselves to the development of a social organization in which all individuals have an opportunity to contribute something, and responsible discipline becomes a function of each individual in the school community.

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4. If teachers guide and direct activities according to the goals of the curriculum and with possibilities of growth and expansion into subsequent experience and enrichment in mind, then the moving spirit of the group establishes order, and the control is social (i.e., a function of each individual in the school community).

Classrooms and schools that are cooperative social organizations as well as cooperative learning approaches to instruction are reflective of Propositions Three and Four.

5. If teachers view the child as an active being and take hold of the child's activities, then through direction and organized use, the child's activities will tend toward growth in understanding the various disciplines of knowledge instead of scattering or being left to merely impulsive expression.

Five practices reflect Proposition Five (a) the use of cooperative learning precepts, (b) the design and use of interdisciplinary units of study that incorporate the active involvement of students as they address problems relevant to real life, (c) knowledge and use of students' experiential backgrounds and developmental levels to make the various disciplines of knowledge part of a total and growing experience, (d) classrooms that are cooperative social organizations,

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6. If teachers guide and direct student growth by using active forms of practice, then teachers respond to the child's need for action, for expression, and for being constructive--instead of simply being passive and conforming.

7. If children in the schools study the social environment, then the connection between the school and real life is viewed as a natural connection of the everyday life of the child with the broader social environment about him.

The use of interdisciplinary units that incorporate the active involvement of students as they address problems relevant to real life reflect Propositions Six and Seven. The use of cooperative learning approaches to instruction aligns with Proposition Six. Classrooms and schools that are cooperative social organizations as well as the process approach to instruction and regard for books and reading as tools for learning are reflective of Proposition Seven.

8. If reading and writing are taught as outgrowths of the students' desires to relate experiences and to get in return the experiences of others, then symbolic and formal learning is relegated



to a secondary position and actual use, experience, and growth become primary.

A process approach to instruction in which books and the ability to read are regarded as tools for learning is reflective of Proposition Eight as is the emphasis on student development of self direction.

9. If teachers provide a rich learning environment, then students will be interested in continuous activities for their own sake. Genuine problems (i.e., learning purposes) will develop and stimulate thought. The students will secure relevant information as well as make observations to determine what is needed to deal with the problem. Suggested solutions are tested by application to make meaning clear and students discover for themselves their ideas' validity.

10. If teachers act as leaders and directors of group activities, then students have roles in the planning and implementation of classroom activities, and they participate in the formation of purposes that direct their activities in the learning process.

Integration of scientific problem solving into learning experiences and student development of self direction are reflective of Propositions Nine and Ten. Proposition Ten is reflected in classrooms and schools

that are cooperative social organizations and in the use of cooperative learning approaches.

11. If all parts of the school system are integrated with other parts of life--including the home environment, the natural environment, business life, and the universities--then no gap will exist between the everyday experiences of the children and what the children are learning in school, the children can utilize in school everything they are learning outside of school, and apply in daily life what they are learning at school.

The emphasis on a process approach to instruction and regard for books and reading as tools for learning are reflective of Proposition Eleven.

12. If students get individual attention and are treated as individuals having independent minds, not as having minds dependent upon the teachers' minds, then free interchange of ideas, suggestions, and results may take place among students, teachers, and administrators.

13. If students have a role in the planning and implementation of classroom activities and if they participate in the formation of purposes which direct their activities in the learning process, then they will become self-directed learners who can form purposes, judge wisely, evaluate desires by the

consequences which will result from acting upon them, and have the power to select and order means to carry chosen ends into operation.

Student development in self direction is reflective of Propositions Twelve and Thirteen. Both propositions also are reflected in classrooms and schools that are cooperative social organizations.

#### Significance of the Study

Deweyan pedagogy is very demanding. It requires teachers to be collegial, self-confident, and mindful about individual students and disciplines of knowledge. Teachers must match each learner's experiential background with the curriculum and, at the same time, provide for active participation of learners in learning experiences that expand their existing experiences and knowledge. This can prove to be especially difficult because Dewey considered learner input into the purposes of the learning to be very important.

Confusion has existed over the years because some innovators have used Dewey's theories indiscriminately. Some practices claimed to be Deweyan have been based on misinterpretations (Baker, 1955, p. 2; Tanner & Tanner, 1987, pp. 38-39). The degree of guidance teachers are to provide to students is an example. Some educators have misinterpreted Dewey to the point of "letting the

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children do what they want to do today" (Blackman, personal communication, March 13, 1992). Dewey held to a greater degree of leadership on the part of the teacher.

The significance of this study derives from the important members of the education profession have accorded to John Dewey and his theories over a period of almost 100 years. Dewey's theories are said to have had a

wide influence in educational thinking and discussion, both in America and in other countries. . . . Throughout the literature there are constant references to his theories, and there is hardly an intelligent discussion of the theory or practice of schooling which does not, at some point and in some manner, take his suggestions into account" (Baker, 1955, p.1).

Tanner and Tanner (1987, p. 36) called Dewey "the leading figure in the theory and practice of American education." If Dewey has been so influential in American education, then pedagogical practices in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 should reflect some of that influence.

Through this study, the researcher selected pedagogical practices rooted in Deweyan writings. Then, the researcher examined instructional

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interactions in a public elementary school. Next, the researcher determined if and how teaching practices in accord with what America's greatest and most influential educator devised and described have been implemented in a public elementary school almost 100 years after he first began to write.

### Research Questions

Questions regarding if and how Deweyan pedagogical practices have been implemented in some public elementary school classrooms are of central concern in this study. Using the validated matrix with the behavioral indicants of each practice as the standard for viewing the classroom practices of the teachers, the following questions will be addressed:

1. Do teachers in a public elementary school develop and work within classrooms that are cooperative social organizations?

- 1a. If so, what is the evidence of classrooms as cooperative social organizations?

2. Do teachers in a public elementary school develop and work within a school that is a cooperative social organization?

- 2a. If so, what is the evidence that the school is a cooperative social organization?

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3. Do teachers in a public elementary school integrate scientific problem solving into learning experiences?

3a. If so, what is the evidence of integration of scientific problem solving into learning experiences?

4. Do teachers in a public elementary school focus on student development of self direction?

4a. If so, what is the evidence of the teachers' focus on student development of self direction?

5. Do teachers in a public elementary school design and use interdisciplinary units of study that incorporate the active involvement of students as they address problems relevant to real life?

5a. If so, what is the evidence of the design and use of interdisciplinary units of study that incorporate active involvement of students as they address problems relevant to real life?

6. Do teachers in a public elementary school use cooperative learning approaches to instruction?

6a. If so, what is the evidence of cooperative learning approaches to instruction?

7. Do teachers in a public elementary school know and use students' experiential backgrounds and developmental levels to make the various disciplines of knowledge part of a total and growing experience?

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7a. If so, what is the evidence of the knowledge and use of students' experiential backgrounds and developmental levels to make the various disciplines of knowledge part of a total and growing experience?

8. Do teachers in a public elementary school use a process approach to instruction in which books and the ability to read are regarded as tools for learning?

8a. If so, what is the evidence of this use of a process approach to instruction in which books and the ability to read are regarded as tools for learning?

#### Limitations

This study has certain limitations as do all types of research. The reader is cautioned to avoid generalizing the findings to populations beyond the those of the school represented in the study. The amount of interpretations of any kind of research--quantitative as well as ethnographic/qualitative--is infinite, and this study should be considered (for the researcher as well as for the reader) an

experience which has the promise and potentiality of presenting new problems which by stimulating new ways of observation and judgment will expand the area of further experience. (Dewey, 1938, p. 89)

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Although the researcher analyzed carefully Dewey's writing and that of those who've written about Dewey, subjectivity of selecting pedagogical practices needs to be examined. Another researcher may have preferred to study other practices or to emphasize some and to deemphasize different ones. The practices selected, like the Deweyan propositions that form the theoretical framework for this study, are not intended to be all-inclusive of those representative of Dewey.

#### Organization of the Dissertation

The study is presented from an ethnographic, observer point of view. Chapter I includes material on the background of the study, theoretical framework, purposes of the study, methodology, significance of the study, research questions, and limitations. Chapter II consists of a review of the literature by and about John Dewey that describes an elementary school in terms of the Deweyan ideal. The methodology in the study is described in Chapter III. Chapter IV provides the analysis of the results of the study. For Chapter IV, the researcher used information from personal observations, interviews, tape recordings, field notes, and a collection of various artifacts. Chapter V contains the findings and conclusions of the study along with further research recommendations and reflections. Information from the analysis of the data

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was used to generate an explanation for the findings,  
and a correlating theory is discussed.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### Introduction

Throughout his writings, John Dewey discusses what he believes is an ideal school. This chapter is a description of a Deweyan elementary school.

#### A Social Spirit

In School and Society (1899), Dewey describes his ideal elementary school as "a genuine form of active community life, instead of a place set apart in which to learn lessons" (p. 11). The people in the Deweyan school "work together along common lines, in a common spirit, and with reference to common aims" (Dewey, 1899, p. 11). Dewey views education as a social process (Dewey, 1938, p. 66). Method, purpose, and understanding exist in the consciousness of the ones who do the work (Dewey, 1899, p.21).

There is a social motive for learning. It is agreed that the main goal of the school is to guide the students to grow and develop in the direction of social capacity and service so they will be able to freely and actively participate in modern social life (Dewey, 1899, pp. 11-14).



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In the Deweyan school, the spirit of service is emphasized. Educators endeavor to provide the students with the instruments of effective self direction:

All that society has accomplished for itself is put, through the agency of the school, at the disposal of its future members. All its better thoughts of itself it hopes to realize through the new possibilities thus opened to its future self. Here individualism and socialism are at one. Only by being true to the full growth of all the individuals who make it up, can society be true to itself. And in the self-direction thus given, nothing counts as much as the school, for, as Horace Mann said, "Where anything is growing, one former is worth a thousand re-formers." (Dewey, 1899, pp. 3-4)

Dewey postulates that the realization of individuality and the realization of community can be synonymous. Baker (1955) calls this Deweyan ethical postulate a part of "the fundamentals of democratic ethics" (p. 54).

A tragic weakness of what Dewey (1899) calls the "present school" is that "it endeavors to prepare future members of the social order in a medium in which the conditions of the social spirit are eminently wanting" (p. 12). He views the "present" school as a

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school in which students merely absorb facts and truths, and "[there] is no obvious social motive for the acquirement of mere learning, there is no clear social gain in success thereat" (Dewey, 1899, p. 13). The mere absorbing of facts and truths "tends very naturally to pass into selfishness" (Dewey, 1899, pp. 12-13).

In the present school, Dewey (1899) sees the main measure of success as a competitive one, "in the bad sense of that term--a comparison of results in the recitation or in the examination to see which child has succeeded in getting ahead of others in storing up, in accumulating, the maximum of information" (p. 13). Helping others in this kind of school was seen almost as a school crime, not as the "most natural form of cooperation and association. . . an aid in setting free the powers and furthering the influences of the one helped" (p. 13). The Deweyan school has a "spirit of free communication, of interchange of ideas, suggestions, results, both successes and failures of previous experiences" (p. 13). Individuals are compared with regard to the quality of work done, not in regard to the quantity of information absorbed.

Students have a role in the planning and implementation of classroom activities (Dewey, 1899, pp. 11-14 & pp. 32-35). They participate in the

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formation of the purposes which direct their activities in the learning process (Dewey, 1938, p.77).

### Relevant Experience

The school is related to life as a whole and is based on experience. Dewey (1916, pp. 89-90) provides what he calls a "technical definition of education" when he says that education "is that reconstruction or reorganization of experience which adds to the meaning of experience, and which increases ability to direct the course of subsequent experience." Students utilize their experiences and interests in school and apply to their daily lives what they learn in school. In his discussion regarding the ideal school, Dewey (1899) uses the ideal home as justification:

If we take an example from an ideal home, where the parent is intelligent enough to recognize what is best for the child, and is able to supply what is needed, we find the child learning through the social converse and constitution of the family. There are certain points of interest and value to him in the conversation carried on: statements are made, inquiries arise, topics are discussed, and the child continually learns. He states his experiences, his misconceptions are corrected. Again the child participates in the household occupations, and thereby gets habits of industry,

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order, and regard for the rights and ideas of others, and the fundamental habit of subordinating his activities to the general interest of the household. Participation in these household tasks becomes an opportunity for gaining knowledge. The ideal home would . . . have a workshop where the child could work out his constructive instincts. It would have a miniature laboratory in which his inquiries could be directed. The life of the child would extend out of doors to the garden, surrounding fields, and forests. He would have his excursions, his walks and talks, in which the larger world out of doors would open to him.

(pp. 35-36)

"Now, if we organize and generalize all of this," Dewey (1899) states, "we have the ideal school." In such a school, what can be done in most households only in a meager and haphazard manner is done "systematically in a large, intelligent and competent way" (p. 36).

The child is brought into contact "with more grown people and with more children in order that there may be the freest and richest social life" (Dewey, 1899, p. 37). Continuous growth in experience for each child is the main object. "Learning? certainly, but living primarily, and learning through and in relation to this living" (p. 37).



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Learning is thought to be important, but living and experiencing are primary. The life of the child is the dominant aim of the school (Dewey, 1899, p. 37).

Experiences learners already have are the beginning points of new instruction. Then comes "orderly development toward expansion and organization of subject matter through growth of experience" (Dewey, 1938, pp. 88-89).

Educators in the Deweyan school take the responsibility to find out the background of experience of their students. They select

those things within the range of existing experience that have the promise and potentiality of presenting new problems which by stimulating new ways of observation and judgment will expand the area of further experience. (Dewey, 1938, pp.89-91)

Relevance to life includes relevance to business, industry, and the university as well as relevance to the life of the home. The Deweyan school has close ties to business and industry because they represent real life. The school has a longer school day than traditional elementary schools, fewer vacations, and a shorter summer vacation because that is the way it is in social life and industry. Connections between business conditions and the experiences of students are

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utilized and illuminated so that students' studies are in reference to the business and social environment around them (Meriam, 1959, p. 30).

//Children in a Deweyan school study such subjects as mathematics and geography, not as isolated things by themselves, but with reference to the social environment, including business and industry. Deweyan principles recognize "the necessity for free play between the school and the needs and forces of industry" (Dewey, 1899, p. 67). The connection between the school and business life is not meant to prepare the child for any particular business, but is viewed as a natural connection of the everyday life of the child with the business environment about him. Teachers in the school

clarify and liberalize this connection, to bring it to consciousness . . . by keeping alive the ordinary bonds of relation. The youth needs to become acquainted with the bank as a factor in modern life, with what it does, and how it does it; and then relevant arithmetical processes would have some meaning. (pp. 69-70) //

The Deweyan school is a part of a school system in which free interaction between all parts of the school system exists. The university, considered a part of the school system, puts its resources at the disposal

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of the school contributing to the evolution of subject matter and method. The school, in turn, is a laboratory in which the student of education can see theories and ideas demonstrated, tested, criticized, and, possibly, reinforced (Dewey, 1899, pp. 82-83).

#### Activities and Connection to Social Life

Students and teachers in a Deweyan school are active. The child is viewed as an active being, and educators take hold of the child's activities and give them direction. Dewey (1899) states:

The child is already intensely active, and the question of education is the question of taking hold of his activities, of giving them direction. Through direction, through organized use, they tend toward valuable results, instead of scattering or being left to merely impulsive expression. (p. 37)

Dewey (1899) says the value of activities, is that they "keep the balance between the social and individual" (p. 72).

In the Deweyan school, all studies are of necessity correlated because the school is related as a whole to life. Dewey (1899, p. 81) states, "The growth of the child in the direction of social capacity and service, his larger and more vital union with life,

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becomes the unifying aim; and discipline, culture, and information fall into place as phases of this growth."

The Deweyan school is a part of a school system which is welded into a complete whole through having all parts of the system united to life, including the home environment of the children; the natural environment; business life; and the universities. The child utilizes in school his experiences outside of school; the child applies in daily life what he is learning at school. There is no gap between the everyday experiences of the child and what the child learns in school (Dewey, 1899, pp. 66-67). The object of hands-on, active forms of practice in the school

is not found chiefly in themselves, or in the technical skill of cooks, seamstresses, carpenters, and masons, but in their connection, on the social side, with the life without; while on the individual side they respond to the child's need of action, of expression, of desire to do something, to be constructive and creative, instead of simply passive and conforming. (p. 72)

Activities are similar to those found in the home (work in wood and metal, weaving, sewing, and cooking), nature study, elementary science, art, and history. These are the means through which the students live, experience, and learn. By participating in these



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relevant activities in school, students keep alert and active. Such processes are how society keeps itself going, and they are "instrumentalities" by which the school itself is made a genuine form of community life (Dewey, 1899, pp. 14-15 & 20-28).

Relevant activities include construction, scientific observation, and experimentation. Through them, students have plenty of opportunities and occasions for the necessary use of reading, writing, spelling, and mathematics.

The final justification of shops, kitchens, and so on in the school is not just that they afford opportunity for activity, but that they provide opportunity for the kind of activity or for the acquisition of skills which leads students to attend to the relation of means and ends, and then to consideration of the way things interact with one another to produce definite effects. (Dewey, 1938, p. 106)

Reading and writing are taught as means, outgrowths of the students' desires to relate experiences and to get in return the experiences of others. Symbolic and formal learning is relegated to a secondary position. The teacher helps the students to see the relation between everyday life and the abstract

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and symbolic subjects like reading, writing, and mathematics (Dewey, 1899, pp. 20, 50, & 106).

### Discipline as Social Control

Because of the active work going on, the members of the school community organize themselves on a social basis. School personnel give students individual attention and treat them as individuals having independent minds, not as having minds dependent upon the teachers' minds. In the Deweyan school, a discipline of its own type is born out of doing things in an active, social and cooperative way.

The Deweyan school is democratic though under guidance by teachers. Pupils are largely responsible to the group which is ideally characterized by much interaction and cooperation (Meriam, 1959, p. 30). The teacher is considered a member of the group and acts as a leader and director of group activities in facilitating the free interchange of ideas. The moving spirit of the group establishes order and social control (Dewey, 1938, pp. 58, 66).

The educator is responsible for a knowledge of individuals and for a knowledge of subject-matter that will enable activities to be selected which lend themselves to social organization, an organization in which all individuals have an opportunity to contribute something, and in which

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the activities in which all participate are the chief carrier of control. (pp. 61-62)

According to Baker (1955), teachers and students in the Deweyan school exchange ideas daily, and often hourly. The exchanges consist of the formation of goals and plans to execute the accomplishment of goals. Teachers are leaders in the process, and they help to curb any tendency the students may have to accept too hastily inadequately formed purposes and plans. Teachers insist that goals and plans be "weighed, through reflection, against previous experiences, and with consideration for possible consequences" (p. 153).

The teacher's part [is] to answer questions and by skillful refreshing of the children's memories to insure that plans for the day [are] workable and also different enough in character to furnish a new experience involving a problem for the group. (Mayhew and Edwards, 1936, p. 305)

After the problem is formulated, the teacher's emphasis on (what the school calls) a test-and-see attitude helps to sustain control (Baker, 1955).

With the younger children, Baker (1955) tells us, teachers are more direct in their guidance toward the development of democratic, intelligent control among the members of the school community. As children grow in their ability to assume more responsibility, the

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teachers gradually release responsibility to them, and "responsible discipline become[s] a function of each individual in the school community" (Baker, 1955, p. 153).

#### Loss of Control and Adaptations to It

Discipline and curriculum are linked in the sense that teachers in the Deweyan school see a loss of control (i.e., student misbehavior) as caused by the absence of continuity of the experience and/or student identification with the enterprise of the group. In such cases, teachers work to interpret student behavior and guide students toward the reestablishment of continuity with group purposes. When some students appear to lose interest and attention in an activity, or when some students interfere with the interests and efforts of others, Deweyan teachers may shift in method and take those students out of the class and allow them to follow their own "devices until the general trend of their interests [can] be determined" (Mayhew & Edwards, 1936, p. 213). Teachers evaluate continuity with the group enterprise and purposes and then seek alternate approaches (Baker, 1955, p. 197).

#### Scientific Problem Solving and the Teacher's Role

Students and teachers in the Deweyan school practice scientific insight as a means to facilitating educative experiences as well as an instrument of free



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and active participation in modern social life. Scientific problem solving is applied to all activities in the Deweyan school. Educators encourage students to continuously solve problems by securing relevant information, making observations, developing suggested solutions, and testing ideas by application to make their meaning clear and to discover validity (Dewey, 1916, p. 163).

Teachers work to help students mature in their problem solving abilities and in their scientific habits of mind. Teachers view the educative process as one of interaction between an "immature undeveloped being and certain social aims, meanings, values incarnate in the matured experience of the adult" (Dewey, 1902, p. 92). Thus, "the child and the curriculum are seen as two limits which define a single process" (p. 97).

This requires a lot of advance planning which takes into account the developmental/experiential level of each learner as well as the various disciplines of knowledge which constitute the school's curriculum (Dewey, 1938, p. 63). "It is continuous reconstruction, moving from the child's present experience out into that represented by the organized bodies of truth that we call studies" (Dewey, 1902,

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p. 97; Dewey, 1938, p. 111). Teachers are concerned with

the ways in which [the] subject may become a part of experience; what there is in the child's present that is usable with reference to it; how such elements are to be used; how his own knowledge of the subject matter may assist in interpreting the child's needs and doings . . . [to] determine the medium in which the child should be placed in order that his growth may be properly directed. He is concerned, not with subject matter as such, but with the subject matter as a related factor in a total and growing experience. (Dewey, 1902, p. 105)

The scientific method (e.g., continuously solving problems by securing relevant information, making observations, developing suggested solutions, and testing ideas by application to make their meaning clear and to discover validity) "is the only authentic means at our command for getting at the significance of our everyday experiences of the world in which we live," according to Dewey (1938, p. 111).

#### Congruity of Goal and Process

In the Deweyan school, the goal of education and the process of education are believed to be congruous. To balance the two, the teacher needs to know the

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various disciplines of knowledge and the interests and experiences of the students. The teacher takes the lead in determining the environment of the students and by working with both the course of study and the experiential level of the students; the teacher directs the experiences and activities (Dewey, 1902, p. 110). Teachers in a Deweyan school perceive the problem of direction as one of "selecting appropriate stimuli for instincts and impulses which it is desired to employ in the gaining of new experience" (p. 102).

#### On the Scene

As part of the Deweyan school social process, students work with a variety of groups and teachers throughout their school day. Cooperative learning is evident. Silence is not one of the prime virtues, but time is provided for quiet reflection. Freedom of movement is an important means for maintaining physical and mental health, and periods of genuine reflection follow times of more overt action. The quiet times are used to organize what has been learned during the periods of activity. Classrooms are designed with plenty of space and the furniture is of the type that will accommodate flexibility in room arrangements and in student activities and work (Dewey, 1899, pp. 32-35 & pp. 71-80; 1938, p. 72; Meriam, 1959, p. 30).

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Summary

Deweyan school educators prepare future members of the social order for free and active participation in community life by encouraging service and social spirit. Most of all, they promote effective self direction. They view education as ongoing and as the means of full participation in the social order, not as an end in itself. Academic and social growth are primary goals.

The ideal aim of education, according to Dewey (1938) "is the creation of power of self-control" (p. 75)--"freedom . . . power to frame purposes and to execute or carry into effect purposes so framed . . . for the formation of purposes and the organization of means to execute them are the work of intelligence" (p. 77). Therefore, graduates of the Deweyan school may be described as self-directed learners who can frame purposes, judge wisely, evaluate desires by the consequences which will result from acting upon them. . . [and who] have the power to select and order means to carry chosen ends into operation. (Dewey, 1938, p. 74)



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## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

#### Introduction

The researcher's purpose in this ethnographic study was to describe and explain if and how Deweyan pedagogical practices have been implemented in a public elementary school in 1991-1992. The central concepts in this study were instructional behaviors set out by Dewey almost 100 years ago. These were selected by the researcher and validated by a panel of experts. The research divided various behaviors into units for analysis: the interactions between and among classroom teachers, students, administrators, other school staff members, parents, community members, and artifacts such as printed materials. Such interactions were the "angle[s] of observation" (Schatzman & Strauss, 1973, p. 55) in this study.

In this chapter, the methodology employed and the underlying assumptions pertaining to this study are explained. The theoretical framework which guided and underpinned the study is presented. Data collection

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and preparation is described. The selection and nature of the elementary school in which the research was conducted are specified. Data analysis is discussed and the conduct of the research is described. The chapter ends with a brief summary.

### Theoretical Framework

The researcher used a method of educational research called educational ethnography, a form of descriptive, on-site research. Called "field method" by Schatzman and Strauss (1973), it entails observations of participants in real life situations.

### Assumptions

Four assumptions were made prior to the study.

1. Pedagogical practices in a public elementary school are best understood by observing the interactions between and among teachers, students, administrators, other school staff members, parents, community members and artifacts such as printed materials;
2. Classrooms of a public elementary school are the best places to observe such interactions;
3. Interactions such as meetings, programs, and informal discussions which occur outside of direct instructional practices but which occur within the context of the school and affect teaching

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practices should be included in the units of analysis;

4. A validated matrix of selected Deweyan pedagogical practices and their corresponding behavioral indicants can serve as a standard for viewing the pedagogical practices of teachers in a public elementary school and for addressing the research questions in this study.

#### Sampling Technique

The researcher started with the Deweyan pedagogical principles as concepts. As the study progressed and data were collected, an explanation emerged. The researcher developed working hypotheses and then generated and tested them during the course of the ten-week study. Theoretical sampling (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), a technique which is consistent with the nature of this study, is:

the process of data collection for generating theory whereby the analyst jointly collects, codes, and analyzes his data and decides what data to collect next and where to find them, in order to develop his theory as it emerges. This process of data collection is controlled by the emerging theory, whether substantive or formal. The initial decisions for theoretical collection of data are based only on a general sociological perspective and on a general subject or problem

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area. . . . The initial decisions are not based on a preconceived theoretical framework. (p. 105).

Theoretical sampling is based on the saturation of categories as they, their properties, and their interrelationships are discovered. The sample is built as the researcher discovers categories and properties and tests their interrelationships. As an explanation emerges, each addition to the sample serves to revise, extend, or otherwise alter the explanation (Okey, 1990, p. 63). "The general idea is that the sociologist should sample a category until confident of its saturation" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 113).

The only criterion for the sample is that it be an instance of the case in the group or subgroup from which the researcher wishes to collect data.

Theoretical sampling for saturation of a category allows for the examination of varied "slices of data," diverse kinds of data which give different views or vantage points from which to understand a category and to develop its properties (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 108).

In theoretical sampling, relationships among categories and properties "are suggested as hypotheses pertinent to direction of relationship, not tested as descriptions of both direction and magnitude" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 106). Once a relationship is



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discovered, it is subject only to being disproven. The discovered relationship is thought to persist in direction, to hold for other groups under the same conditions.

This assumption of persistence is subject only to being disproven--not proven--when other sociologists question its credibility. . . . Only if the hypothesis is disproven do biases in the sample come under question. For generating theory these biases are treated as conditions changing the relationship, which should be woven into the analysis as such. Thus, random sampling is not necessary for theoretical sampling, either to discover the relationship or check out its existence in other groups. (p. 107)

### Selection of the School

According to Johnson (1985), "Public schools are more alike than different and have to be so because they are an institution universal to national society as a whole rather than one unique to particular local community settings" (p. 124). The differences among public schools, Johnson (1985) says, are "like musical variations on a single recognizable theme" (p. 125). According to the theoretical sampling technique which undergirds this study, the sample from which data were

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collected had to satisfy only one criterion--that it was a public school, an instance of the case.

The purpose of the study was to describe and explain if and how Deweyan pedagogical practices have been implemented in a public elementary school in 1991-1992. The sample, in accordance with Glaser and Strauss (1967) and the principles of theoretical sampling, was an unfamiliar public elementary school.

Interviews with the building principal revealed the community was rural-suburban, but not urban; neither poor nor wealthy. The school location was in a residential area approximately equidistant--about five miles--from two small towns (each with populations of less than 2800) and a mid-sized city (population 35,000). Students who attended the school came from one of the small cities and from the surrounding rural and suburban areas. According to the school principal, the majority of students in the school were from lower and lower-middle class socioeconomic levels. Most lived in single-family detached homes.

#### Data Collection

The researcher collected data through observation and interview. Other tools included field notes, audiotape recordings, and examination of artifacts. The validated matrix of Deweyan pedagogical practices and their corresponding behavioral indicants served as

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a lens for the researcher. The research was patterned after that of Johnson (1985) who studied classroom life as both a participant and an observer at an elementary school.

To see what is going on in the schools, "[o]ne must begin in classrooms, the workplace of the educational system," Johnson (1985, p. 4) states. Sitting in the children's chairs throughout the classroom day, squatting on the floor with the children while stories are read, "and squeezed between them when invited to eat lunch with the classroom group" brings a researcher closer to the realities of classroom life (p. 4).

To bring the realities of classroom life closer for the purposes of this research, participant observation in which the researcher took the role of the teachers whose practices were under study was employed whenever possible. The researcher taught activities when the fifth-grade students were at camp. Periodically, she helped individual students.

The researcher made most of the observations in one fifth-grade classroom and one second-grade classroom over a period of 10 weeks. Observations ranged from 2 hours each to a period of three days and two nights at a residential outdoor education facility.

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Each teacher's class was observed a minimum of 20 times during more than 40 visits.

### Events and Activities

Two concepts, one called events and the other called activities, were important to the data collection because the pedagogical practices being examined were made up of different events and activities. According to Johnson (1985), classroom days are composed of "specific, recurring events and activities":

Events are the major incidents occurring during the classroom day: the entry of students into the classroom, work routines, play periods, mealtimes, and the like. Activities are the smaller clusters of behaviors making up the major event segments of the classroom day. (p. 5, citing Barker and Barker, 1961)

Classroom entry and exit event patterns are an example of events composed of predictable and regularly recurring subpatterns: "the way teachers address students, the ritualized greetings and exchanges between teachers and students, the ordered movements between classrooms and play areas" (Johnson, 1985, p. 5). Events and activities in this study were the interactions which composed the pedagogical practices, the units of analysis.



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### Observation

The researcher recorded routine events and activities of classroom life to use as a basis around which to interpret them. Over an extended period of time, the day-to-day life of the actors whose interactions were under study became familiar.

The researcher sat in a student desk among the students each time she visited and observed a class. If the students were on the classroom rug, the researcher sat with them. The researcher sat with students at learning centers during center activities. If the students went to an activity in another area of the school, the researcher went with them. If the event was a staff meeting, the researcher sat among the staff members.

For every classroom session observed, the researcher described events and activities--event transitions--on the right side of a notebook page. On the left side of the page, near the left margin, she recorded impressions of what she saw and interpretations according to the validated matrix of Deweyan pedagogical practices and their corresponding behavioral indicants. As explanations of behavior occurred, she wrote them as emerging hypotheses in the front of the notebook.

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The notebook, a looseleaf binder, contained blank lined paper. To facilitate the search for categories, properties, and interrelationships, the notebook also contained copies of the research proposal and the validated matrix.

For some interactions that occurred outside the classroom, the researcher decided that having the notebook would affect the interaction. An example was when the researcher rode to the site of a field trip (an art museum) with parents in a private car driven by a parent. The researcher and parents met the students--who rode on a school bus--at the museum. Since the notebook may have communicated a nonverbal message which would have inhibited interaction, the researcher made notes after the field trip.

Another example was when the researcher ate lunch in the teachers' lounge with the teachers. Taking notes about those conversations while engaged in them would most likely have affected the interaction, perhaps causing teachers to say or do things they thought the researcher wanted to hear or see.

After interactions such as those described above, the events and activities were recorded as accurately as possible from memory. Interpretations and emerging hypotheses were added later.

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Having the notebook did not appear to be a factor in the two classrooms where observations were conducted in a consistent manner over an extended time period. Teachers and students did not appear to notice the researcher nor the notetaking.

### Interview

As impressions and explanations occurred to the researcher, she checked her ideas by asking the actors under study--the informants--to describe and explain a particular event or to verify their perceptions. These instances of informal interviewing occurred in the hallways, in the classrooms, in the smoking lounge, or wherever informants were when they talked to the researcher.

Formal (scheduled) interview methodology and procedures based on the work of Gorden (1969, 1980, 1987), Ives (1974), and Okey (1990) were used during the final week. Scheduled tape-recorded interviews allowed the researcher to listen more carefully, to be more attentive, to maintain greater eye contact, to observe the respondent more closely, and to maintain an accurate record of the entire interview (Okey, p. 67).

As a well established and accepted field research method, the interview provides a richness and personal touch unattainable with data collection methods such as the questionnaire (Okey, 1990, p. 57). Gorden (1969)

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identifies five advantages of the interview over the questionnaire:

1. The interview provides more opportunity to motivate the respondent to supply accurate and complete information immediately.
2. The interview provides more opportunity to guide the respondent in his interpretation of the questions.
3. The interview allows a greater flexibility in questioning the respondent.
4. The interview allows greater control over the interview situation.
5. The interview provides a greater opportunity to evaluate the validity of the information by observing the respondent's non-verbal manifestation of his attitude toward supplying the information. (pp. 52-54)

There are disadvantages inherent in using the interview, however. "Basically, the problem is one of maximizing the relevance, validity and reliability of the communication in both directions between the interviewer and respondent" (p. 59). To do this, the interviewer must establish and maintain "optimal" interpersonal relations with interviewees as the means to the end of obtaining relevant information which increases the validity and reliability of the



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information the respondents give (pp. 60, 95). In light of this, the researcher established and maintained positive interpersonal relations with interviewees.

The researcher interviewed teachers, building-level administrators, and other staff using the scheduled interview methodology. The open-ended interview questions were based on the research questions. As the notes were reworked and studied, new questions were added to check perceptions in the attempt to describe and explain accurately the behavior of the actors whose practices were under study. The interview questions were:

1. How do your teaching practices this year compare to your teaching practices of previous years? Have you made any changes during the past few years? If so, how? What was the impetus for any changes you made?
2. How do you decide what to teach?
3. How do you decide how to teach it?
4. In what ways are classrooms in this school cooperative social organizations? What about your classroom? Are there any school-wide rules? If so, how were they developed? What about classroom rules/behavior standards?

5. In what ways would you call this school a cooperative social organization?
6. What is happening in your classroom(s) regarding the methods of science and scientific problem solving? Do you relate additional disciplines of knowledge to scientific problem solving? In what ways?
7. Do teachers in this school assist and encourage students to become self-directed? How? Do you? How?
8. Do teachers in this school use units or themes which incorporate the active involvement of students as they address real life kinds of problems? Will you describe some? Do those units of study integrate various disciplines of knowledge? If so, how? What about in your classroom?
9. Are any kinds of cooperative learning approaches to instruction used in the classrooms of this school? If so, describe them. What about your classroom? What do you think are the main objectives of cooperative learning approaches used in your school (classroom)?
10. In what ways do teachers in this school get to know individual students, their experiential

backgrounds, and their needs? How do teachers use this knowledge? How do teachers in this school determine how well students are doing? In what ways do teachers in this school try to make the various disciplines of knowledge part of a total growth experience for students? In what ways do teachers in this school stay informed about students? about subject areas? about teaching practices? What about you?

11. How do teachers in this school view reading and reading instruction? What makes you think so? What is your view? How do they teach reading? Can you give some examples? How do you teach reading? Can you provide some examples?
12. Is there anything else that you can tell me which will help me to better understand classroom practices?

### Reliability and Validity

According to Okey (1990), "Reliability, which is the consistency or repeatability of the study, is ensured by the method itself. . .[because] [t]he method is what connects the observer to the events and situations being studied" (p. 61). According to Gorden (1969), "By validity we mean the extent to which we are

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able to observe or measure that which we intend to observe or measure" (p. 4). Cusick says:

The test of validity is with the reader. If the narrative which results presents enough data and is what it says it is, it is valid. If it is valid, it is reliable. Over a period of time, reliability will take care of itself if validity is present. (1987).

However, to provide more assurance of a worthwhile valid study, and, therefore, have more assurance of the reliability of the study, the research was tailored to the six indices of subjective adequacy stated by Homans (Bruyn, 1966, p. 181):

1. Time. The more time an individual spends with a group the more likely it is that he will obtain an accurate perception of the social meaning its members live by. [A block of time more than 10 weeks in length was available for observation and interviewing.]

2. Place. The closer the researcher works geographically to the people he studies, the more accurate should be his interpretations.

[The school site for the study was close and easily accessible.]

3. Social circumstances. The number and variety of social circumstances which the observer

encounters within the social structure of the community increase his accuracy. [The observer was active in school activities both within the classrooms and outside of them. The activities included staff meetings, field trips, science fair, talent show, outdoor education camp, lunch with teachers and with students, fund raisers, evening programs presented by students, the school fun fair, recess, and the school student-staff softball game.]

4. Language. The researcher and his subjects should share a common language. [As a former elementary school teacher, a former elementary school principal, and as a field supervisor of student teachers, the researcher shared a common language with the informants.]

5. Intimacy. The greater degree of intimacy the researcher achieves, the greater his accuracy. [The researcher intentionally developed and practiced nonjudgmental verbal and nonverbal behaviors in her work as an observer. Techniques of active listening were used. Staff members appeared to trust her and confided in her.]

6. Consensus. Confirmation that the meanings interpreted by the observer are correct. [Confirmation of perceptions was sought through

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further sampling and data collection including both scheduled and nonscheduled interviews.]

### The School

The subject school housed grades K-5 and retained a rural-suburban neighborhood atmosphere even though it was a part of a district with a large (11,417) student population. Before 1959, there was no district high school in the area where the school is located. Only grades K-9 were offered. Having no high school for their students and wanting to provide students with a more coordinated and richer curriculum, residents of the area voted to consolidate with the adjoining school district of the mid-sized city.

The school's organizational structure and physical appearance were similar to that of other public elementary schools. The school building, constructed in 1960, was a flat-roofed concrete and brick structure with four rectangularly shaped "wings." With two additions, one built in 1965 and the other in 1970, it housed 650 elementary students in grades kindergarten through fifth. Figure 3.1 depicts the floor plan of the building which contained 23 self-contained classrooms, 2 cross-categorical special education classrooms, a combination gymnasium-cafeteria with a stage, and a kitchen. Two small classrooms housed the

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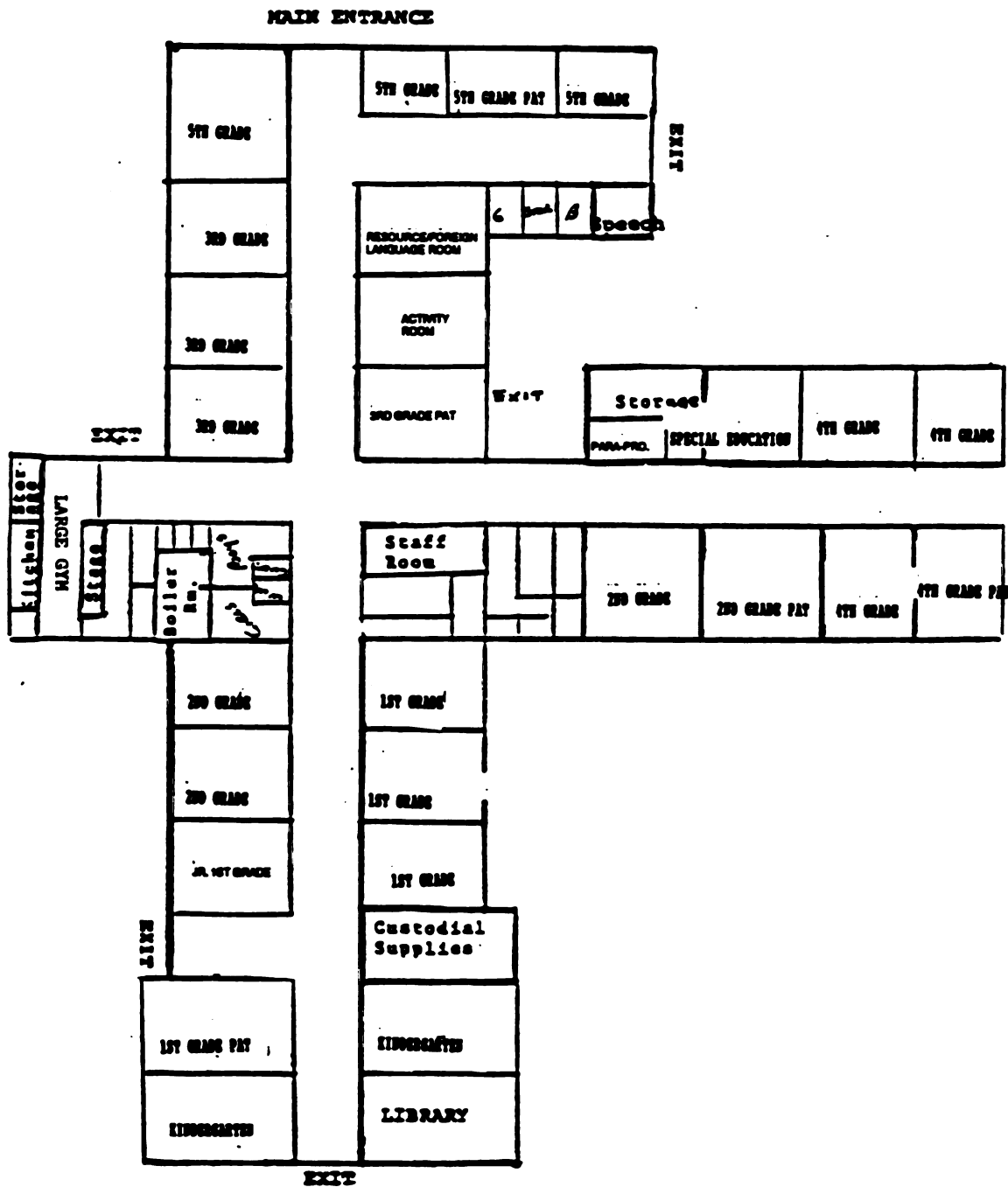


Figure 3.1 Floor plan of the school

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speech and language teacher and a paraprofessional who worked with the Article III compensatory reading program. One empty classroom was used as the "multi-purpose" room for various meetings and other activities. A large former classroom did double duty as a combination library and computer laboratory. A multi-room office area connected to a small teachers' lounge contained five small offices--one each for two secretaries, the principal and the assistant principal, and one shared by two volunteer coordinators. The building was surrounded by open areas, some of which were blacktopped, and all of which were used as play areas.

The enrollment had been stable during the three years preceding the study. The school had no tuition or inter-district transfer students. The full-time building principal worked with an assistant principal who was in the building Mondays, Wednesdays, and every other Friday.

The school staff consisted of 23 full-time classroom teachers, two special education resource room teachers (one of whom spent her mornings in another elementary school), a half-time physical education teacher, a French teacher (two days per week), a full-time speech therapist, and two secretaries. Volunteer parents served as librarians. Two volunteer

coordinators sought other parent volunteers for a variety of tasks. One day custodian and two night custodians looked after the building. Twelve paraprofessionals supervised students during the lunch hour and noon recess each day. Two kitchen servers worked mid-morning to mid-afternoon to serve lunches prepared at the high school kitchen and transported to the school. The district employed neither elementary art nor elementary music teacher/specialists.

Teachers were to arrive at 8:15 a.m. so classes could start at 9:00 a.m. Dismissal was at 3:00 p.m. for students, and teachers could leave at 3:30 p.m. Kindergarten students attended half-day sessions. The morning kindergarten session was from 9:00 a.m. until 11:30 a.m.; afternoon, 12:30 p.m.-3:00 p.m. Teachers were allowed to leave school earlier than 3:30 p.m. if they reported to school earlier than 8:15 a.m. They "signed" for their hours at the beginning of each school year.

Lunch and recess periods were on a staggered basis from 12 noon to 1:00 p.m. The teachers had one hour for lunch. During this hour, paraprofessionals supervised students.

Children were dismissed from school for one-half day each month to provide time for professional staff development. The time was made up by making sure

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school started no later than 9:00 a.m. and by "banking" minutes of class time which went beyond the minimal state requirement of 900 hours and 180 days of instruction. On in-service ("bank") days, students were dismissed at 12:00 noon.

The researcher-observer worked in a second-grade classroom with 29 students (14 boys and 15 girls) and a fifth grade with 27 students (14 boys and 13 girls). The principal and second-grade teacher described the second grade as made up of a heterogeneous student group because the students were at all different achievement levels. Three of the students, all boys, were in the classroom only in the afternoons. They spent their mornings in the special education resource room.

The female teacher of this second-grade class had taught for seventeen years, including one year as a junior high teacher, one year as a third grade teacher, and eleven years as a Chapter One remedial reading teacher. This was her fourth year of teaching a self-contained second-grade classroom. She was a volunteer participant in this study who held a bachelor of arts degree in education and a masters degree in reading.

The female fifth-grade teacher, who had taught for 26 years, was in her twenty-fourth year of teaching



fifth grade. Her classroom population included a cluster of six academically talented students. According to the principal and the teacher, this classroom, one of four different fifth-grade classrooms, was called a PAT (Program for the Academically Talented) room and did not have students who were in the "low" group. Low group students were distributed throughout the other three fifth-grade classrooms. Students in this classroom were considered the middle group and the "gifted" cluster.

Elementary gifted and talented students from all of the district's elementary schools could attend a district magnet program at another elementary school in the school district. The volunteer fifth-grade classroom teacher referred to students who went to the magnet program as the "truly gifted". Students in the gifted cluster of her PAT classroom were not eligible for the district magnet program. In schools of the size of the subject school, the cluster approach--a cluster of "gifted" students housed in one out of four available grade level classrooms--is a common organizational approach to gifted education.

The fifth-grade teacher possessed a bachelor of science degree in education and a master of arts degree in elementary education. She volunteered to participate in this research project.

To check her own perceptions as explanations and theories emerged, the researcher observed in other classrooms in the building. Teachers of all grades in the building volunteered.

This school district received some of its operating money through the state school monetary aid formula. During the last school year (1989-90) for which data were available, the district received 63% of its funding from local sources; 33% of its funding from the state government; and 4% of its funding from the federal government. On the basis of those funding proportions, the district ranked approximately in the middle of the 562 state school districts. The total general fund expenditures per pupil in the district for the school year 1989-90 were \$3372.64. On that basis, the district ranked 370th of the 562 districts in the state. The state equalized value (SEV) per pupil in the district for 1989-90 was \$63,810 which was 240th of the 562 districts (Michigan State Department of Education, 1991).

During the period of the study, the labor climate was stable; current teacher and support staff collective bargaining agreements were in effect. The millage rate of the school district had remained stable; the district had adequate operational and debt retirement millage.

### Preparation for Field Procedures

In preparing for this study, the researcher took three formal procedural steps. First, the matrix of Deweyan pedagogical practices and their corresponding behavioral indicants was developed and validated. Validation was accomplished by a panel of experts knowledgeable about Dewey. Through a series of six meetings over a period of six weeks before the beginning of the observations and interviews, the matrix was revised five times until the experts considered it valid.

Second, the application to have the research--which involves the use of human subjects--approved by the Michigan State University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects (UCRIHS) was prepared. Through the process of the preparation of the application, the purpose of the study was clarified, procedures were set out clearly, consent documents were prepared, and the risks and benefits of the study were assessed. The research documents approved by the UCRIHS appear in the appendix of this dissertation.

Third, the purpose of the study was explained to the school staff members and parents. Consent forms were signed by the parents of all children in the subject school and by the subjects who were observed

and/or interviewed. Volunteer participants were given the right to withdraw at any time.

### Data Analysis

The purpose of this study was to describe and explain if and how Deweyan pedagogical practices have been implemented in a public elementary school in 1991-1992. The researcher made no attempt to evaluate the quality of teaching. The intent was to describe what was seen and to interpret that in light of the Deweyan principles.

### Generation of Theory

To assure reliable data analysis, the researcher used methods of data collection as well as techniques which facilitated the search for categories, properties, and interrelationships in the generation of theory. Methods of accurate data collection were discussed in the Data Collection section of this chapter. Techniques to facilitate the search for categories, properties, and interrelationships are of concern in this section. However, the researcher recognizes that such techniques, in order to be valid, depend upon the accuracy of the data collected.

Research notes were coded according to classroom or event (such as a staff meeting). The coding was designed not only with respect to confidentiality but

also to facilitate the search for categories, properties, and interrelationships.

Field notes were removed from the notebook to a portable file in which they were organized according to dates. As the study progressed, the notes were rearranged according to pedagogical practices and interpretations. The notes were written in a way which allowed them to be cut apart for rearranging. This organization for the collection and organization of data also facilitated the search for categories, properties, and interrelationships.

Tape recordings of scheduled interviews were used to ensure accuracy in the process of checking perceptions and to facilitate the search for categories, properties, and relationships. The tapes served as the primary documents. Although the researcher took notes from them, the tapes were available for further and deeper checks of perceptions. After the interviews, the researcher listened carefully to each interview session and recorded categories, properties, and interrelationships as explanations of behavior occurred. These were added to the set of emerging hypotheses and impressions from the events and activities. The rationale for using the tape recorder is further explained in the Data Collection section of this chapter.

A simple frequency table--showing how many interactions were recorded and how many of them were indicants of Deweyan pedagogical practices--was constructed from the interpretations of the notes. The table facilitated the search for categories, properties, and interrelationships by allowing numerical comparisons and contrasts. Then, the researcher used the research questions as categories to describe interrelationships and write summaries about each pedagogical practice.

The result was the generated theory about if and how Deweyan pedagogical practices are implemented in a public elementary school in 1991-1992. The techniques described in this section served to facilitate the search for such theory.

#### Conduct of the Research

The researcher soon became known to all school staff. This happened in several ways and was strengthened as a result of her consistent presence in the school. The building principal was very supportive. At a regular staff meeting before beginning the study, the principal introduced the researcher who explained briefly the purpose of the research but not the Deweyan pedagogical practices.

The education secretary provided for the researcher a mail box and copies of most printed

materials. Each day the researcher talked with the teachers at lunch time. In order to get consent forms signed by parents of students, the researcher visited all classrooms personally to hand out information letters and consent forms and to collect the signed forms. The researcher attended all regular staff meetings as well as all meetings of the building input and discussion group, the CORE committee. In addition, she attended grade-level team meetings, building committee meetings, and informal meetings with the teachers in whose classrooms she was an observer.

A typical day started at 8:00 a.m. when the researcher arrived at school. The second-grade teacher in whose classroom she was observing was going to a talent show committee meeting. The researcher went with her but did not distance herself. She sat with the two teachers who were talking to the principal. During the meeting, the researcher observed. After the meeting, the teacher and the researcher returned to the second-grade classroom. During the five minutes before students entered the building, the researcher and the teacher discussed some questions the researcher had.

At 8:45 a.m., the students entered, and the researcher sat down among the students at a desk in the group where she usually sat. The researcher then observed, taking notes when necessary. As an observer,

the researcher was usually silent, but she spoke with students when they or the teacher asked her to help them. At 11:50, while students were working on routine assignments, the researcher left the classroom to visit other classrooms in the building and collect signed consent forms.

At 12 noon, the researcher went to the teachers' lounge to have lunch with the teachers. The two teachers in whose classrooms she was observing lived close to the school and went home for lunch, but they returned about 15 minutes before afternoon classes started.

At 1:00 p.m., the researcher went to the fifth-grade classroom to silently observe social studies classes. Notes were taken when necessary. If asked by the teacher, the researcher helped individual students. She sat at her regular desk, a student desk at the end of a row near the back. When school was dismissed at 3:00, the researcher walked to the buses with the students and teachers. After students went home, she talked to staff, examined artifacts such as memoranda written to the teachers by the administration, or left the building to organize and study the notes.

A usual day included a committee or teacher meeting, silent observation in both classrooms, and



informal interviews and conversations with staff as the researcher clarified perceptions. Classroom observations alternated between the two classes. If the researcher was in the second grade in the morning, she observed in the fifth grade in the afternoon, and vice versa. Occasionally, the researcher also spent an entire day in one classroom.

After leaving the school, the researcher organized the notes taken during the day and categorized events and activities. She made notes about emerging categories, properties, and relationships and then prepared for the next day's observations.

#### Summary

In this chapter the researcher covered the methodology employed in this study, the assumptions, and the concept of theoretical sampling which provided the framework the study. The author also described methods for collecting data, the selection and nature of the sample school, preparations for field procedures, and techniques to facilitate the search for categories, properties, and interrelationships were discussed. A typical day during the conduct of the research was depicted.

## Chapter IV

### PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

#### Introduction

The purpose of the study was to describe and explain if and how Deweyan pedagogical practices have been implemented in a public elementary school in 1991-1992. The researcher collected data through observation and interview, using a validated matrix for a standard through which to view and analyze interactions.

This eight-part chapter, written in essay form, includes data, conclusions, and related findings for each of the research questions and associated evidence questions. The chapter ends with a summary of the major conclusions and related findings, including models of what Dewey described 100 years ago and pedagogy today.

### Classrooms that are Cooperative Social Organizations

1. Do teachers in a public elementary school develop and work within classrooms that are cooperative social organizations?

1a. If so, what is the evidence of classrooms as cooperative social organizations?

Findings Analysis of the data supported the conclusion that teachers in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 develop and work within classrooms that are cooperative social organizations in some ways.

Further data analysis supported the related finding that classrooms are authoritarian organizations. Teachers make the classroom rules, determine the academic and social objectives, and plan the learning activities. Students are expected to complete assigned work alone and to comply with adult structured and monitored norms and procedures. Teachers do not ask parents and community members about curricular matters until parents or others voice objections after implementation of subjects or topics.

The data supporting this determination are organized and presented in several subsections. The volunteer teachers in the study are called  $T_1$ , the second-grade teacher, and  $T_2$ , the fifth-grade teacher.

The subsections are arranged according to the behavioral indicants. Student input and responsibilities regarding classroom rules are described in the first subsection. Then, student responsibilities regarding the establishment of learning purposes and plans for accomplishment learning are set out.

Next is a discussion about evaluation of the learning purposes and activities. How the schoolwide academic and social objectives are determined is specified. Involvement of parents and community members is depicted, and community service projects are discussed. A subsection covers the assessment of student quality of adjustment in social interaction. Learning assessment is discussed. The last subsection contains a summary and a restatement of the conclusion.

#### Student input and responsibilities--rules

Although students and teachers collectively appeared to share responsibility for knowledge of and behavior according to a plan of expected behaviors, the data analysis showed that the plan was designed by the classroom teacher without student input. Classroom management procedures and behavior policies were adult structured and monitored. Classroom norms included concentration, order, self-control, task orientation,

and production of paper-and-pencil work containing right answers.

Students entered and left the second-grade classroom,  $T_1$ 's room, in an orderly and quiet manner. When they entered the classroom at the beginning of the school day, they began doing their spelling assignment or writing in their Journals. The Journal question for the day was written on the chalkboard for them. The day's "agenda" was also on the chalkboard for them to see. They had to do their spelling assignment or Journal writing first.

Students in both  $T_1$ 's and  $T_2$ 's classes were expected to work alone unless they were told by the teachers that they could work together. Students were allowed to work together more in  $T_1$ 's classroom than in  $T_2$ 's room.  $T_1$  regularly had students work together during language arts activities, particularly reading and writing.  $T_2$  had students help each other, sometimes, in math class.  $T_2$  didn't feel as if she could maintain order if students worked together very often.  $T_1$  registered concern about students getting "out of hand" while working in groups, also, but she consistently had students working together in pairs or in groups of four.

Students in both classrooms were expected to concentrate and to work in an orderly fashion on

assignments planned and directed by the teachers. Most tasks, other than the journal writing and other writing activities used by the second-grade teacher, were paper-and-pencil tasks in which answers were either right or wrong. Exceptions included plays that the second graders regularly practiced and presented, the public service announcements that the fifth graders did for DARE (Drug Abuse Resistance Education) classes taught by a city police officer, and learning experiences which were part of the Everybody Counts (handicap understanding) activities taught by volunteer parents. Other exceptions included projects done by the second graders (as part of their monthly themes) and SEARCH projects done by fifth-grade students who were in the "gifted" cluster.

SEARCH was a voluntary activity for gifted students from schools throughout a three-county area. To participate, students did a learning project in an area of interest. They shared their projects with other students during a special conference held on a Saturday at the local community college.

SEARCH and monthly theme projects, however, were done at home. Class time was not allocated nor spent on them.

In both classrooms, if students wished to speak to the class during large group discussions, the kind

which occurred most often, they were expected to raise their hands and to be given permission by the teacher before speaking. Students were expected to pay attention when the teacher or other students were talking.

T<sub>1</sub>, the second-grade teacher, did not use a discipline plan, she said. She started out the year with five general rules "that any teacher would have" and discussed the rules only briefly with the students at the beginning of the year. T<sub>1</sub> wanted to eliminate punishment and negativism from her classroom, so she called her room "self-directed" and told the students that they were self-directed. She said she modeled for them what that meant. It appeared that she structured (i.e., by noticing certain behaviors and waiting for compliance with classroom norms) rather than modeled self direction, however.

T<sub>1</sub> handled situations such as students talking to each other while she or another student was trying to talk by looking at a classroom area from which she thought the noise originated and she said, "Whoever is talking needs to stop" or "Whoever is talking, will you please raise your hand?" Students usually responded by being quiet.

T<sub>2</sub> used an assertive discipline plan. The plan was posted on the wall in front of the rows of student

desks. It delineated a series of steps the teacher followed if a student broke one of the five classroom rules. The plan was:

Name on board--Warning.

Name plus one check on board--5 minutes off recess.

Name plus two checks on board--15 minutes off recess.

Name plus three checks on board--all of the above and call parents.

Name plus four checks on board--all of the above and hour time out in another classroom.

Serious offense--immediate time out and referral to principal.

When  $T_2$  noticed an infraction of a rule, she didn't say anything, but she wrote the name(s) of student(s) who were not adhering to the classroom rules on the right hand side of the front chalkboard. The names were left there throughout the day. Checks were added if  $T_2$  noticed further misbehavior. Throughout the period of the research, no student got more than two checks.

$T_2$  wrote some other items having to do with student behavior on the chalkboard. One was a series of marks to which she added when she noticed that students entered and exited the room in a quiet,



orderly manner. When she saw the class do that, she told them, "I liked how you came in very quietly and got right to work this morning." Then, she added to the marks and total points in the series of tabulations. When a certain number of tabulations was achieved, the class received a reward, a "fun" movie. If the class did not enter or exit in the expected manner,  $T_2$  took points away.

$T_2$  wrote the day's assignments on the front chalkboard. When students entered, they were to start to work on the spelling assignment.

Another chart related to students finishing their assigned work. It consisted of the names of the five students who sat at the beginning of each row. Each student's name and a total number of points was written inside a box drawn on the chalkboard. The boxes were connected and placed at the top of the left hand side of the front chalkboard. When students in a row handed in their assignments in a careful manner, the teacher added to that row's point total. When the assignments of each row were complete--that is, when every student in the row handed in his or hers--the row received points. Points were taken away if the everyone in the row didn't hand in an assignment or if the correct procedures weren't followed.  $T_2$  gave a reward when a

row reached a certain number of points. Usually the reward was the opportunity to "skip" an assignment.

Entry and exit procedures for both classrooms included walking in a straight, quiet line through the school hallways when going from the classroom to other activities, such as library, physical education, or lunch. Entering and leaving classrooms in an orderly manner were also entry and exit procedures. In  $T_2$ 's classroom, students were rewarded with points on the tally chart or the row chart if they walked through the halls quietly, if they entered the classroom in a quiet and orderly manner, and if they got to work on academic tasks as soon as they entered or reentered.  $T_1$  rewarded her students with verbal praise and nonverbal reinforcement such as a smile when they entered in a quiet and orderly manner.

When the data were examined, it was found that if students didn't enter or exit the classroom in acceptable ways, they received negative reinforcement in the form of loss of points (fifth grade) or (gentle) verbal reminders and nonverbal negative reinforcement--frowns--in second grade. On such occasions, students were told firmly by their teachers that better compliance was expected.

On one occasion, after students entered the classroom in a noisy manner,  $T_2$  said, "You know what is

expected of fifth graders, and I expect that you will behave like fifth graders." Then, she took points off the tally board and wrote the names of a few of the students, whom she held most responsible, on the front chalkboard.

In summary, the data analysis found that students had no input into classroom or school rules. They shared responsibility for knowledge of and behavior according to a plan, but the group did not design the plan. Management procedures and behavior norms were adult structured and monitored.

Student input and responsibilities--learning purposes and plans for accomplishment

Analysis of the data showed a lack of involvement of students in the determination of their purposes for learning and how to accomplish the learning objectives. Teachers, acting authoritatively, took charge of planning their individual classroom goals and learning activities.

Together, committees of teachers planned several schoolwide learning activities as part of the building school improvement goals and objectives, but individual classroom teachers varied in what activities they implemented. The only observed instance where students had input into their purposes for learning was the SEARCH activity.

T<sub>2</sub> opened the activity to all of her students, not just those in the gifted cluster, but the projects were done at home. Though no school time was allocated, seven students participated.

The teachers' planning and implementation of field trips and assemblies could be considered indicants of their having acted as facilitators. They introduced students to learning activities which were perceived to have immediate interest to students as well as long range implications for growth and relation to curricular goals.

However, the field trips and assemblies were not group decisions which involved students. There was little connection with curricular goals or activities as played out in the individual classrooms before or after an assembly or field trip. Relevance of those kinds of learning experiences to interests of students and their individual growth needs was by chance only. Several teachers said they planned a lot of science assemblies (three) because that was the subject they felt the least confident about teaching.

T<sub>1</sub> planned and implemented one field trip which correlated with a writing unit. Her students corresponded with penpals who were second-grade students at another district school. The field trip, a picnic to meet their penpals, took place at a local

park. The trip was planned totally by the two classroom teachers involved. This was the only trip which came close to being a descriptor of a Deweyan pedagogical practice, but students were not involved in the planning nor in the implementation of the trip, however.

Before the beginning of the study, T<sub>1</sub>'s students had taken five other field trips. She planned all of the trips so her students could have some experiences on which to base their classroom learning activities. "Without a background of experience," she said, "they can't even brainstorm."

The researcher observed one event in which students had a choice about what a learning activity would be. It occurred at the end of a marking period. T<sub>2</sub> gave her pupils a choice about whether she would read to them or they would do textbook assignments in spelling. Students asked her to read.

She told her class that if she read to them it would not be possible for her to have their report card grades ready in time for them to know their grades before report cards were sent home. She needed time to work on figuring out the grades (in percentages). Students elected to do the textbook work. Otherwise, events and activities indicating class meetings for

group decisions about how to accomplish the goals and objectives for learning were not observed.

The data analysis did not find support for student input into formation of learning purposes. In addition, analysis of the data from observations and interviews demonstrated that students did not have input into formulation of learning purpose and plans for accomplishing them.

#### Evaluation of learning purposes and activities

In analyzing the data, the researcher found no activities in which learning experiences were evaluated by students and the classroom teacher in such a manner that goals and further experiences were problem solved and developed. Teachers did not act as facilitators who guided students in making group determinations of this nature.

Analysis of the data further supported that evaluation of most learning activities was through assessing the progress made by students on standardized tests. In the case of field trips, assemblies, or learning experiences and activities planned as part of the building goals for school improvement, evaluation was focused on the activity itself and occurred through teachers' discussions with other teachers. This is discussed in the next subsection.

During the period of the research, T<sub>1</sub>'s class and T<sub>2</sub>'s class attended a total of eight assemblies. They went on a total of seven field trips, one for the second grade and six for the fifth grade. After field trips and assemblies very little discussion or evaluation of the field trip or assembly occurred. The teacher facilitated no development of further learning experiences as a result of such experiences.

Usually after assemblies or field trips both T<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>2</sub> mentioned how nice the field trip or assembly was and then directed the class to take out a certain textbook so regular class work could continue. One exception was a fifth-grade kite-making activity and contest. T<sub>2</sub> implemented the spare time project after her students took a field trip to view a Japanese kite exhibition at an art museum.

The fifth-grade field trips to the electric power generating company, the art museum, and the state capitol were learning experiences that their teachers thought the students should have. The students and teachers together did not evaluate the experiences, and they did not become parts of subsequent units of study.

When the data were examined, no support was found for students and teachers working together to evaluate learning experiences and to problem solve goals and further experiences. In addition, the data analysis

showed that further learning experiences do not usually develop from previous ones.

Determination of schoolwide academic and social objectives

Analysis of the data from the observations and interviews found no involvement of parents nor community members in decisions about curriculum or classroom or building rules and policies. The curriculum was a curriculum developed for district use by teacher and administrative representatives. In addition, portions of the curriculum resulted from state initiatives. Classroom and building rules and policies existed through tradition as well as through development by teachers and school staff.

Staff members developed curriculum according to which textbook best fit the perceived needs of the students so they would do better on standardized achievement tests and state tests of minimal basic skills. "We get together to choose which textbook we want to use, then we follow the objectives in it," T<sub>2</sub> said.

Elementary foreign language instruction, the state Model for Health Instruction, and Drug Abuse Resistance Education (DARE) were some examples of state initiated curriculum. State initiated curricular changes affected what state mandated tests evaluated, so they



also impacted upon the choices of textbooks to be used in reading and mathematics instruction.

In addition, under a state law, teachers and administrators in the building devised together a yearly school improvement plan which included three objectives and corresponding action plans for implementation and evaluation. One objective focused on improving students' achievement in writing; another was to improve student self esteem; and one was to improve student physical fitness. A committee of teachers developed the action plan and suggested learning activities for accomplishment of the goals and objectives of the building school improvement plan.

Parent input into curriculum consisted of comments made after curricular decisions were made. On these occasions parents had objections to particular methods or to particular topics. For example, a group of fundamentalist Christians objected to portions of the state Model for Health Instruction which was taught in all grades of the school.

A lower elementary lesson in visualization for stress reduction and relaxation was removed from the program. A fifth-grade lesson on problem solving was changed according to parental input after initial implementation.

The fundamentalists objected to the visualization exercise on the grounds that it was brainwashing. Objections to the negotiation portion of the problem-solving unit focused on the parents not wanting their youngsters to think that decisions made by their parents were negotiable in any way. The fifth-grade unit was modified to discuss negotiation as a part of problem-solving practices to be used only in situations at school. This was a compromise between the parents and the school district administration. After having been vocal regarding their objections to some of the curriculum, some representatives of the fundamentalist group are now included on the director of elementary education's unofficial curriculum subcommittee.

A new district task force was recently formed. Its purposes include parental and community input and determination of desired outcomes for graduates of the district's high schools. The task force was formed because of state initiatives tied to funding.

Analysis of the data supported the finding that the curriculum is highly standardized in the form of commercially published textbooks and their accompanying paper-and-pencil assessment instruments. Further analysis confirmed that schoolwide social objectives (e.g., procedures and behavior expectations) are decided in accordance with tradition by teachers and

staff without community and parent input. Although a new committee now allows for some parental and community input into desired outcomes for students, data analysis showed that parents and community members do not have input into curriculum development unless they aggressively voice objections to something.

Parent and community involvement in the learning process

Although the data analysis showed no support for parental and community involvement in determining academic and social objectives, parents and community members actively shared in some portions of the learning process. Their participation, as shown by the data, was as volunteer chaperones for field trips and as volunteer clerks to organize and carry out the administrative side of school fund raising activities, of which there are many.

During the school year, parents coordinated four schoolwide fundraisers. Volunteer parents were in charge, but teachers determined how the money was spent. Activities to raise money included a food sale, a magazine sale, a read-a-thon, and a school fun fair. Proceeds were used to fund the schoolwide assemblies and purchase of updated reference materials, especially encyclopedias.

During the period of the study, the entire fifth grade (only) raised \$7000 to fund their three days at an outdoor education camp 100 miles away. They sponsored a pancake breakfast, and candy and raffle ticket sales.

Parents were always invited to the schoolwide assemblies and were usually present. Sometimes, parents and community members were involved directly in classroom learning activities.

One example of such parent involvement was the Everybody Counts (handicap awareness) learning activities that were taught in each classroom by a group of volunteer parents. The activities were planned and taught to the parents by curriculum specialists of the regional service center (intermediate school district).

An example of a community member being involved in the learning activities was the Project DARE (Drug Awareness Resistance Education) program in the fifth grade. A city police officer taught the fifteen-week program in each fifth-grade class once each week. The officer used learning activities devised and taught to her by DARE America.

Sometimes, parents and community members were not welcome to participate in classroom learning activities if they were not acting as chaperones, clerks, or

refreshment committees. This was especially evident before Young Author celebration day. The day was designated as a celebration of year-long writing activities. At a staff meeting before Young Author Day, the committee in charge of the school improvement writing goal discussed the schoolwide assembly being planned to recognize student writing efforts. Each class was to have three student representatives each read something he or she had written during the year. Parents would be invited to the assembly. After the assembly, the committee had planned for each classroom teacher to include parents in further activities to be held in his or her room.

A group of teachers strongly objected to having parents invited back to their classrooms. One of them said, "I'm not sure I will have students ready to read something at the assembly let alone have parents come back to the room. What will I have them do?"

Other teachers nodded their heads and appeared to agree strongly with the teacher who was raising her concerns. The committee and the teachers together then decided that parental involvement in any classroom activities held after the assembly was up to each teacher.

On the day of the celebration, very few teachers had students' parents come to their classroom. Neither

$T_1$  nor  $T_2$  had classroom activities after the assembly, although  $T_1$  was a member of the planning committee.

In summary, examination of the data supported the finding that parents and community members shared in some learning activities. Further examination revealed little actual classroom involvement but much involvement as chaperones and fundraising chairpersons and clerks.

#### Community service projects

When the data were analyzed, the presence of community service projects students had chosen and implemented was not found. In one project, some students participated, but it was initiated by a local hospital through the district's central administration and the school principal. Teachers were asked to have students make Valentines for patients at a local hospital. Some teachers and students participated.

#### Assessment of student quality of adjustment in social interaction

The data analysis showed that assessment of student quality of adjustment in social interaction, when done, was done by teachers in a behavioristic manner. Positive reinforcement was provided for "good behavior"--behavior according to expected rules and procedures. Negative reinforcement was provided for not adhering to behavior standards. This is discussed

subsection, Student input and responsibilities, contains a more complete discussion.

### Learner assessment

Examination of the data found that assessment of the students was done by each teacher according to percentage of work produced--answers written out on paper--with right answers. Teachers designated letter grades on standard district report cards for upper grade students.

Teachers of lower grade students assigned Satisfactory, Unsatisfactory or Improving. Some upper grade teachers gave only A, B, or I (Incomplete). Others give A, B, C, D, or E (failing).

There appeared to be a standard for grading which was external to individual students--a community standard of work on standardized tasks, not a standard focused on the learner's individual growth as shown in the quality of the learner's work.

Teachers administered tests manufactured by the commercial publishers of the textbooks used by the school for reading, mathematics, social studies, science, and English instruction to evaluate student progress. Some of these written tests were printed in the textbooks themselves; some were on separate blackline masters; and some were in paperback booklet form. Results of the tests were shared with students,

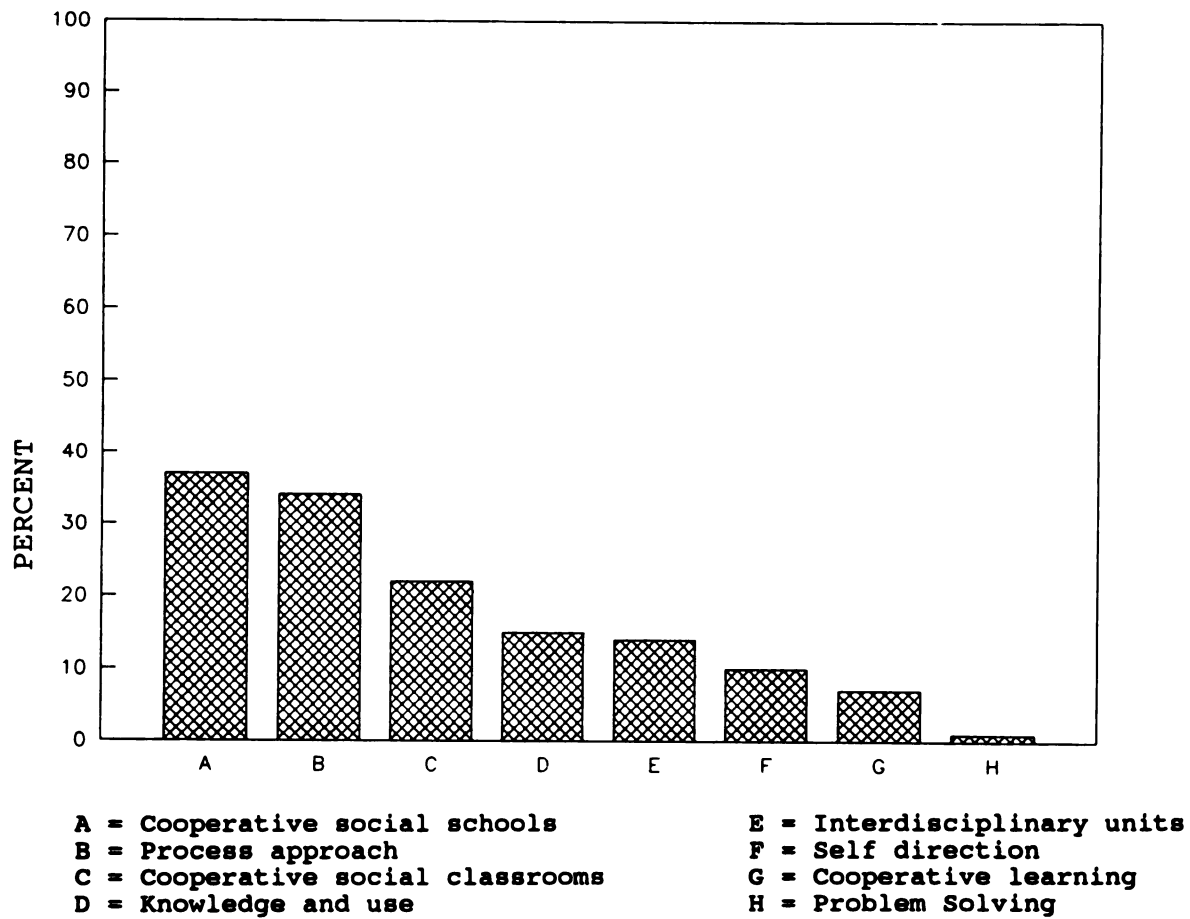
but the tests were not discussed with the whole group after they were graded and handed back. Reading tests were kept in their booklet format even after students completed the tests. Students were allowed to retake any tests--except state-mandated and standardized achievement tests--on which they received less than 80% correct. Both teachers said this was part of their "mastery" approach.

Data analysis consistently supported a determination that assessment of the students was done in a manner which was more standardized than focused on the evidence of each learner's individual growth. Learners were assessed according to a percentage of right answers on standardized textbook tasks. Also considered for assessment was how learners performed on standardized achievement tests and state mandated tests of minimal learning objectives.

### Summary

The bar graph in Figure 4.1 shows that 22% of the events observed (38 of 175) contained activities indicating classrooms as cooperative social organizations. Examination of the data supported the conclusion that teachers in a public elementary school develop and work within classrooms that are cooperative social organizations in some ways.





**Figure 4.1 Frequency of Deweyan indicants**

Further data analysis supported the related finding that classrooms are authoritarian organizations. Teachers make the classroom rules, determine the academic and social objectives, and plan the learning activities. Students are expected to complete assigned work alone and to comply with adult structured and monitored norms and procedures. Parents and community members are not asked about curricular matters until they voice objections after implementation of subjects or topics.

The use of the term cooperative to describe the classrooms would apply as Michael Apple (1990) used it to characterize the intent of early twentieth century curriculum theorists. Large-group internal cooperation was needed, they believed, to develop "large group consensus".

Similarly, the students in this study were expected to develop a high degree of normative and cognitive consensus, "likemindedness" (Apple, 1990, pp. 69-70). The use of a standardized curriculum and the expected compliance by students to adult structured and monitored activities reflect that expectation.

### Schools that are Cooperative Social Organizations

2. Do teachers in a public elementary school develop and work within a school that is a cooperative social organization?

2a. If so, what is the evidence that the school is a cooperative social organization?

Findings When the data were examined, the analysis supported the conclusion that a public elementary school in 1991-1992 is a cooperative social organization regarding some interactions.

Through data analysis, a few indicants of a cooperative social organization were found to be present in teacher-to-teacher and teacher-administrator interactions. However, additional scrutiny supported the related finding that teacher-to-teacher and teacher-to-administrator cooperation is usually related to procedural issues (e.g., methods and materials for using the standardized curriculum, student discipline, plans for schoolwide assemblies, administrative details for ordering materials and grouping students, procedures for examining the school improvement plan, fundraisers, assemblies, and field trips) rather than substantive pedagogical matters. Substantive matters such as the underlying principles and aims of the

school and the alignment of teaching practices with those principles are seldom discussed.

A second related finding is that parents, community members, support staff, and students are most often excluded from participating in decisions about curriculum. District policy provides for parental and community input, but such avenues are usually used only for complaints after decisions have already been made. Student input into curriculum exists in the form of performances on standardized measures of assessment.

This section is divided into three subsections: (1.) teacher-to-teacher interactions, (2.) interactions between teachers and others, and (3.) a short summary.

#### Teacher-to-teacher interaction

Examination of the data showed that teacher-to-teacher interaction focused on organizing for instruction (including grouping students), grade reporting, teaching ideas and materials, school improvement, professional development "training", the needs and progress of certain students, fundraisers, field trips, and assemblies.

One behavioral indicant of a school as a cooperative social organization is whether teachers consider themselves as specialists regarding some subject matter. At the same time they are sensitive to

the interrelationships between and among the various subject matters--the larger context.

Analysis of the data revealed that a few teachers considered themselves as specialists. For example, T<sub>1</sub> thought of herself as an expert in reading instruction. Most teachers, including T<sub>2</sub>, said they characterized themselves as generalists, however.

Examination of the data from the observations and interviews showed several interactions related to such considerations. One was a departmentalized approach to organization of instruction used by two of the fifth-grade teachers, one of whom was T<sub>2</sub>. She and the teacher next door grouped their students for reading, mathematics, social studies, and science classes. The teacher next door taught the "higher" math group, while T<sub>2</sub> instructed the "lower" group. T<sub>2</sub> had the "higher" reading group, and the teacher next door was in charge of the "lower" group. T<sub>2</sub> took all of the neighboring teacher's students for social studies instruction while all of her students were in the other teacher's classroom for science class.

In the second grade, T<sub>1</sub> was the only teacher (of four) who had her students all day long. The other three teachers grouped their students for reading instruction. The teachers organized groups according to achievement: high, medium, and low. One teacher

taught each of the groups during the block of time set aside for reading.

Other interactions between teachers related to considerations about whether or not they considered themselves as specialists. Analysis of the data showed that the same teachers who thought of themselves as specialists were viewed by others as experts.

T<sub>1</sub> was seen as an expert in reading. Another second-grade teacher was called an expert in the writing process. A fourth-grade teacher who was a district "trainer" in cooperative learning was referred to as a specialist in that approach. A fifth-grade teacher was described as the "science and technology expert" in the building. T<sub>2</sub> was the building expert on raising student self esteem.

When the data were analyzed further, the researcher found that a few teachers were somewhat sensitive to the larger context and the interrelationships between and among some of the various academic disciplines. Three pilot projects served as examples.

One teacher, the one who was considered an expert about writing instruction, tried a whole language approach to reading and writing instruction. Included in her pilot project was the use of themes, such as

"whales", around which reading and writing lessons were based.

T<sub>1</sub> tried a thematic approach to language arts instruction. Both teachers, although they called themselves "creative" and "risk takers," used the basal reader tests to evaluate and grade their students' progress.

A fifth-grade teacher tried activities from a commercial curriculum called AIMS, Activities to Integrate Math and Science, published and sold by the AIMS Foundation. He used AIMS lessons to supplement the standardized mathematics and science textbooks he used.

Of these three teachers, the two second-grade teachers were called upon by the building administrators and by other teachers to give advice and to write the action plan for implementing the building goal "to increase student ability to express ideas in written form." When professional development activities regarding language arts instruction occurred, both teachers volunteered or were asked to attend.

A fifth-grade teacher who was considered by others to be the unofficial school science consultant, kept the AIMS materials--stored in a type of resource

materials area--organized. He recommended assembly programs with scientific topics.

Sometimes, teachers asked other teachers, those whom they thought of as experts, for help. One teacher, the second-grade teacher who was considered an expert about writing instruction, worked with two first-grade teachers at their request during the school year. She gave them advice about methods to use, but she did not go into their classrooms to model an instructional approach. She also worked with a fourth-grade teacher.

Two second-grade teachers asked the cooperative learning expert to help them. They held meetings throughout the school year, but the expert teacher did not model the approach in the other classrooms.

The data were examined for another indicant of a cooperative social organization, teachers reflecting with each other regarding the needs and progress of students. Although the data analysis showed that teachers spent time reflecting with each other regarding student growth, further investigation showed that their discussions focused on student performance on standardized textbook or assessment tasks or on student failure to comply with adult structured procedures and behavior standards. This happened both informally and formally.



Informal reflections appeared to be the kind that occurred most often. They happened anywhere teachers gathered, including in each others' classrooms and at lunch. For example, T<sub>2</sub> went into the classroom next door to talk to another fifth grade teacher, her "team" partner, about a student they shared who was absent excessively. Together, the two teachers developed a strategy to help the student be more successful. One result of the informal meeting was that T<sub>2</sub> called the student's parents to seek further information and register their concerns.

The next morning the student was in school early. His mother was with him, and they brought afternoon snacks for T<sub>2</sub>'s class.

Formal reflections took place at staff meetings and at meetings to determine or reevaluate special education students' needs and progress. At one staff meeting, for example, teachers discussed how the results of student performance on the state mandated tests of minimal objectives would be analyzed.

"I want to know how my kids from last year did," said a third-grade teacher in reference to the fourth-grade tests. "I want to know what I should concentrate on to get my kids ready this year," she continued.

At another staff meeting, teachers discussed report card grades for handwriting. Teachers decided to grade handwriting to show that it was valued. "If we don't grade their handwriting, they [the students] will think we don't feel it is important," commented a third-grade teacher.

At the same meeting, teachers talked about their choice of grades for other subjects. A prior school improvement effort emphasized mastery learning, and upper grade teachers were urged to give only A, B, or I grades, with A or B signifying mastery and I meaning incomplete. Several upper grade teachers were still grading report cards in that manner.

"Are we still doing OBE?" one asked. (The prior school improvement effort was Outcome Based Education--OBE.) Nothing definite was decided, and teachers continued to use their various systems of letter grades. Some used A, B, C, D, or E, while some used A, B, or I.

Examination of the data showed that teachers interacted formally and informally to share materials and develop learning activities for the standardized curriculum and the school improvement plan. During the period of the research, teachers were preparing for the summative activity of the building writing improvement

goal. At several staff meetings the teachers shared many ideas for what and how to have students write.

At one meeting, T<sub>1</sub> described the use of blank books, and all teachers received blank books for their students. One teacher described how she organized and managed her students' writing activities in preparation for the Young Author event.

At another meeting, teachers discussed the annual standardized achievement testing. "I haven't even done the math for the CAT, yet," was the comment of one teacher who sounded overwhelmed.

Later, in response to the concern registered, another teacher at her grade level demonstrated where and how the CAT math questions matched the math textbook at their grade level. She also loaned the worried teacher some blackline master activity sheets.

Interactions at staff meetings also consisted of plans for assemblies. An awards assembly to recognize students who were on the honor roll was devised, and plans for other assemblies were discussed.

The needs and progress of individual students were discussed informally between teachers. This usually occurred when a student had academic or social difficulties. Individual students were not discussed at formal meetings nor in large groups which met

informally, including the group of teachers who ate lunch together.

Discussions regarding individual students' needs and progress were held in very small groups--two or three teachers--in private areas. Teachers who worked with a particular student discussed problems they were having, and other teachers gave suggestions about what methods of working with the student might "work." Sometimes, the student's teacher from a prior year or the resource room teacher (a special education professional) was a part of such informal meetings. Formal meetings about individual student's needs and progress were a part of the identification process for special education eligibility. Annual review meetings for students receiving special education services were also formal. The researcher observed neither formal nor informal meetings about the needs and progress of students who received supplemental Article III reading and mathematics instruction from the compensatory education paraprofessional.

The analysis of the data revealed an instance where a large group of teachers interacted in response to recurring instances of lower grade pupils misbehaving on the playground. The response included an after school ad hoc meeting of many teachers.

As a result, the teachers who were at the meeting decided to have all lower grade students stay in their classrooms for lunch and recess the next day. After eating, all pupils were to keep their heads down on their desks and to "think about" how they acted and how they should have acted during the noon recess. This informal meeting did not include all teachers, but most were there.

An investigation of the data revealed that teachers did not spend time deeply reflecting about substantive matters such as their own professional growth. Reflection regarding professional growth usually occurred in terms of choosing workshops they thought they should attend to learn how to "do" something. The time they spent alone or with each other was used to plan learning activities.

Teachers said they did not have enough time during a typical day to reflect about their own professional growth. About 20% of the staff reported to work at 7:00 a.m., one hour and fifteen minutes before their contractual starting time. They said they needed to do that in order to get everything done that needed to be done. Correcting papers and planning learning activities was how most of the early time was spent. After the official beginning of the school day, teachers said they were involved in meetings and could

not get done what needed to be done in order for their class to run "smoothly".

#### Interactions among teachers and others

The data were examined for indicants of interaction among teachers and others regarding the joint development of curriculum. Data analysis showed that support staff, parents, community members, and students did not have input into development of curriculum. They did not comment unless they objected to a curriculum decision made by the board of education through district committees usually comprised of teachers and administrators. Interactions of this nature were more fully described in the preceding section.

Student performance on standardized measures of achievement affected decisions about curriculum. The data analysis found that the results of such assessments were the primary considerations when teachers determined what to teach and how to teach it. Such results were viewed in two different ways.

First, teachers examined test results of their students from the prior year to determine where those students did not do well. These areas would be emphasized more with the current students. Second, test results of current students were analyzed to find additional areas which should be given stronger focus.

Teachers wanted to make sure their students did well on standardized tests because they wanted the pupils to be successful "in the next grade."

The standardized curriculum, approved by the board of education, consisted of commercially prepared textbooks, workbooks, blackline masters, and assessment measures. Teachers said they felt free to teach how and what they wanted. Yet, the data analysis showed that even teachers who called themselves "creative" or "risk takers" adapted their instruction to standardized texts and materials adopted by the district.

Further analysis showed that teachers adopted the objectives of the district curriculum as printed in the standardized texts, teachers' guides, and assessments. Although learning activities in the whole language and thematic pilot projects were devised by teachers themselves, objectives for students were based on those of the standardized materials, so that students would be "successful in the next grade."

Through examination of the data from observations and interviews, the researcher determined that the underlying principles and aims of the school were not discussed although posters stating the school mission were posted in each classroom. The mission statement was developed by teachers and a former building

principal without the participation of support staff, parents, community representatives, or students.

When the data were scrutinized to find indicants of regularly scheduled discussions regarding how practices in the school aligned with the underlying principles and aims of the school, such discussions were not found. Even after a provision for regularly scheduled discussions was discarded, subsequent data analysis did not reveal support for the presence of any interactions concerned with the underlying principles and aims of the school as main topics.

With regard to teacher input into the management of the school, data analysis also showed teachers had very little input into management. Although the building administrator turned over to teachers more and more decisions, analysis of the data found that decisions turned over to teachers were of a procedural nature, such as procedures for examining standardized test results, the building school improvement goals and objectives, and special education student mainstreaming.

Further scrutiny of the data found that teachers wanted to make some decisions but not others and that they wanted to make the choice about which decisions they would make. At one staff meeting, a teacher asked that the problem-solving committee be reinstated.



Teachers and the building administrator agreed to do so, and the committee was considered reinstated.

The building administrator later turned over to the committee a problem about scheduling for the succeeding year. "Why doesn't he make that decision himself!" the chairperson exclaimed. "That's not a problem for us to solve."

When the building administrator turned over the distribution of some instructional materials to two second-grade teachers, they said he "wasn't doing his job." Analysis of the data lends support to the assumption that teachers viewed participatory decision making in three ways.

One way was to want to have a "say" in decisions affecting them. An example of this was when the large ad hoc group of teachers designed a plan to deal with the recess misbehavior of the lower grade students. At their request, the building principal implemented their decision.

Another way teachers viewed such participatory decision making was as a sign of weakness on the part of the administration. The data analysis found that this happened when teachers did not want to be involved in certain decisions such as the scheduling problem.

Further analysis of the data lends support to a third view. Teachers wanted to share in making

decisions for which they could be accountable. The teachers, for example, did not want to assume accountability for the scheduling problem.

When the data were examined for indicants of teachers having input into allocation and distribution of district money, no support for substantive input into such matters was found. Teachers were received a certain amount of money for their classroom. How to spend money allocated to them by central administration was the extent of their input. However, teachers had almost complete control over how the money raised by students and volunteers in local fundraising efforts was spent. The teachers spent money for 1991-1992 on assemblies, field trips, a visiting author, and other projects.

Through analysis of the observation and interview data, the researcher determined that teacher input into the school calendar and starting and dismissal times was through the teachers' collective bargaining group under terms of the master agreement with the school board. One teacher was an association representative who communicated the wishes of building teachers to the executive committee.

Examination of the data found that placement of students in classrooms for the succeeding year was done by teachers according to established guidelines. The

placements were subject to being overridden by the principal, however.

Further examination of the data established that teachers did not determine the times of lunch and recess nor that of classes such as physical education which were taught by itinerant teachers. Class schedules were determined by the traveling teachers and the school administrators. Teachers had some input, however.

Data analysis found no support for teacher input into the selection of personnel for the building. Personnel decisions were handled by central administration according to district policy and collective bargaining agreements.

### Summary

According to the bar graph (Figure 4.1), 37% of the observed events (65 of 175) had activities which were indicants of the school as a cooperative social organization. Investigation of the data supported the conclusion that a public elementary school in 1991-1992 is a cooperative social organization regarding some interactions.

Further examination supported a related finding that cooperation is usually in relation to procedural rather than substantive pedagogical matters. Included in procedural issues are methods and materials for

using the standardized curriculum, student discipline, plans for schoolwide assemblies, administrative details of ordering materials and grouping students, procedures to examine the school improvement plan, fundraisers, assemblies, and field trips. Substantive matters such as the underlying principles and aims of the school and the alignment of teaching practices with those principles usually are not discussed.

That parents, community members, support staff, and students are usually excluded from participation in decisions about curriculum is a second related finding. District policy provides ways for parents and community members to have input, but such avenues usually are used most frequently for complaints after decisions have already been made. Student input into curriculum consists of performances on standardized measures of assessment.

### Integration of Scientific Problem Solving Into Learning Experiences

3. Do teachers in a public elementary school integrate scientific problem solving into learning experiences?
- 3a. If so, what is the evidence of integration of scientific problem solving into learning experiences?

Findings Close study of the data consistently supported the conclusion that scientific problem

solving is seldom integrated into learning experiences in a public elementary school in 1991-1992. A related finding that scientific problem solving is virtually excluded from the curriculum was supported through further analysis. Additionally, the researcher found through the data analysis that teachers view scientific problem solving as a separate subject.

The data and analysis are presented in three subsections: (1.) Indicators of the teacher's role in scientific problem solving, (2.) Indicators of student activity in problem solving, and (3.) a short summary.

#### Teacher's role in scientific problem solving

The data were examined to identify events and activities in which teachers helped students to develop skills in problem solving and decision making. Four instances were located. However, upon further analysis, the researcher determined that two of the instances were interactions in which students were being asked to comply with the adult structured and monitored norms and procedures.

In the first interaction, T<sub>2</sub> asked a student who did not have her written assignments completed, "Do you think you should have been working on your kite yesterday or should you have been working on your math assignment?" Examination of the facts of the instance

lends support to the determination that the teacher was reinforcing compliance with the classroom norm of completing written tasks before working on other (optional) projects.

In the second interaction,  $T_1$  looked up from a group of students with whom she was working and told a student who was in another part of the room, "Do you think you can work without bothering J (another student) or do you want to come to sit by me?" Analysis of the data regarding this instance supports that the  $T_1$  was reinforcing compliance with the classroom norm of working by oneself without disturbing others.

The data analysis supported the determination that neither of the foregoing interactions was an indicator of a teacher helping students to develop problem-solving skills. The decisions students were being asked to make were decisions about compliance with classroom norms and procedures. Further analysis lends support for the finding that obedience was expected and reinforced.

Two interactions in which the teacher served as a guide to help students develop skills in problem solving and decision making were observed. Both occurred during fifth-grade DARE instruction. The city police officer who taught DARE was serving as the

teacher both times. The DARE problem solving examples were role play activities and the creation of public service announcements. Students focused on problems about how they might be tempted to use drugs, including alcohol. The police officer guided students in creating and role playing relevant solutions.

Examination of the data located support for a determination that teachers believed scientific problem solving was "science." Several teachers said they did not "do it" because they lacked confidence about teaching science.

Data analysis also supported the finding that teachers thought of problem solving as a separate subject to teach. There wasn't enough time available to teach it. One teacher commented, "I know what to do, and I have a strategy board I've used for teaching problem solving. But, if we keep adding new subjects to the curriculum, something has to go. I don't have time to teach problem solving this year."

Additionally, investigation of the data located support for a determination that some teachers did not "do" problem solving because of parental objections. The facts of an interview included a reference to fifth-grade parents who objected that negotiation was taught as a part of the problem-solving unit in the state Health Model.

The parents complained to district administrators who directed teachers to use only school-related examples when teaching that particular unit. According to the interview, parents were concerned that their students would learn "everything is negotiable". They did not want their youngsters to think that their parental decisions were negotiable in any way.

The data were investigated to locate interactions in which teachers arranged the classroom environment so that situations and activities of interest to the students were presented as problems and opportunities for learning. No examples were found. Students do not have opportunities to be actively involved in determining problems they want to solve and identifying their purposes for learning.

Additionally, the data were studied closely to ascertain if teachers acted to guide learners in the use of scientific problem solving across the curriculum. Further analysis was conducted to determine if teachers acted similarly in relation to students' social interactions. Examples of teachers acting as problem-solving guides were not found.

#### Student activities in problem solving

Facts were closely studied to find interactions in which students were actively involved in identifying problems which they wanted to solve. By being involved



In such determinations, students would thereby be involved in determining their purposes for learning. However, no examples of such involvement were located.

Related indicants focused on the involvement of students in selection and evaluation of activities to accomplish their learning purposes; on teachers serving as assistants to students as learners work to accomplish learning purposes; and on student input into organization of what has been learned. The data analysis did not find support for these kinds of interactions. A more complete discussion of them is presented in the first two sections of this chapter.

#### Summary

The bar graph in Figure 4.1 shows 1% of the events (2 of 175) had activities that contained indicants of scientific problem solving. Both events occurred as part of Drug Abuse Resistance Education (DARE) learning activities taught in the fifth grade by a police officer.

Systematic study of the data consistently supported the conclusion that scientific problem solving is seldom integrated into learning activities in a public elementary school in 1991-1992. Additional analysis upheld the finding that scientific problem solving is virtually excluded. Further, some teachers view problem solving as a distinct "subject".

### Focus on Student Development of Self Direction

4. Do teachers in a public elementary school focus on student development of self direction?

4a. If so, what is the evidence of the teachers' focus on student development of self direction?

Findings Through the examination of the data, support was found for the conclusion that teachers in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 infrequently focus on student development of self direction. Further analysis of the facts upheld two related findings.

First, events and activities in the school reflect teacher direction, not student self direction. Second, teachers perceive their learners as self directed when students need little assistance, know the assignments, and produce the assigned work.

The discussion in this section is divided into three subsections: (1.) teacher perceptions of self direction, (2.) a discussion of special projects, and (3.) a summary and restatement of the conclusions.

### Teacher perceptions of self direction

Systematic study of the facts of the observations and interviews finds support for the finding that teachers interpreted self direction in two different ways. First, the data demonstrated that student

compliance with the norms and culture of the classroom was how some teachers viewed student self direction. Those teachers identified self-directed learners as those who didn't bother others, knew what assignments to do, and got them done with little or no attention from the teacher.

Further investigation of the data supported a determination that some teachers perceived student self direction as a student conducting an investigation and learning something he or she wanted to learn. One teacher, the data show, perceived self direction both ways.

The data analysis consistently supported that the first definition was the one which was reinforced in the school. T<sub>1</sub> called her classroom a "self-directed classroom." By that, she meant that students came into the classroom in the morning in an orderly manner and got right to work on the assigned tasks. She said, "They know what to do, I don't have to tell them very much."

T<sub>1</sub> commented that students in her self-directed classroom behaved well if she wasn't in the room. Sometimes, she had informal meetings with other teachers or with parents and was unable to be in the classroom when students entered. Her students entered quietly when she was there and when she wasn't there.

The second meaning, indicative of Deweyan instructional practice, was shown to be present in the form of extra projects. Further investigation into the data found that such projects were somewhat indicative of self direction in the Deweyan sense, but they lacked substance. The teacher was rarely involved in guiding and helping students to evaluate their growth. The projects may or may not have originated in what had already been learned.

#### Special projects

The data included examples of special projects such as SEARCH, plays, and the theme-of-the-month projects. SEARCH was for students from several area school districts and was designed so students could share with each other particular investigations they did. SEARCH projects were done at home.

Second graders in T<sub>1</sub>'s class and in the class of the teacher next door--the expert about teaching writing--worked on and presented plays and programs in school. T<sub>1</sub>'s students worked with a fourth-grade class to present a Christmas play. They worked at home on required theme of the month projects planned by T<sub>1</sub>.

Through an examination of the facts it was found that teachers who used special projects did not guide students nor become involved. Indicators of such involvement would have been that teachers helped

students to form purposes for learning, to select and evaluate methods to accomplish their learning purposes, to evaluate what was learned, and to assess how the student was growing in self direction. The data analysis found no support for teacher involvement of that nature.

The examination of the facts found that teachers provided opportunities for students to share accomplishments with other members of the school community. During the school year,  $T_1$ 's students presented four plays for parents. Upper grade students displayed science projects at a school science fair.  $T_2$  had students present their SEARCH projects to classmates. The Young Author assembly consisted of student representatives from each classroom reading examples of their writing. Parents and community members attended each event.

### Summary

The bar graph in Figure 4.1 shows that 10% of the events observed (17 of 175) contained activities with indicants of self direction in a Deweyan sense. Through the examination of the data, support was found for the conclusion that teachers in a public elementary school infrequently focus on student development of self direction. The analysis of the data also provided support for two additional findings: (1.) events in

the school reflect teacher direction, not student self direction, and (2.) teachers view self-directed students as those who need little teacher assistance, know the assignments, and produce assigned work.

Use of Interdisciplinary Units of Study Incorporating  
Active Involvement of Students as They Address Problems  
that are Relevant to Real Life

5. Do teachers in a public elementary school design and use interdisciplinary units of study that incorporate the active involvement of students as they address problems relevant to real life?

5a. If so, what is the evidence of the design and use of interdisciplinary units of study that incorporate the active involvement of students as they address problems relevant to real life?

Findings The analysis of the data supported the conclusion that teachers in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 seldom use interdisciplinary units of study that incorporate the active involvement of students as they address problems relevant to real life. Further analysis led to the finding that teachers use standardized commercial curriculum materials to address the various disciplines of knowledge as separate subjects.

Additional findings upheld in the examination of the facts are that relevance occurs by chance; students are not actively involved in the learning experiences; and discontinuity of learning experiences prevails over continuity.

The findings are delineated in five subsections: (1.) units of study, (2.) involvement of students, (3.) room arrangements, (4.) relevance, and (5.) a short summary.

#### Units of study

The data consistently supported the finding that teachers used units of study prescribed by standardized commercial textbooks, workbooks, and assessments. Some teachers supplemented the textbook units of study with integrated reading and writing activities or with integrated math and science experiences.

T<sub>1</sub> and the teacher next door, both of whom considered themselves experts in language arts instruction, used some integrated reading and writing units. The fifth-grade teacher who was considered to be the building science and mathematics expert used some lessons that incorporated both disciplines. However, examination of the data did not show evidence of the integration of language arts, mathematics,

social studies, science, and the fine arts into the same unit.

Through investigation of the observation and interview facts, the researcher ascertained that field trips were indications of interdisciplinary learning activities. Teachers planned and implemented field trips to provide students with experiences. T<sub>1</sub>'s rationale is discussed in the first section of this chapter.

Further examination of the data supported the determination that field trips usually were not components of larger units of study and were taken with little preparation and little follow up. Before or after field trips, teachers did little to integrate various disciplines of knowledge. The picnic field trip (discussed in the first section of this chapter) in which T<sub>1</sub> and her class met the pen pals they'd been writing to all year, was somewhat exceptional.

Learning activities were rarely connected or continuous. Examination of the data of classroom events and activities offers support for the finding that, after a certain period of time spent discussing and working on the learning objectives of one subject, an abrupt change to a different subject was made. In the following manner, the teacher directed the transition to another subject: "All right. Put away



your spelling textbooks and get out your math books.  
We're going to work on page \_\_\_\_."

The succeeding subject was not related to concepts or facts from the previous subject. The data analysis consistently supported the finding that the various disciplines of knowledge were called "subjects" and were not related nor integrated with each other in even the most minimal ways. Even the pilot projects in second-grade language arts (reading and writing) were separate and distinct from what students studied in social studies, math, science, and the fine arts (if teachers provided experiences in the arts). Scrutiny of the facts of the fifth-grade AIMS lessons supported the determination that they were unrelated to language arts and social studies learning.

Additionally, the analysis supported the determination that within the various disciplines, subsequent learning activities did not have their roots in participation in previous learning experiences. The fifth-grade AIMS lessons did not emulate from previous learning experiences in math or science, nor were they related to subsequent activities which focused on those disciplines.

All three pilot projects had their roots in standardized commercial materials as shown by the close study of the data. The second-grade teachers designed

units of study to integrate reading and writing, but, when interviewed, they said that their objectives were related to those of the standardized objectives of the curriculum. They said that, although they didn't use the basal reader according to the teachers' guide, they administered the basal reader "magazine" tests "to make sure" that their students were progressing "okay." One of the teachers explained, "I want to make sure my kids will be successful in third grade where teachers use so many workbooks and skill sheets." Third-grade teachers complain to second-grade teachers if their students appear unfamiliar with how to do workbooks.

The analysis of the data supported the determination that some learning activities were in place because of tradition. Certain assemblies and field trips were examples.

Fifth-grade teachers, for example, were in charge of raising thousands of dollars and supervising their students for three days and two nights at a residential outdoor education camp. When asked why, they said they didn't know. "Before we came here," one commented, "we were told by the assistant superintendent and other teachers that the fifth grade in this building 'always goes to camp'".

Study of the data revealed that field trips, fifth-grade camping included, were not only good

examples of traditional learning activities, they also indicated the discrete and discontinuous qualities of the learning experiences. Experiences of a field trip were not necessarily rooted in previous learning experiences and did not necessarily serve as purposes for learning, that is, purposes for learner participation in further learning experiences that had roots in the field trip.

#### Involvement of students

As discussed more completely in the first four sections of this chapter, the analysis of the data supported the finding that students were not involved in selection and evaluation of methods and activities to accomplish learning purposes. Closer scrutiny of the facts revealed that purposes for learning were usually not communicated to students.

However, T<sub>1</sub> sometimes explained the rationale for reading lessons by stating, "This will help you to be better readers." More often, when she communicated a purpose for learning, she told students the reason they were doing work from their spelling and social studies textbooks was because "you will have to be able to do this in third grade."

The analysis found that teachers sometimes helped students to organize what had been learned, but not often. Usually, the data indicated, such organization

occurred just before a paper-and-pencil test. It consisted of group discussion and review of learned facts which would be tested.

Analysis of the facts provided support for the finding that listening was the student's primary mode of learning. A related determination sustained by the analysis was that learning activities involved more learning channels (e.g., visual and kinesthetic) in the second grade than in the fifth grade, although second graders still used their auditory modes the majority of the time.

According to the data analysis, second-grade students had more freedom of movement than fifth-grade students. They also "made" (constructed) more things. In the fifth grade, the examination of the data determined the prevalent instructional practice was large group discussion and oral reading from the textbook. Students were required to listen more than to be actively involved using other learning channels.

After careful study, the researcher determined that students were not actively involved in learning activities which used physical media such as math manipulatives and scale models. Further analysis revealed that the various disciplines of knowledge were approached from a symbolic perspective emphasizing process (e.g., how to add two-digit numerals).

Very few scale models were present in the building. The ones available in the fifth grade were in the classroom of the teacher who was considered a mathematics and science specialist. He appeared to be the teacher who used them.

Math manipulatives were stored in a materials area located next to the administrative offices. During the period of the study, most of the materials remained on the shelves. The data examination showed that neither  $T_1$  nor  $T_2$  had students work with math manipulatives.

$T_1$  and  $T_2$  used standardized, commercially produced workbooks, textbooks, blackline masters, and assessment materials. Both  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  said they modified or skipped some procedures of the teachers' guides, but that the objectives and "skills" were still important so their students could be "successful in the next grade".

As depicted in the data,  $T_1$  did not use the math, science, or social studies textbooks. She did use the blackline masters that correlated with each of those texts. Usually, she introduced and discussed the day's lesson through the use of the chalkboard. In math class, she then passed out copies of the worksheets made from the blackline masters. She had students mark "DI" (i.e., "direct instruction") at the top of the worksheet if they worked on the sheet together.

Otherwise, students worked alone to complete the assigned worksheet.

For science and social studies instruction, T<sub>1</sub> designed and used whole-class learning games in which students reviewed basic concepts through review of vocabulary. Although students didn't use textbooks, the learning objectives were from the teachers' guides; copies of blackline masters were used for assignments. The data analysis confirms that students' involvement in math, social studies, and science classes in the second grade was to listen and comment when asked and to do the assigned paper-and-pencil tasks with at least 80% correct.

T<sub>1</sub> organized an approach to reading and writing instruction in which students were more actively involved. The data showed that students in her room began each day by writing in journals. They also wrote assigned stories that correlated with the theme of the month. They were involved in doing the pen pal activity all year, also. Students were actively involved in writing during class time devoted to it.

The facts showed that T<sub>2</sub> used six different textbooks. She also used the blackline masters to supplement the textbook lessons. At the beginning of each "subject" class period, she reviewed with students what they had worked on during the previous lesson(s).

Then, she demonstrated on the chalkboard the processes involved in the current lesson (e.g., how to multiply three-digit numerals by three-digit numerals with a zero in the tens' column).

After a period of about 10 minutes, students were assigned written tasks from the textbook or on worksheets. Pupil involvement, as consistently supported by the review of the facts of the observations, was to listen and comment when asked, then to complete the paper-and-pencil task assigned with at least 80% of the answers correct.

The data contained evidence that some students were actively involved in learning activities such as plays and skits. Examination confirmed the finding that such active involvement of students happened more in the second grade than in the fifth grade.

Fifth-grade students in Project DARE were involved in active learning activities planned and directed by the police officer who taught DARE. Additionally, fifth-grade students were actively involved in learning experiences through field trips and while at outdoor education camp. Such activities, as discussed in the preceding subsection, lacked continuity in the same way that separate subject textbook activities did.

Room arrangements

The data analysis confirmed the finding that although classrooms had movable furniture, space was limited because the rooms were small and contained relatively large numbers of students (27 and 29). Therefore, flexibility in room arrangements for student activities and work was limited.

Examination of the facts of the observations showed that seating arrangements did not vary. Second-grade students were seated in groups while fifth-grade students were seated in rows.

Sometimes, the second graders sat on a large area rug in a section of the classroom near the classroom library. Occasionally, T<sub>1</sub> had them do this for large group instruction. Investigation of the data found that during independent work periods, if students had their assigned work completed, they could move from their desks to the carpeted area to read quietly. The second-grade classroom also contained three large tables placed in areas of the classroom where students could sit when their assigned work was group work or learning centers.

The fifth-grade classroom did not have room for such areas. It was filled to capacity with rows of student desks. Students in the fifth grade, the data analysis revealed, were required to sit in their chairs



at their desks all day. The only exceptions were when the class, as a whole, went to other locations in the school for physical education, library, computer classes, or lunch. On "bank days" (i.e., professional development days when students were in school only until noon), all students were required to eat lunch at their classroom desks.

### Relevance

When the data were analyzed to find the use of simulations, three were found. Two occurred as parts of DARE lessons taught by the city police officer. (Both are discussed fully in the third section of this chapter.) Additionally, the fifth-grade Everybody Counts lesson (depicted in the first section of this chapter) taught by volunteer parents incorporated several activities which simulated learning disabilities.

Close study of the data did not locate learning experiences that were simulations such as classroom banks, classroom stock market clubs, classroom or school stores, or classroom or school post offices. The analysis supported the finding that students did not experience learning activities in which they simulate and participate in activities related to real life activities.

**Summary**

The bar graph in Figure 4.1 shows that 14% of the events observed and recorded (25 of 175) had indicators of interdisciplinary units of study. Four of those events were field trips from which no further learning experiences arose. In some, only reading and writing were incorporated while others integrated only math and science. Plays produced by second-grade classes accounted for many of the designations. Five of the events with interdisciplinary indicators were learning activities planned and taught by outsiders (e.g., parent volunteers and the DARE police officer).

The analysis of the data supported the conclusion that teachers in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 seldom use interdisciplinary units of study that incorporate the active involvement of students as they address problems relevant to real life. Further analysis led to a related finding that teachers use standardized commercial curriculum materials to address the various disciplines of knowledge as separate subjects. Additional findings were that relevance occurs by chance; students are not actively involved in the learning experiences; and, discontinuity of learning experiences prevails over continuity.

## Use of Cooperative Learning Approaches to Instruction

6. Do teachers in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 use cooperative learning approaches to instruction?

6a. If so, what is the evidence of cooperative learning approaches to instruction?

Findings The data analysis supported the conclusion that teachers in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 rarely use cooperative learning approaches to instruction. An additional finding upheld by the data analysis is that students are usually expected to complete assigned tasks alone, especially in the upper grades.

The findings for this section are discussed in three subsections: (1.) student-to-student interaction, (2.) teacher-and-student interaction, and (3.) a short summary.

### Student-to-student interaction

The data analysis supported the finding that students seldom spent time working in groups on communal projects. Some instances of group work were reported, however.

T<sub>1</sub> sometimes had students work together in what she called "peer reading." This activity usually

involved two students reading orally to each other from the basal reader. Students in her class also worked together in larger groups (e.g., four students) several times during the observation period. One instance was a "webbing" activity in which the group task was to develop a semantic map of the main ideas in basal reader expository text about the weather. Each student in the group made his or her own map, but the group worked on their maps together.

Another instance of cooperative grouping in  $T_1$ 's class was when groups of students worked together on seat work activities which correlated with the monthly theme for April, rabbits. Again, each student in the group worked on completion of his or her own packet of work sheets.

Throughout the data collection period indicators showed that  $T_1$ 's students worked in groups to plan and present plays. The students presented two plays for a Mothers' Day program. Previous to the period of the study, the students had presented plays on three other occasions.

$T_1$  assigned plays to groups of students. Then, she provided class time for groups to work together to assign each other's parts and to practice.

Through further examination of the data, five events indicate students worked together cooperatively

In the fifth grade. One of those events occurred as a part of the Everybody Counts lesson taught by parent volunteers. In that lesson, students worked in groups on several different activities. Every student in the group was responsible for his or her own task, but students could work together. Tasks were simulations of learning disabilities that included mirror writing.

Two other events in which T<sub>2</sub>'s fifth-grade students worked together were found in the data. Both were planned and directed by the city police officer who taught Project DARE. In one, students were assigned to groups to role play solutions to situations in which they were tempted to use drugs or alcohol. In the other, students were assigned to groups to produce public service announcements for broadcast on local radio stations. In both of the events, students were responsible to each other for the completion of the task.

A fourth event in which fifth-grade students worked together occurred in French class several days before the class went to camp. The French teacher put the students into groups to work on translation of words related to the outdoors. Each student in the group worked on his or her own worksheet, even though students could work together.

The data analysis revealed another event in which fifth graders worked together. This happened at camp. In one of the activities, planned and directed by volunteers, students were paired to locate items for a nature scavenger hunt. Students in each pair were responsible to each other and jointly prepared one answer sheet.

Further examination of the data for indicators of cooperative approaches to learning in the fifth grade led to the finding that T<sub>2</sub> did not use cooperative learning in her class. The events in which students worked together were all planned and directed by others (e.g., parent and other volunteers, the DARE police officer, and the French teacher). T<sub>2</sub> commented during an interview, "I've tried it, but I feel that I lose control when students work in groups of four and five. It gets too noisy."

When the researcher investigated the data for indicators of cooperative learning in other classrooms, she found that every time she visited the classroom of the fourth-grade-teacher who was the cooperative learning specialist, students were working individually. Additionally, through examination of the data from visits to other classrooms, including rooms designated as PAT, the researcher did not locate other

events in which cooperative learning approaches were used.

Through close study of the observation and interview data, the researcher ascertained that students worked together for nine events. In two of the events, students shared responsibility for the group task. Each student was held responsible in the others, even the second-grade plays in which the teacher held each student responsible for memorizing his or her part. For peer reading, the teacher held each student responsible for being able to pronounce the vocabulary words.

Data reviews also failed to find indicators that students working in cooperative groups focused on social objectives as well as academic tasks. Nor did older students regularly work with younger students and "gifted" students did not work with those who needed more time to learn.

Related to that, data from the interviews contained several instances in which teachers of "gifted" students voiced concerns about using cooperative groups to have gifted students help others. Two teachers, in separate individual interviews said, "Gifted students shouldn't be held back by others. They need a chance to grow and expand, too."

Data show that students did not work cooperatively. In comparison to the total events and activities observed, those in which groups of students worked together were few (see the summary of this section). In the majority of the events and activities, teachers expected students to complete academic tasks alone.

#### Teacher-and-student interaction

When cooperative groups were used, teachers focused on the academic tasks, not on the group's growth in social interaction. Teachers did not aid students in developing group decision making and conflict resolution skills. Although teachers (or whoever was in charge) observed groups and provided feedback, the feedback was academic in nature and was not shared nor did teachers encourage students to share their progress on social purposes.

Additionally, no data were found to support group summary and processing focused on how the groups accomplished their goals. When T<sub>1</sub> used cooperative groups, she determined the make up of the group. As shown by the data from the interviews, she had in mind the purpose(s) of the learning, the need for some kind of mix and representativeness within each group, and the academic needs of individual students in mind, but she did not mention social purposes.



### Summary

The bar graph in Figure 4.1 shows that 7% of the observed events (13 of 175) had activities with elements of cooperative learning approaches to instruction. Eight of those events were observed in the second-grade class, and five were observed in the fifth-grade class. Of the five which occurred in the fifth grade, one was planned and directed by parent volunteers, two were planned and directed by the DARE police officer, one was planned and directed by the French teacher, and one occurred when the researcher was in charge of a group at camp.

The data analysis supported the conclusion that teachers in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 rarely use cooperative learning approaches to instruction. A related finding upheld by further analysis is that students are usually expected to complete assigned tasks alone, especially in the upper grades.

### **Knowledge and Use of Students' Experiential Backgrounds and Developmental Levels to Make the Various Disciplines of Knowledge Part of a Total and Growing Experience**

7. Do teachers in a public elementary school know and use students' experiential backgrounds and

developmental levels to make the various disciplines of knowledge part of a total and growing experience?

7a. If so, what is the evidence of the knowledge and use of students' experiential backgrounds and developmental levels to make the various disciplines of knowledge part of a total and growing experience?

Findings The analysis of the data provided support for the conclusion that teachers in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 generally do not use students' experiential backgrounds and developmental levels to make the various disciplines of knowledge part of a total and growing experience. Three related findings were upheld through the examination of the data.

The first related finding is that even though teachers get to know students' experiential backgrounds and developmental levels, the standardization of curriculum overrides a teacher's knowledge of students as individuals. Further analysis led to a second finding that although teachers use standardized curriculum materials to be in control of the teaching and learning that goes on in their classrooms, in reality, such use means teachers are not in control. Related to these findings is the third finding that teachers perceive knowledge as something external that others (e.g., textbook authors and university professors) have, but that they themselves don't have.

Discussion in this section is divided into four subsections: (1.) knowledge as emphasized and perceived by teachers, (2.) teacher actions to acquire knowledge of students, (3.) professional development, and (4.) a short summary.

#### Knowledge emphasis and perception

Did teachers place more emphasis on the various disciplines of knowledge as resources in solving problems than on the individual disciplines? The data showed that teachers did not integrate problem-solving activities (see section three), but used standard commercial curriculum materials regardless of students' experiential or developmental backgrounds.

Through knowledge of the standardized curriculum for each grade level, through use of the students' cumulative files, and by talking to each other, teachers learned what each student accomplished before coming to the teacher's class. The data analysis indicates that teachers worked harder to learn a student's academic and social strengths and weaknesses if that student exhibited academic or social problems.

Some teachers adapted the standard curriculum if learners were having difficulty attaining a "mastery" level of correct answers, 80% correct, on classroom assignments. In such adaptations, teachers still used standard materials but allowed students more time to

complete assignments. Teachers grouped students so that some groups proceeded through the materials at a slower pace than other groups. Another adaption was to allow students to retest until "mastery" was reached. Additionally, teachers used standardized curriculum materials at a different level of difficulty for certain students.

Consistent with the analysis for other Deweyan pedagogical practices in this study students did not participate in the formation of purposes for learning (identification of problems) nor did they have input into selecting the means to accomplish the learning purposes. Students did not participate in evaluation of the accomplishment of learning purposes, either. Even teachers who called themselves "creative" planned learning activities according to the objectives of the standardized curricular materials. (This is discussed more completely in sections two and three of this chapter.) Growth was measured by how well students performed on standardized assessment measures.

Teachers viewed knowledge as something external and "belonging" to experts. What the teacher felt confident and comfortable doing appeared to affect the learning experiences more than did the teacher's knowledge of individual students. Teachers perceived more control of what was learned when they used the

standardized materials. Yet, they did not design nor write the materials. Data analysis led to the determination that teachers thought they did not possess the "expert" knowledge needed to do so.

Curriculum as prescribed by the standardized materials was written and published by "experts" external to the school. Because of that, further data analysis supported the finding that although teachers used standardized curriculum materials to be more in control, actual control was external.

"I feel that the authors of the textbooks are experts, and they know how to present and organize what my kids need to know," commented one teacher.

"I don't feel confident that I know enough about science to be able to teach it without a textbook," said another. Similar comments were made in relation to reading, writing, social studies, and math.

Analysis of the events and activities involved in implementation of the school improvement goal "to improve students' abilities in writing" provided further support for the finding that teachers perceived knowledge as something external and belonging to experts. During the period of the study, some teachers emphasized student improvement in writing.

The committee that planned for the implementation of that particular school improvement goal urged

teachers to incorporate writing activities into their classes. An all school assembly was planned as a summative activity in which students from each class were supposed to share their writing with each other and with parents.

As the time for the assembly drew near, several teachers registered doubt that they knew the "right" way to have students write. In the words of  $T_1$ , whom other viewed as a reading and writing specialist, some teachers "panicked."

That "panic" was observed at a staff meeting in which several teachers, with voices higher pitched and louder than usual, said they didn't "know how to do it [the writing]" especially without having to do all the editing that they thought would have been necessary. "There isn't enough time in my day to do all that," one said.

In response to the concerns raised by those "unsure" staff members, one member of the writing goal committee, the writing expert whose classroom was next door to  $T_1$ , assisted a fourth-grade teacher in directing a writing activity in her classroom. At the next staff meeting, the fourth-grade teacher, who was (then) enthusiastic about writing because her classroom writing activity was successful, explained to the

others how well her students had done and how she, with help, organized the experience.

Analysis of the data from an interview found that the writing expert teacher used her own time to observe in classrooms and attend professional development meetings in another school district so that she could learn how to "manage" student writing activities. Further examination of the data confirmed that she and other teachers often mentioned the need to learn "how" to do something from persons whom they perceived as experts.

Data that confirmed teachers' perceptions of knowledge as external also existed in the numerous times teachers asked the researcher to help them improve based on what she saw in their classrooms and her (perceived) expert knowledge. In the sense that standardized materials were perceived to contain "expert" knowledge, their existence and use was also a confirmation of the teachers' perceptions.

The data consistently supported that teachers used the objectives of the standardized materials regardless of the students' experiential or developmental levels. A further finding, that teachers perceived knowledge as external to them but possessed by "experts," was also confirmed.

Findings regarding the discontinuous nature of learning experiences were also confirmed in the data analysis for this section. These findings are discussed completely in section five of this chapter.

Teachers' actions to acquire knowledge of students

When the data were examined for indicators of teachers' efforts to gain knowledge of students' experiential backgrounds and developmental levels, the data showed that teachers did many things to get to know students. Classroom teachers did not administer informal interest inventories to get to know students, but some did use webbing, semantic mapping, brainstorming, and other techniques to elicit students' prior knowledge about topics they were studying.

Usually, the data showed prior knowledge about topics being studied was elicited as a transition from what was taught one day to what was taught the next. Sometimes teachers used webbing, semantic mapping, and other techniques to help students connect prior knowledge to new knowledge, but the prior knowledge was what teachers thought learners should have. Students' existing prior knowledge and that which the teachers thought students should have (e.g., what had been taught in previous lessons) were not necessarily the same, a finding confirmed in the investigation of the data of the observations.



Teachers intentionally got to know students' families and home situations when students were having behavior or academic problems, the analysis confirmed. Teachers did not visit students in their homes, but they sometimes had lunch with students or went out to recess with them.

Students' families were invited into school to share learning accomplishments, to volunteer in the classroom, and to help as volunteer clerks to organize and implement fundraising activities. Many events such as the Young Authors celebration were held on a schoolwide basis and included parents.

Teachers did communicate regularly with their students' families through classroom newsletters, sending home samples of student work, writing notes home, or telephoning. Classroom doors were usually open, and parents visited teachers on an unplanned basis.

T<sub>1</sub>, when asked about her efforts to acquire knowledge of her students said, "That's why I have so many plays and things. When I have the parents in so much, I really get to know my kids."

#### Professional development

Reiterated here is the confirmed finding that, during any quiet time they had, teachers spent time organizing learning activities and checking papers.

They did not spend time at school in personal reflection about their own professional growth. Additionally, much of the official work time, if not spent teaching, was spent in meetings. None of the observations supported a determination that meetings at school were of a professional development nature. Professional development is also discussed in section two of this chapter.

The data analysis confirmed the finding that many teachers were involved in professional development activities such as membership in professional associations, attendance at professional development seminars, readings in professional journals, and teaching other teachers. One teacher, the writing specialist, was a part-time teacher in the College of Education at a nearby university. However, when the data were examined for evidence that teachers were taking graduate courses, no support was found.

Teachers attended professional development seminars to find out how to "do" something--how to "do" cooperative learning, for example--and to find things to try which might "work for me." During the period of the study, the data showed, teachers attended (during the school day) the Michigan Reading Association state conference, professional development activities in technology education, whole language, gifted and

talented education, teaching the state health model, cooperative learning, portfolio assessments, and whole language.

### Summary

As shown on the bar graph (Figure 4.1), 15% of the events observed and recorded (27 of 175) included activities indicative of teachers' knowledge and use of students' experiential backgrounds and developmental levels. Data showed teachers in this public elementary school in 1991-1992 generally do not use students' experiential backgrounds and developmental levels to make the various disciplines of knowledge part of a total and growing experience. Three related findings support that conclusion.

First, even though teachers get to know students' experiential backgrounds and developmental levels, the standardization of curriculum overrides a teacher's knowledge of students as individuals. Second, although teachers use standardized curriculum materials to be in control of the teaching and learning in their classrooms, in reality, such use means teachers are not in control. Third, teachers perceive knowledge as something external and that others (e.g., textbook authors and university professors) have, but that they themselves don't have.

**Emphasis on a Process Approach to Instruction Including  
Regard for Books and Reading as Tools for Learning**

**8. Do teachers in a public elementary school use a process approach to instruction in which books and the ability to read are regarded as tools for learning?**

**8a. If so, what is the evidence of the use of a process approach to instruction in which books and the ability to read are regarded as tools for learning?**

**Findings** The data analysis supported the conclusion that teachers in a public elementary in 1991-1992 sometimes use a process approach to instruction in which books and the ability to read are regarded as tools for learning. Further examination led to two related findings.

First, when teachers think they are using a process approach, it is really a product approach to instruction in which students are taught strategies to answer questions and do problems in textbooks and workbooks as well as on copies of blackline masters. Second, a related finding reconfirms an earlier finding (see section five) that relevance of learning activities to students and their real life needs and applications is by chance as teachers and students proceed through standardized curricular materials.

This section is divided into two subsections:  
(1.) learning activities in relation to process and product, and (2.) a short summary.

### Process and product

The data were analyzed for the use of reading comprehension and writing skills as part of the learning activities and as the need arose out of those learning activities. Some examples are given below.

One was the pen pal activity in which  $T_1$ 's second graders corresponded with students from another school. That activity, discussed in sections one and five of this chapter, provided examples of reading and writing skills being used as part of the learning activities. Another occurred in the second-grade classroom next door to  $T_1$ , the writing expert's classroom. The activities in her room were part of her pilot project in whole language. Students read and wrote about various themes chosen by their teacher. For instance, one theme was "whales."

Investigation of the data showed that teachers did not have students use reading and writing to communicate about their learning experiences. Students used both reading and writing as part of the daily journal writing activities in both  $T_1$ 's and  $T_2$ 's classes.  $T_2$  used such experiences as handwriting assessments, but communication between her and her

students was an additional objective. In addition to using journal writing activities for handwriting practice and communication, T<sub>2</sub> used journal writing to supply what she called "higher level thinking" experience. Questions were on the rear chalkboard every morning and were of this type: "What if you found the pot of gold at the end of the rainbow? Write 5 sentences."

T<sub>1</sub> used daily journal writing activities as part of her concentration on having students write to increase their "abilities" in writing. The use of reading and writing to communicate about learning experiences was not observed, however.

Students used reading and writing to gather information in order to meet the purposes set for their learning. However, consistent with analyses for other indicants, teachers, not students, set the purposes for learning. Exceptions were the fifth-grade SEARCH projects done outside of school.

The facts supported the determination that, in most classrooms, reading comprehension and writing skills related to the standardized curricular materials. Teachers used learning activities prescribed by the standardized materials. Teachers followed the teachers' guides, and students completed

standardized, commercial paper-and-pencil assignments accordingly.

As discussed in previous sections of this chapter, teachers assessed students according to the number of right answers on the standardized assignments. Students were grouped for some reading and mathematics instruction according to the results of their right answers on standardized tests. The data analysis confirmed the finding that teachers emphasized products produced by students.

In  $T_2$ 's classroom, for example, a section of the front chalkboard contained a list of assigned tasks and the names of students who hadn't turned them in. The list was always posted. The assignments and the names changed as the school year progressed and students handed in more papers. Another chart in her room kept track of the handwriting/Journal assignments. The chart was used as a contest between the boys and the girls. At the end of a period of time, whichever group had the most assignments turned in was excused from two succeeding days' Journal writing assignments.

$T_1$  used the projects made by students at home as part of the theme-of-the-month activities and as part of student assessment. On a designated day at the end of the month students brought in what they made to share with the rest of the class.  $T_1$  turned the

afternoon of that day into a special celebration and had special snacks and treats for the students.

Also at the end of each month, she rewarded students with prizes such as kites according to how many book reports (related to the monthly theme) they turned in. Even though she appeared to pride herself on the fact that she did not use textbooks very often, T<sub>1</sub> rewarded and/or assessed students according to the production of these and other "projects" (e.g., Journals, book reports, math worksheets, books and stories, standardized tests).

When the data were examined for the integration of spelling instruction into topics being discussed and learned, though teachers sometimes integrated spelling with other subjects, spelling textbooks were the main source of spelling instruction in both the lower and the upper grades. Spelling words were pronounced on a certain day, and students were expected to write them correctly in isolation from memory.

One teacher, T<sub>2</sub>, made a tape recording of herself pronouncing the words. On the day of the spelling "test," she played the recording for students. That way, she was free to correct papers and monitor students. She was also able to give the additional blackline master skill sheets that students got if they



were not taking the entire test and writing the "challenge" words.

T<sub>1</sub> used spelling in relation to vocabulary instruction in social studies and science lessons so that "slower" students could use the correct spelling to fill in the blanks on social studies and science standardized tests. T<sub>1</sub> also integrated spelling as part of the writing in her class. Students had "word dictionaries", blank dictionary forms, so adults could write down for the students words they needed to use in their writing, but that they could not spell.

T<sub>2</sub> used the standardized spelling textbook activities consistently. She did not teach spelling in other ways. Spelling instruction in her class proceeded according to a standard sequence that corresponded to the day of the week. Students worked on certain portions of the textbook on Monday, others on Tuesday, took a trial test on the standardized word list on Wednesday, worked on skill sheets and the textbook exercises on Thursday, and took another test on Friday.

T<sub>1</sub> used the spelling textbook occasionally. She did so "because the third-grade teachers will expect the kids to know how to work out of the book." T<sub>1</sub> consistently pointed out to the researcher that she didn't like to use the textbooks, but she wanted the

students to be successful in the next grade. Her comments occurred in relation to student learning activities in all disciplines, not just spelling.

Close study of the data led to the finding that teachers had students writing as part of the building school improvement goals. Two second-grade teachers, T<sub>1</sub> and the writing expert, planned and implemented student writing experiences consistently, but they chose the topics. Sometimes, students got to write about their own experiences in journal writing in T<sub>1</sub>'s class.

T<sub>2</sub>'s fifth-grade students didn't write about their own experiences very much, the data analysis showed. Learning experiences students had for getting ready for the Young Author celebration marked the first time during the period of the study, the data showed, that fifth graders were able to choose their topics. With the exception of the daily journal writing, that was the first time T<sub>2</sub>'s students participated in creative writing. Class time was not allotted, however. Students wrote during free time or at home.

Inspection of the facts identified that fifth-grade teachers registered concern about the Young Author assembly as the day for it drew nearer. At a bank-day grade-level team meeting teachers said their

students hadn't done any writing, and, therefore, didn't have any writing to share at the assembly.

"We just don't have time to have the students do the kind of writing the committee wants us to do," commented one of the teachers. "We don't have time to do everything we're supposed to do now," she continued.

"If our students had time to do any writing, it would be reports, not stories, anyway," said another teacher.

Investigation of the data supported a determination that the relegation of the fifth-graders' creative writing efforts to spare time or at home was an adaptation to such feelings.

The data were analyzed for evidence that students read and edited each other's work. Students were encouraged by teachers to read their work to each other, but they did not edit each other's writing. T<sub>1</sub> had her students share their writings as a part of the summative activities for the theme of the month projects.

T<sub>2</sub> had some students share book reports with the class. Two students, who wrote something to present at the Young Author assembly, shared their writing with the class before the assembly. T<sub>2</sub> wanted them to "practice reading for an audience," she said.

Teachers did not have students edit each other's work because having students edit each other's work took too much time. "Students don't know how to do that," said a fourth-grade teacher.

Investigation of the data showed that sometimes adults or peers helped other students to write down what they wanted to say in their essays. This occurred in T<sub>1</sub>'s class when she felt that the actual writing process and a particular student's lack of reading "skills" was preventing the student from completing an assigned task (e.g., a letter to his pen pal).

The data were closely studied to determine if students and the teacher wrote a classroom or school newsletter. Analysis showed that the school newsletter was written by the principal, and that T<sub>1</sub> wrote the classroom newsletter she regularly sent home. She used the newsletter to communicate about the focus of the learning activities in the classroom and about the requirements for the do-at-home monthly projects.

Data showed that teachers did not use basal reader skill lessons, blackline masters, and workbooks in context with agreed-upon objectives and learning purposes relevant to students' real life needs and applications. The basal materials set the objectives and the learning purposes. As discussed in previous sections of this chapter, even teachers who called

themselves "creative" and "risk takers," such as  $T_1$ , still taught to the objectives contained in the standardized curricular materials. Both  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  discussed skills to be mastered by students so that the students would be "successful in the next grade."

The data indicated that teachers and students read non-textbooks together to develop additional learning activities from what was read.  $T_1$  and the second-grade teacher next door to her, the writing specialist, based some of the learning activities in their classrooms on literature they read together. These were components of their whole language pilot projects. The data showed no such indicators in  $T_2$ 's class.

Teachers rarely used lessons from various disciplines of knowledge as parts of learning activities in which the lesson was relevant to real life needs and applications and was needed to continue the activity (e.g., mathematics lessons as part of banking and retailing simulations). As discussed in section five of this chapter, standard subjects based on commercially-produced materials were the vehicles through which the various subjects were taught. Relevance to students' real life needs and applications occurred by chance.

The data were scrutinized for evidence that teachers and students verbalized strategies for

comprehending what had been read, for answering questions, and for solving math problems. Such verbalizations occurred often. Students were reinforced positively for verbalizing their thinking processes. Such strategies were called processes and they were taught as procedures for getting the right answers to questions or math problems contained in the standardized curriculum materials. Teachers asked students to memorize them. T<sub>2</sub> made charts of "steps" for students to use. One example was her chart of the steps to follow in long division.

On several occasions, as discussed in section seven of this chapter, T<sub>1</sub> used "so you will become better readers" as rationale for strategy work. One example was when she was working with the students in a learning activity focusing on story grammar. More often, however, T<sub>1</sub> communicated "so you will know what to do in third grade" as a purpose for learning. "Think alouds" in her room were strategies she asked students to use for those purposes (e.g., to be better readers or to do well in third grade).

The data were examined for evidence about what information and skills students were required to learn. Information students were required to memorize in social studies and science was usually tested on

paper-and-pencil tests of factual knowledge, but was not used in a functional way.

Sight word memorization and automaticity of math "facts" were tested in isolation but were applied to standardized course work involving reading and mathematics.  $T_1$ , for example, periodically asked students to read lists of vocabulary words either to her and/or to each other. The word lists were those from the standardized basal reader textbook.

Memorization of math "facts" was required in  $T_2$ 's class. Such memorization was tested through the use of "timed tests". Students used math facts to work out multiplication and division drill problems.

If students demonstrated that they knew the process (e.g., of multiplying three digit numerals by other three digit numerals), but that a mistake in multiplication facts, not a mistake in the process, was the "cause" of an erroneous answer,  $T_2$  took off only one point, however. She was interested in learners knowing the "process" of multiplying the numerals to get the right answer.

### Summary

The bar graph (Figure 4.1) shows that 34% of the events observed and recorded (62 of 175) had indicants of a process approach to instruction. Teachers in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 sometimes use a





process approach to instruction including a regard for books and reading as tools for learning.

Further examination led to two related findings. First, teachers use a process approach that is really a product approach focused on students being able to get the right answers on paper-and-pencil tasks of the standardized curriculum materials or on standardized tests. Second, reconfirming a determination from section five, relevance to students' real life needs and applications happens by chance as students and teachers proceeded through the standardized curriculum.

### Conclusions and Major Findings

The purpose of the study was to describe and explain if and how Deweyan pedagogical practices have been implemented in a public elementary school in 1991-1992. The presentation and analysis of the data in this chapter ends with models of Deweyan pedagogy and elementary classrooms today.

The major conclusions and related findings are:

1. Teachers in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 develop and work within classrooms that are cooperative social organizations in some ways.

- a. Classrooms are authoritarian, teacher-dominated organizations.

- b. Students must comply with adult-structured norms and procedures.
- 2. A public elementary school in 1991-1992 is a cooperative social organization regarding some interactions.
  - a. Teacher-to-teacher and teacher-administrator decision-making interactions relate to procedural matters, not to substantial issues of teaching and learning.
  - b. Parents, community members, school support staff, and students are usually excluded from participation in decisions about curriculum.
- 3. Scientific problem solving is seldom integrated into learning experiences in a public elementary school in 1991-1992.
  - a. Scientific problem solving is virtually excluded from the curriculum.
  - b. Teachers view scientific problem solving as a separate subject.
- 4. Teachers in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 infrequently focus on student development of self direction.
  - a. Events and activities in the school reflect teacher direction, not student self direction.
  - b. Teachers perceive their learners as self-directed when students do not need much

teacher assistance and monitoring, know the assignments, and produce the assigned work.

5. Teachers in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 seldom design and use interdisciplinary units of study that incorporate the active involvement of students as they address problems relevant to real life.
  - a. Teachers use standardized commercial curriculum materials to address the various disciplines of knowledge as separate subjects.
  - b. Relevance occurs by chance.
  - c. Students are not actively involved in the learning experiences.
  - d. Discontinuity of learning experiences prevails over continuity.
6. Teachers in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 rarely use cooperative learning approaches to instruction.
  - a. Students are expected to complete assigned tasks alone, especially in the upper grades.
7. Teachers in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 generally do not use knowledge of students' experiential backgrounds and developmental levels to make the various disciplines of knowledge part of a total and growing experience.

- a. Even though teachers get to know students' experiential backgrounds and developmental levels, the standardization of curriculum overrides a teacher's knowledge of students as individuals.
  - b. Although teachers use standardized curriculum materials to be in control of the teaching and learning which goes on in their classrooms, in reality, such use means teachers are not in control.
  - c. Teachers perceive knowledge as something external and that others (e.g., textbook authors and university professors) have, but which they themselves don't have.
8. Teachers in a public elementary in 1991-1992 sometimes use a process approach to instruction in which books and the ability to read are regarded as tools for learning.
- a. When teachers use a process approach, it is really a product approach to instruction in which students are taught strategies to answer questions and do problems in textbooks and workbooks and on copies of blackline masters.
  - b. Relevance of learning activities to students and their real life needs and applications is

by chance as teachers and students proceed through standardized curricular materials.

### Summary

John Dewey began to lay the foundation for changes in American public education almost 100 years ago. For the purposes of this study, eight pedagogical practices rooted in Deweyan writings were selected and validated. Through observations and interviews in a public elementary school in 1991-1992, a determination was made regarding if and how teaching practices in accord with what Dewey devised and described have been implemented 100 years later.

This chapter contained the presentation and analysis of the data from the study. The conclusions and related findings for each of the research questions were presented. Through analysis of the facts of the observations and interviews, it was found that Deweyan pedagogical practices in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 are not evident in terms of a pattern, but flickers exist. The direction of movement appears to be toward Dewey's ideas, not away from them.

In 1893, Dewey visualized schools as democratic institutions in which schools and the classrooms within them would be cooperative social organizations. In this study, however, classrooms of a public elementary

school in 1991-1992 are more teacher-dominated, authoritarian organizations.

A public elementary school in 1991-1992 was found to be cooperative and social regarding some procedural interactions between and among teachers and administrators. In relation to others with whom school personnel interact, including students, the school is not really a cooperative social organization.

Dewey conceived of thinking as the method of an educative experience. Consequently, he envisioned problem solving as integrated throughout the teaching and learning in an elementary school. Analysis of the data of the study, however, led to a determination that scientific problem solving is segregated and usually excluded from the learning activities in a present day public elementary school.

Dewey urged educators to focus on student development of self direction. It was concluded in the study that the emphasis in 1991-1992, however, is usually on teacher-directed learning activities, norms, procedures, and assessments.

Dewey envisioned teachers and students actively participating in interdisciplinary units of study. The units should center on problems of relevance to students' real life needs and interests (i.e., purposes for learning). In a public elementary school in

1991-1992, the various disciplines of knowledge are most often segregated as "subjects" for students to study in a passive, receptive manner, however.

Students should work cooperatively in the schools Dewey described. In this study students sometimes worked together, but they usually worked individually.

Dewey depicted teachers in an elementary school as getting to know their students' backgrounds of experience and using that insight to provide learning activities for total, continuous growth. Teachers in this public elementary school in 1991-1992 came to know students' experiential backgrounds and developmental levels but allowed the standardized curriculum to override that information.

A process approach to instruction including a regard for books and reading as tools for learning was set out by Dewey 100 years ago. Today, however, although a process approach to instruction is used, it usually focuses on paper-and-pencil products.

Figure 4.2 depicts Deweyan pedagogy. Almost 100 years ago, Dewey envisioned schools in which teaching and learning were characterized by mindfulness, continuity, relevance, and emergent, subjective knowledge.

According to the results of the study, however, current pedagogical practices feature likemindedness,

discontinuity, chance relevance, and objective, stable knowledge. A summary of the findings is illustrated in Figure 4.3, elementary classrooms today.

In the next chapter, Summary and Conclusions, a theory and model to explain the findings are proffered. Implications of the results are discussed, and recommendations for further research are included. A section of reflections contains a correlating theory.



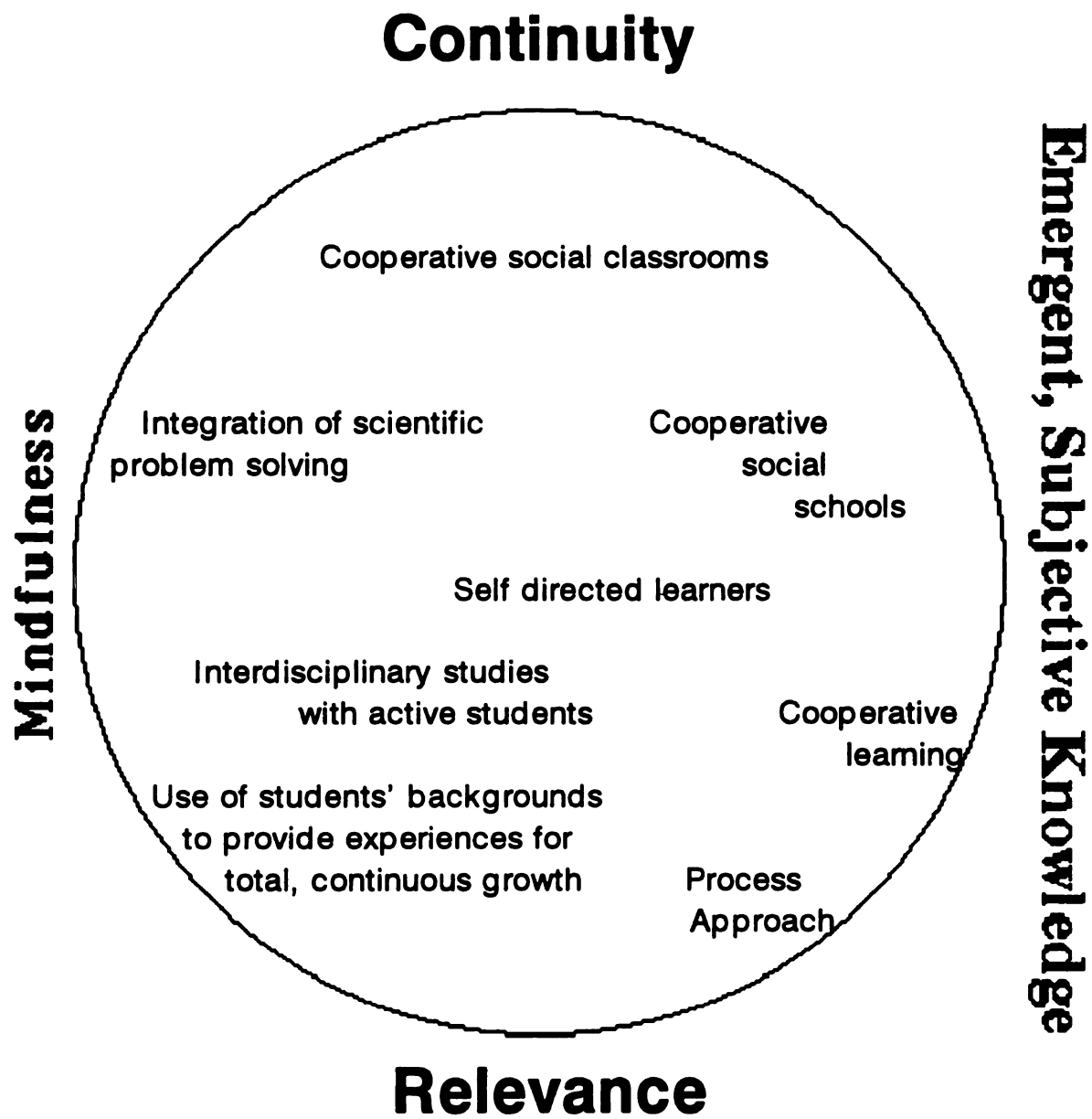


Figure 4.2 Dewey one hundred years ago (innovative)

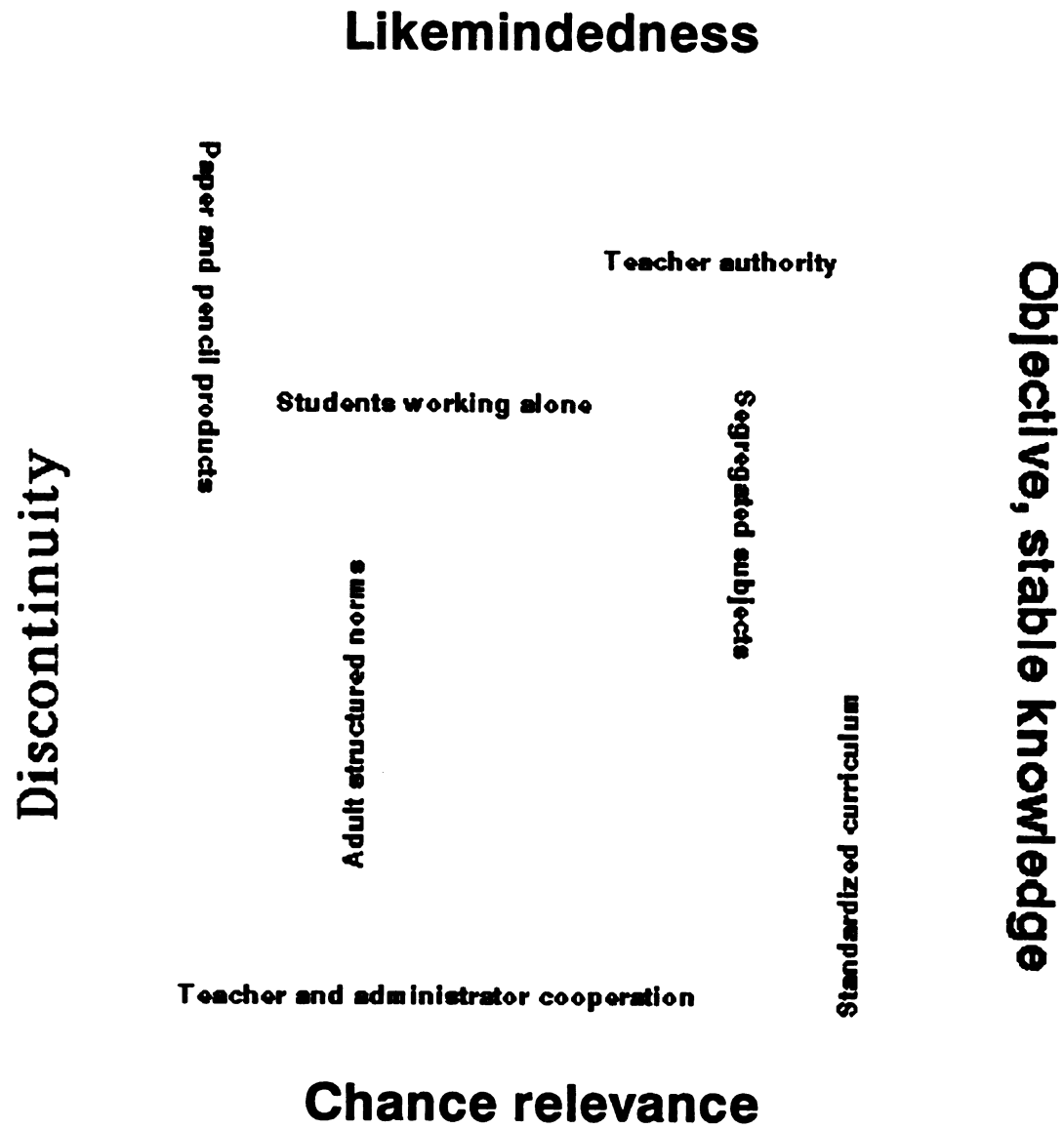


Figure 4.3 Elementary classrooms today (traditional)

## Chapter V

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Those who are concerned with progress, who are striving to change received beliefs, emphasize the individual factor in knowing; those whose chief business it is to withstand change and conserve received truth emphasize the universal and the fixed.

--John Dewey

### Introduction

The purpose of the study was to describe and explain if and how Deweyan pedagogical practices have been implemented in a public elementary school in 1991-1992. The central concepts in this study were instructional behaviors set out by Dewey almost 100 years ago. These were selected by the researcher and validated by a panel of experts. The validated matrix of pedagogical practices was the standard through which interactions were viewed and analyzed. Data were collected through observation and interview.

In Chapter Four, the data from the study were presented and analyzed. Conclusions and related findings relating to each of the research questions were stated.

This chapter has four sections. First, an explanation for the findings of the study is presented. Second, implications of the results of the study are discussed. Third, recommendations for further research are set out. The chapter ends with a section of reflections.

### An Explanation of the Findings

#### Introduction

It was found that Dewey's innovative ideas have not been implemented, at least not in any substantive way, in a public elementary school in 1991-1992. Flickers of Dewey's ideas exist, but Deweyan pedagogy is not evident in terms of a pattern. Instructional strategies in the school can be described as "conservative."

Although classrooms have become less formal than they were in the 1890s, there have been no significant modifications in the processes of teaching and learning (Cuban, 1984; Jackson, 1968). In his last published work on education, Dewey (1952, cited in Dworkin, 1959) discussed changes in the "life-conditions" of the classroom as a success of the progressive education movement:

There is a greater awareness of the needs of the growing human being, and the personal relations between teachers and students have been to a

noticeable extent humanized and democratized. But the success in these respects is as yet limited; it is largely atmospheric; it hasn't really penetrated and permeated the foundations of the educational institution . . . [T]he fundamental authoritarianism of the old education persists in various modified forms . . . there is far more talk about [education being a cooperative enterprise] than the doing of it. (pp. 129-130)

The results of this study echoed what Dewey said. The question to be answered, then, is, "Why are only flickers of Dewey found in a public elementary school in 1991-1992?" The theory generated to answer that question is proffered in the next section and illustrated in Figure 5.1.

### The findings and their effects

The major conclusions of the study include that a public elementary school in 1991-1992 includes more teacher authority than behavioral indicants of classrooms as cooperative social organizations. Teachers and administrators cooperate (mostly on procedural matters), but students are asked to comply with adult-structured norms and have little input into procedures or purposes for learning.

The curriculum was found to be standardized and commercially published. The various disciplines of

knowledge are segregated as separate subjects, and students usually work alone to produce paper-and-pencil products. Scientific problem solving is viewed as a separate subject--science--and is excluded from the curriculum.

The findings are summarized as:

1. Teacher authority
2. Adult-structured norms
3. Standardized curriculum
4. Segregated subjects
5. Paper-and-pencil products
6. Students usually working alone
7. Teacher and administrator cooperation
8. Exclusion of scientific problem solving

Through the analysis of the data of the observations and interviews, it was determined that the intended effects of the pedagogical practices discovered are:

1. To increase individual teacher's control of classroom teaching and learning
2. To decrease the level of difficulty of classroom teaching
3. To have common goals and objectives, thereby reducing the complexity of different standards for different students

4. To provide large groups of students (27 and 29) with success
  - a. on state tests of minimal basic skills
  - b. on standardized achievement tests
  - c. on tasks perceived as important for success at the next grade level
  - d. as shown by student adherence to established norms and procedures
5. To meet governmental requirements and incentives for funding (i.e., core curriculum, school improvement plans, student performance on state tests)
6. To meet community role expectations for what school should be like
7. To decrease the risk of being evaluated negatively by a supervisor (i.e., to comply with centrally imposed procedures and mandates)
8. To decrease the risk of being evaluated negatively by peers

Unintended effects identified through further analysis are:

1. Master developers (i.e., policy makers, test developers, university professors, textbook authors, commercial publishers, and district central administrators), not teachers, are in control of classroom teaching and learning.

2. Students are treated as if they are the same; the standardized curriculum overrides knowledge of individual student's developmental levels and experiential backgrounds.
3. The process approach to instruction is focused on production of paper-and-pencil products with right answers.
4. Scientific problem solving is treated as science.
5. Self direction is viewed as student compliance to teacher direction.
6. Professional development is called training and seen as having "experts" show teachers how to "do" something (e.g., cooperative learning) because knowledge is perceived as external.
7. Prior knowledge is treated as knowledge students should have, not knowledge students already have.

#### The result of the intended and unintended effects

A cycle of reinforcement is shown in Figure 5.1. The behaviors found in the study (Findings) lead to both intended and unintended effects. Those effects combine and result in the reinforcement of conservative instructional strategies that feature high degrees of likemindedness among teachers and students, discontinuity of learning experiences, chance relevance



of instructional activities to students' real life needs and applications, and perceptions of knowledge as objective and stable. At the same time, the reinforcement of conservative instruction preserves both the effects and the behaviors discovered in the study.

Innovative practices such as those recommended by Dewey are characterized by high degrees of mindfulness among teachers and students, continuity of learning experiences, relevance to students' real lives, and views of knowledge as emergent and subjective. Such characteristics contrast with the features and effects of traditional classroom practices. The cycle of reinforcement generated by conservative pedagogy and the intended and unintended effects virtually drives out patterns of such Deweyan-style innovations. New pedagogical practices enter the process of conservative reinforcement in a one-way pattern only. Consequently, Deweyan pedagogy is implemented only in bits and pieces--flickers.

#### Implications of the Study

This study shows that the effects of conservative instructional strategies combine to preserve both such pedagogy and themselves. If it is felt that Dewey's

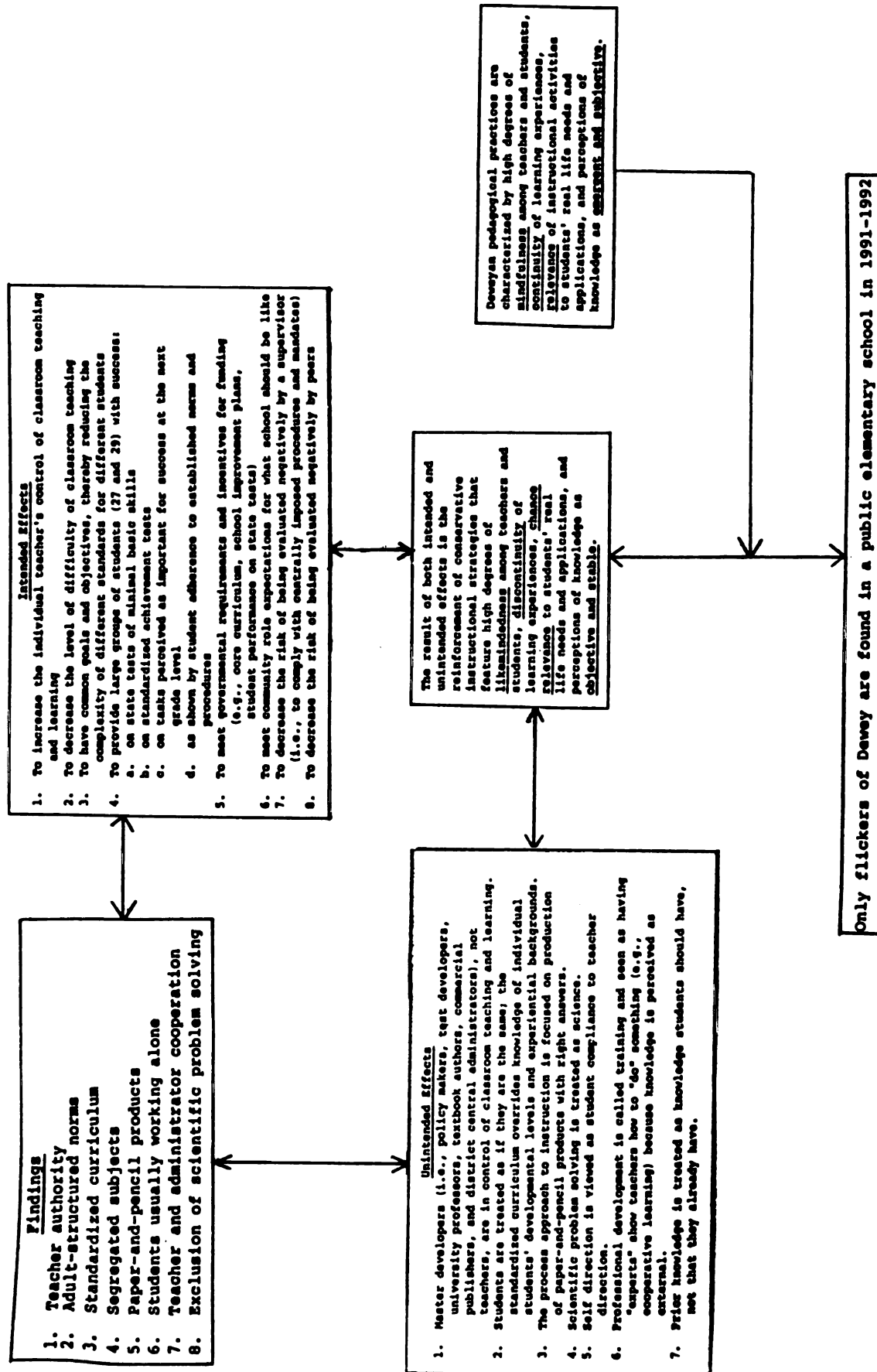


Figure 5.1 Chart showing why only flickers of Dewey were found

ideas should be more evident in public schools today, then the implications of this study include that interventions must break the cycle of reinforcement.

Teachers or reformers working toward innovations such as those recommended by Dewey must be knowledgeable about the context and nature of pedagogical practices in a public elementary school, first. Then, elementary teachers, who are not really in control of the teaching and learning which occur in their classrooms, must regain control from the master developers.

Duffy, Roehler, and Putnam (1987), recommend working toward more teacher control over substantive curricular and instructional decisions at three levels: (a.) preservice teacher education, (b.) inservice teacher education, and (c.) policy making. They cite the Holmes Group (1986) in recommending that creative people who are attracted to the independent decision-making possibilities of classroom teaching should be recruited. Then, encouragement and support both through teacher education programs which develop "reflective adaptation" (p. 363) as well as throughout their induction years must be consistently supplied.

At the level of practicing teachers (e.g., inservice teacher education), teachers can collectively bargain the right to adjust the curriculum when

necessary. They must insist to master developers that they want to act as professionals, not as technicians, and they must become critical of their own practice.

Practicing teachers, administrators, and master developers must work as collaborating professionals to develop policies in which teachers are "empowered to modify 'master developer' directives as classroom situations demand" (p. 364). Elmore and McLaughlin (1988) address the need for policymakers to charge practitioners with the development of solutions.

#### Recommendations for Further Research

Conceptions of knowledge, teaching, and learning can be studied in schools or in the family and community. Before entering the classrooms of the public schools, however, researchers must be sensitive to the classroom teacher and the complex world she or he faces. As a demonstration of that sensitivity, researchers should become aware of the difficulties involved in implementing innovative instructional behaviors such as those Dewey depicted.

Reformers, and consequently, most researchers have assumed that innovative teaching which corresponds to new conceptions of knowledge, teaching, and learning would be easy because it is natural (Cohen, 1988,

p. 22). That is a false assumption. Even Dewey and the teachers in the school of which he served as director were not aware of how difficult it would be to teach as he wished (Cohen, 1988, p. 41, citing Mayhew and Edwards, 1936).

This study and others (Cuban, 1984; Jackson, 1968; Lortie, 1975) show that certain teaching behaviors persist over time. One recommendation for further study is to find out more about such behaviors and the knowledge and skills involved. Determinations about what is stable and what is changeable need to be made. As Cuban (1964) suggests, the results of such studies could be used to accurately estimate what classroom changes are feasible.

Another recommendation for further research is also from Cuban (1984). He suggests locating and studying experienced teachers who have adopted and persisted in maintaining innovative pedagogical practices. How are their beliefs about knowledge, teaching, and learning different from those of their colleagues? What kinds of problems do they have to solve? What kinds of resources do they use? How are they able to maintain teaching behaviors which go "against the grain"? How is assessment in their classes aligned with learning?

Similarly, it is recommended that a teacher who is knowledgeable about Dewey and who shares his philosophies be located and studied. How does such a teacher implement his or her Deweyan philosophy? How are his beliefs about knowledge, teaching, and learning different from those of his colleagues? What problems does he have to solve and what knowledge, skills, and resources does he need for solutions? How does he focus assessment on learning rather than on teaching?

Cohen (1988) discusses how Dewey and subsequent reformers have written almost exclusively about the practice of learning, not about teaching.

Dewey, Bruner, and others offered extended accounts of how children learned, or should learn, but they gave little attention to how teachers taught, how they should teach, or to the nature of teaching practice. One reason for this curious state of affairs is that these theorists considered teaching to be a simple reflex of learning. They seem to have thought that they were writing about teaching when they were writing about learning--an assumption that most psychologists and many others in education make.

(p.9)

Because of a lack of inquiry into the nature of teaching as a practice, further research into the

problems faced by teachers and the knowledge, skills, and other resources required to solve those problems is suggested.

Connected to this study of Deweyan pedagogical practices is a project discussed by Duffy (in press), a four-year staff development project in which university personnel and practicing elementary teachers created "intellectual communities." The development of creative, innovative teacher mindfulness through the establishment of more "intellectual communities" in public elementary schools is recommended for further research. How are principles and aims developed? How can assessments align with principles and aims? Do notions of what constitutes success need to be revised? How can teaching practices align? How can university personnel best facilitate the development of teacher and student mindfulness?

Few direct studies of the nature of teaching and learning in families and the communities exist. Because "school instruction floats on a sea of generally traditional popular instruction, and such instruction has a life of its own" (Cohen, 1988, p. 18), much must be learned from further research that focuses on how teaching and learning occur outside of schools. What are the conceptions of knowledge, teaching, and learning to which families and members of

the community are most loyal? How deep are the loyalties?

### Summary

It has been recommended that further research focus on the nature of teaching inside public schools, on innovative teachers, on the development of intellectual communities and student and teacher mindfulness, and on the nature of teaching and learning which occurs in families and communities. In all such research, researchers must be sensitive to the classroom teachers and the world they face daily.

### Reflections

#### Introduction

Classroom teaching in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 occurs in a context of complex interactions and traditions. The nature of public school teaching in America needs to be fully understood before the mistakes of past reform attempts are repeated. In order to contribute to additional understanding, beyond that offered in this study, assumptions more generally applicable to American public school teaching as a whole are offered here.

Cohen (1988) was interested in the ways educators and reformers have viewed the improvement of teaching and the slow pace of reform. Theories drawn from his



work apply as a further, more global explanation for the finding that conservative instructional strategies persist over innovative strategies such as Dewey's. Cohen reconsidered the nature of teaching in order to understand it. His theories lead to a broader understanding of the nature of teaching in American public schools and its lengthy historical and social inheritance.

In his work, Cohen placed traditions of reform in the larger history of instructional ideas and practices (i.e., inherited pedagogical traditions). Next, he located instructional innovation in the larger social organization of teaching and learning (i.e., the social context of our inherited pedagogical traditions). Then, Cohen analyzed the nature of teaching as a practice of human improvement that embodies "the great problems of defining and delivering human progress, and of deciding about the adequacy of what has been achieved" (p.24).

According to Cohen, pedagogical practices in a public elementary school have been shaped by conceptions of knowledge, teaching, and learning which have roots in medieval Europe. Dewey's ideas, which feature innovative conceptions of knowledge, teaching, and learning, occurred relatively recently in a 900-year-old tradition.



Consistent with Cohen's ideas, a further explanation for the persistence of conservative instructional strategies in a public elementary school in 1991-1992 is that public school teaching is a human improvement function with traditional pedagogical interactions shaped by a lengthy historical and social inheritance and reinforced by the problematic nature of the practice itself. However, we are on the brink of a gathering "collision" between traditional, inherited ideas and innovative ideas such as Dewey's, Cohen (1988) believes. He says:

Our struggles over Dewey's Progressivism, Discovery Learning, and related reforms are only a few episodes in a gathering collision between inherited and revolutionary ideas about the nature of knowledge, learning, and teaching. In the long perspective of this historic clash, recent reform ideas resemble early manifestoes in a long revolution, or fumbling steps down an unfamiliar path. It seems possible or even likely that these episodes will turn out to be only the first chapters in a much longer saga. (pp. 14-15)

#### The historical pedagogical inheritance

In Figure 5.2, the chronological relationship of Dewey in relation to 900 years of inherited pedagogical traditions is depicted. In Figure 5.3, conceptions of

knowledge, teaching, and learning as inherited over a 900-year period and as conceived by Dewey are compared.

According to Cohen (1988), innovative views of knowledge, teaching, and learning are a "recent, still controversial, and very weakly developed product of modern intellectual culture" (p.10). In the long tradition of the old views, respect for the authority of the written word was rooted in the Church and strengthened by the Protestant Reformation. Even during the age of Newton and Voltaire such deference persisted. Early modern scientists began to replace "reverence for the authority of revealed text or established church with reverence for the authority of objective and rational natural facts" (p. 11).

In medieval Judaism and Christianity, the teacher was the "pipeline" for "Truth," knowledge that originated elsewhere. Teaching as telling was reaffirmed from its roots in the churches, the only institutions of popular teaching until the nineteenth century, and "appears to have survived early modern Europe more or less intact" (p. 12).

Learning as a passive process of accumulation was a logical view considering that learning in medieval Europe meant assimilating material external to the experiences of the people. Early Protestantism in which children were seen as willful, disobedient, or

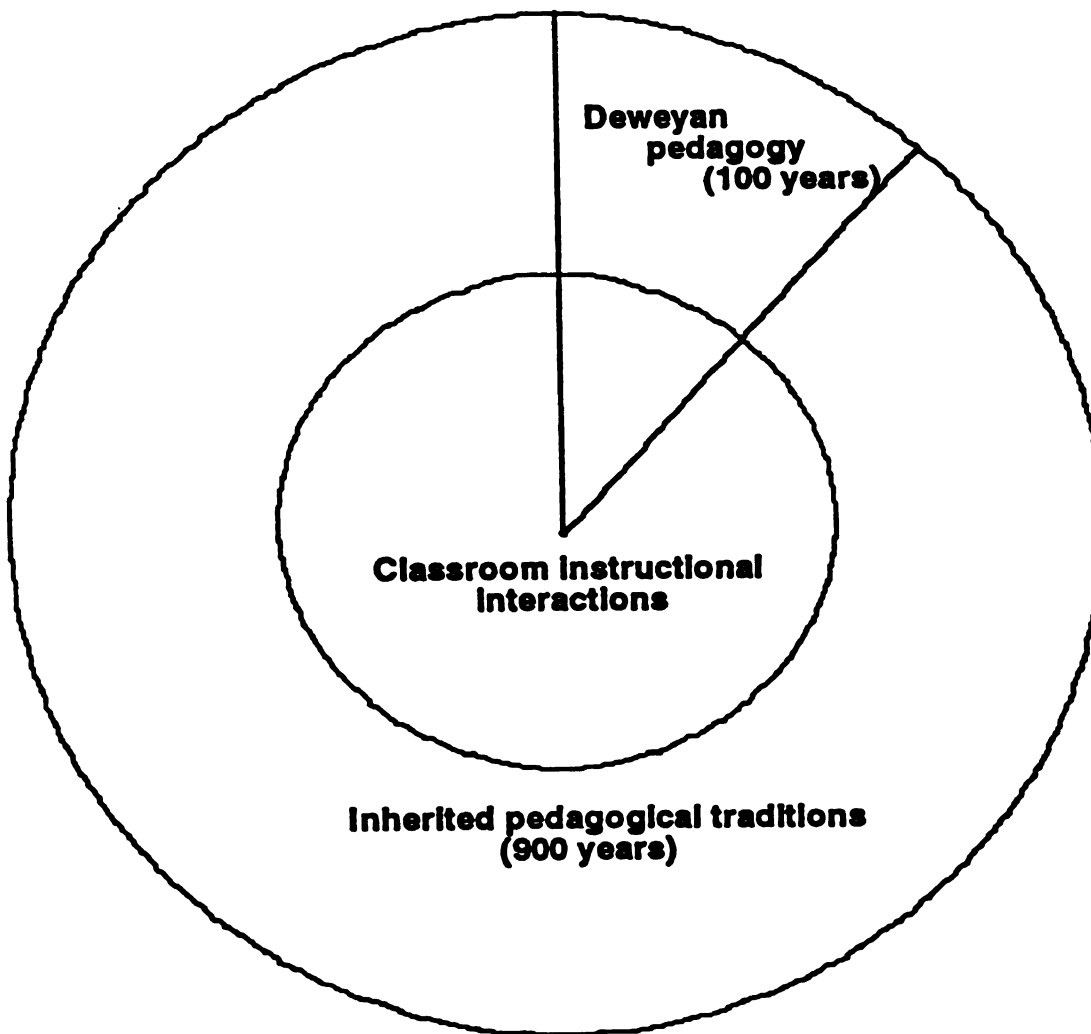


Figure 5.2 Chronological relationship of Dewey to tradition

<b>Inherited tradition (from 1100 A.D. - present)</b>		<b>Dewey (from 1893 - present)</b>	
<b>Knowledge</b>	<b>Objective</b>	<b>Emergent, uncertain; subject to revision</b>	
<b>Teaching</b>	<b>Telling</b>	<b>Guiding inquiry</b>	
<b>Learning</b>	<b>Accumulation, assimilation</b>	<b>Active construction of and reconstruction of knowledge</b>	

Figure 5.3 Conceptions of knowledge, teaching, and learning

devilish served to reinforce the idea. Didactic instruction and strict discipline were needed, it was thought, to tame the wild spirits (pp. 12-13). It was the end of the eighteenth century before ideas that "children would make sense of things on their own and would learn the right lessons if left to themselves" appeared (p. 13).

#### The social context of the inherited pedagogical traditions

Cohen (1988) refers to the social context of the inherited pedagogical traditions as the "social organization of practices" (p. 15). Included in the social traditions are the family and community traditions of teaching and learning which exist outside of school and the scholastic traditions and practices in schools and universities.

Figure 5.4 contains a diagram of the main points of this portion of Cohen's ideas. Knowledge, teaching, and learning do not exist inside schools only. In families and in communities (e.g., factory work groups, neighborhood gangs), instruction occurs. Most of it is informal teaching and learning. In schools, formal learning is dominant.

Within the processes of instruction in families and communities are embedded ideas about knowledge, teaching, and learning which have been researched

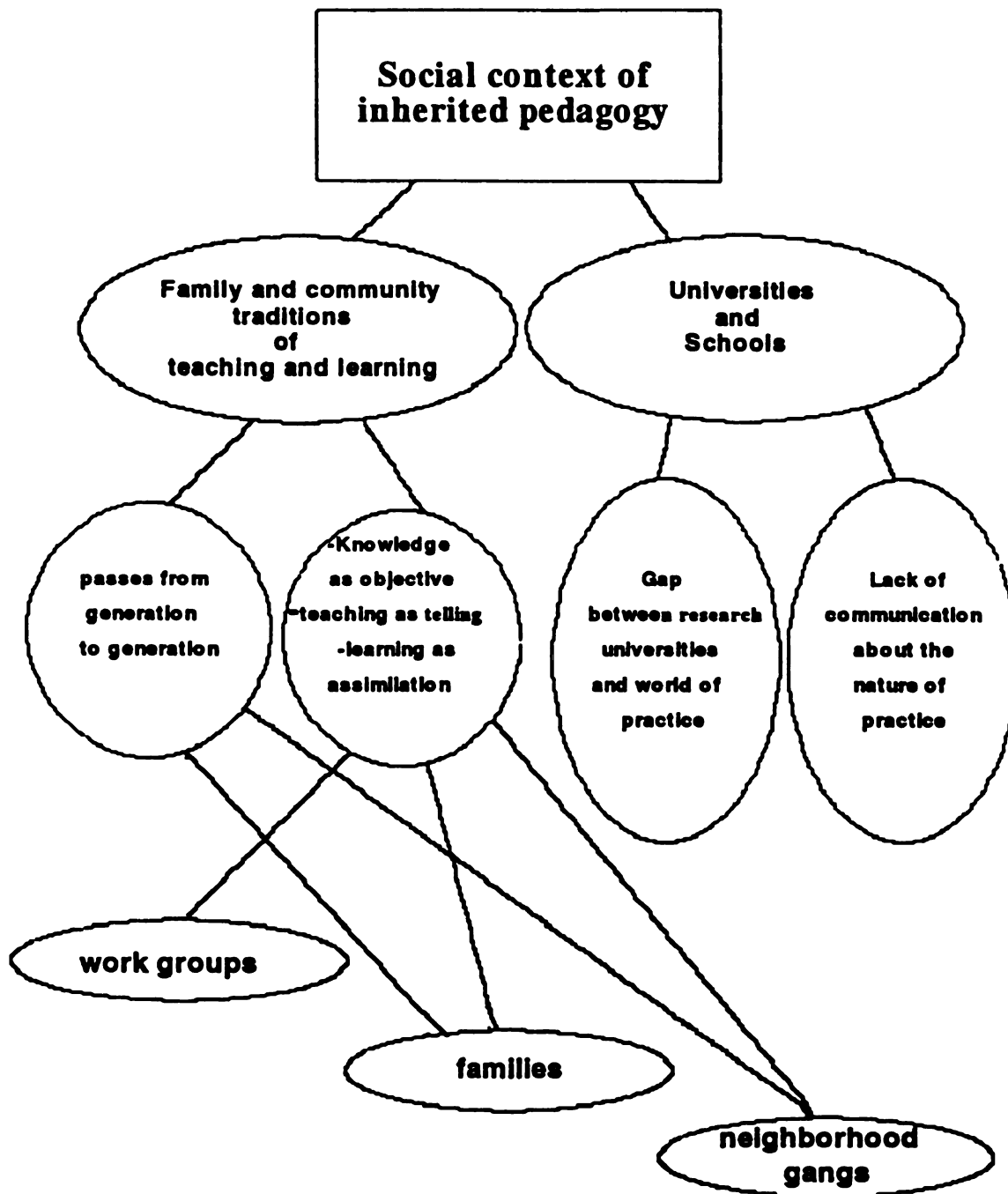


Figure 5.4 Social context of inherited pedagogical traditions (based on Cohen, 1988)



directly infrequently. However, a great deal of indirect evidence supports family instruction as mainly traditional and corresponding to inherited historical conceptions. Some studies show that family and community influences on children's learning and attitudes predominate over the influences of the school. Children are influenced by the content as well as the conduct of the instruction which occurs in the family and community (pp. 15-17). As Cohen states:

[T]raditional teaching in school echoes and reflects popular practices outside schools. The conceptions and practices that reformers wish to replace thus are not simply the needless impositions of bad old boring teachers, as Dewey and most reformers since have asserted. The instructional practices that reformers wish to eliminate contain views of knowledge, teaching, and learning to which many parents, teachers, and students have deep loyalties. (pp. 17-18)

In schools, much of the stimulation for the implementation of pedagogical innovations (e.g., new conceptions of knowledge, teaching and learning) has originated from academic intellectuals at selective, research universities such as Columbia, Harvard, The University of Chicago, Massachusetts Institute of

Technology, and Brown. Such institutions are removed from the pedagogical context of public schools.

Most teachers, however, are prepared in other colleges and universities which are not so selective. Teaching is a low priority function of faculties at many universities whose mission centers on "research and the production of new knowledge" (p. 19). Those who do teach usually model the traditional pedagogy. However, teaching is the reason the mass of colleges, universities, and K-12 public schools exist.

In addition to the gap between the centers of new knowledge and the "thousands of higher and lower schools in which nearly all teaching and learning occurs" (p. 19), communication about the nature and reform of practice is lacking. The decentralized and fragmented organization of American schools and the large size of the country do not facilitate nor sustain close communication. Communication about the substantive issues of teaching and learning has been limited and sporadic. (pp. 15-20)

#### Public school teaching as a practice of human improvement

Some interactions involved in teaching as a practice of human improvement are illustrated in Figure 5.5. As a practice of human improvement, teaching is

an "impossible profession" (Cohen, 1988, p. 23). He explains:

Practices of human improvement are children of the belief, only recently invented in human history, that humanity can make itself over in the image of its own aspirations. These practices all propose to solve individual and social problems that not long ago were regarded as our inevitable burden, at best to be eluded in a world beyond death.

Practices of human improvement are living testimony to our faith that ignorance, poverty, crime, anxiety, and other problems that have plagued humanity for time out of mind will yield to organized knowledge and skill. (p. 23)

Human improvement practices are difficult and risky. Protective organizational and social arrangements (i.e., resources of practice) are incorporated into some human improvement practices (e.g., psychotherapy, organizational consulting, some parts of social work, and sex therapy). Selectivity, client choice, social consensus about the results of practice, and clients being assigned most of the responsibility for results are such resources. Public school teaching, as a practice of human improvement which occurs in "compulsory and unselective institutions" lacks such protections, however. In

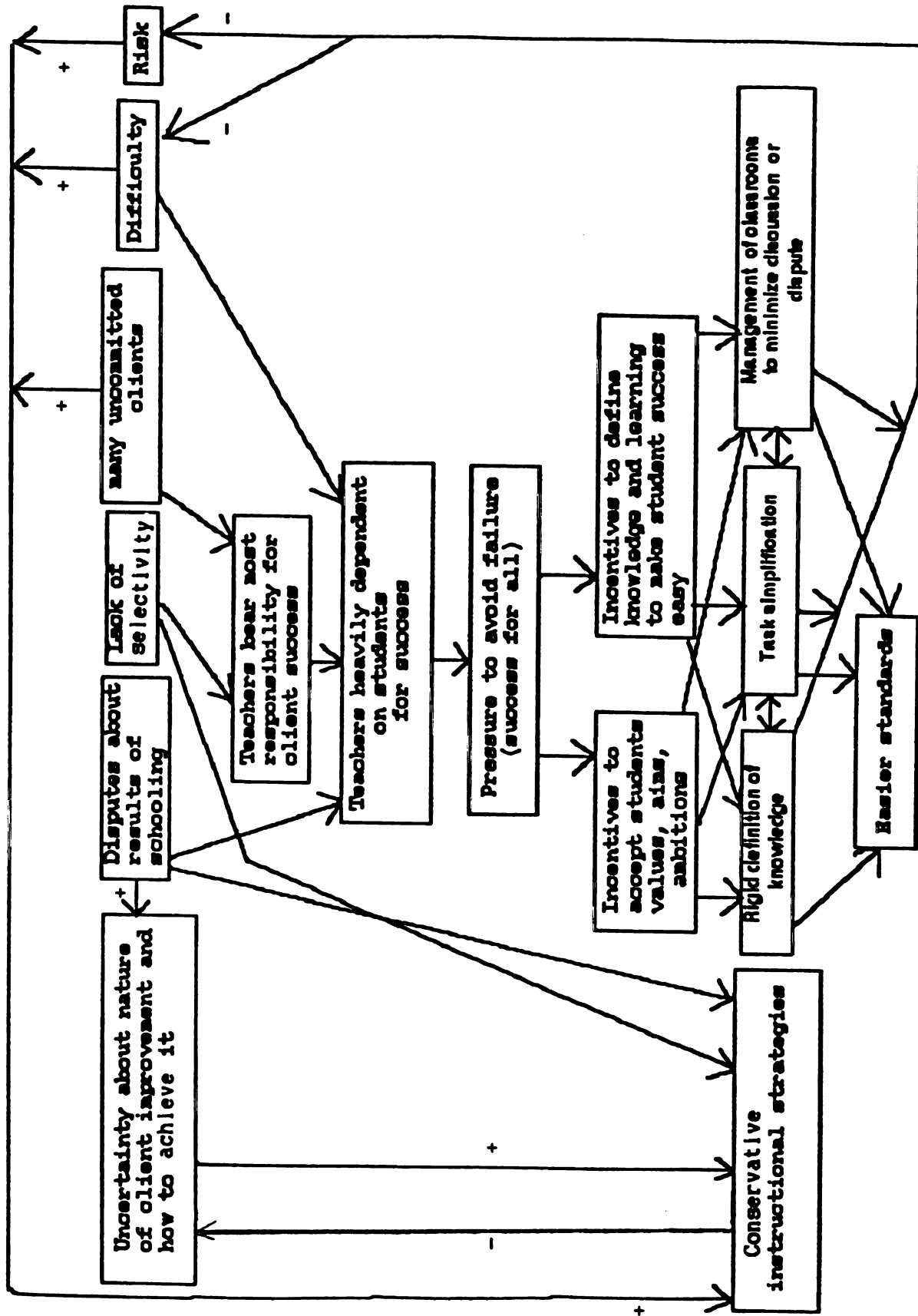


Figure 5.5 Public school teaching as a practice of human improvement  
(based on Cohen, 1988)

fact, the social arrangements of public school teaching in the United States "heighten the common problems of practice" to a great extent (p. 35).

Uncertainty about the nature of client improvement and how to achieve it, disputes about the results of schooling, lack of selectivity, and many uncommitted clients are social arrangements that lead to incentives for teachers, as practitioners, to adopt conservative, instructional strategies as substitute resources of practice.

Efforts to improve teaching lead to increases in uncertainty, difficulty, and risk. One way to lessen uncertainty, difficulty, and risk is to simplify and clarify results. When that occurs, conservative traditions survive over the intended innovations.

Disputes about the results of schooling lead to uncertainty about the nature of client improvement and how to achieve it. Conservative instructional strategies are one way to adapt to that increase because defining knowledge rigidly reduces uncertainty (pp. 24-39).

Figure 5.6 illustrates how teaching as a practice of human improvement is affected when attempts are made to improve (reform) it. Deweyan pedagogy is demanding, difficult, and risky. Its implementation as an instructional improvement would multiply uncertainty

and raise the level of difficulty and risk. In Figure 5.6, it can be seen that the resulting interactions are likely to reinforce conservative instructional strategies.

The survival of traditional pedagogy cannot be explained easily. Traditional instructional behaviors are functions of complex interactions between a 900-year-old historical and social pedagogical inheritance and problems inherent in the nature of teaching as a practice of human improvement. Figure 5.7 illustrates Cohen's theories.

When combined with the explanation of the findings of this study, Cohen's theories lead to a deeper understanding of the nature of public school teaching in American public schools in 1991-1992. Before attempts are made to "reform" teaching in the public schools, it is recommended that reformers should have not only a grasp of the essence of teaching in American public schools, but also knowledge of the interactions which result when improvement attempts are made.

### Summary

If one who adheres to Dewey's philosophies reads only the conclusions of this study, he or she might be disappointed that Deweyan pedagogical practices were not evident in substantive ways. There is reason to hope, however. Flickers of Dewey were located, and we

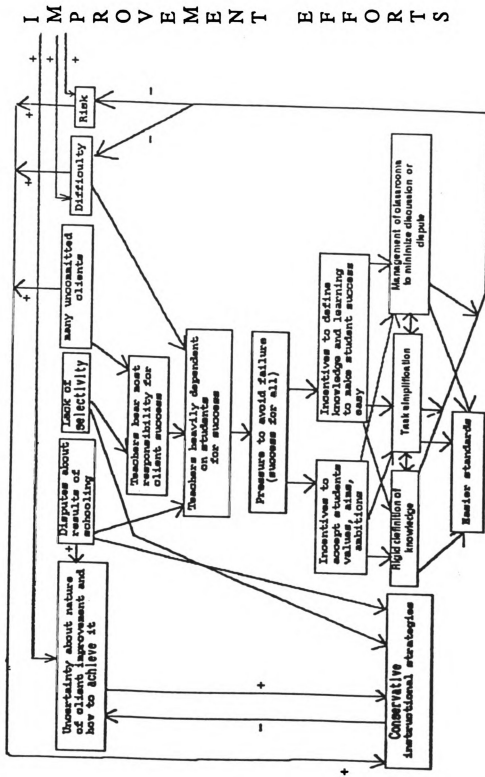


Figure 5.6 Resulting interactions when improvement efforts are added

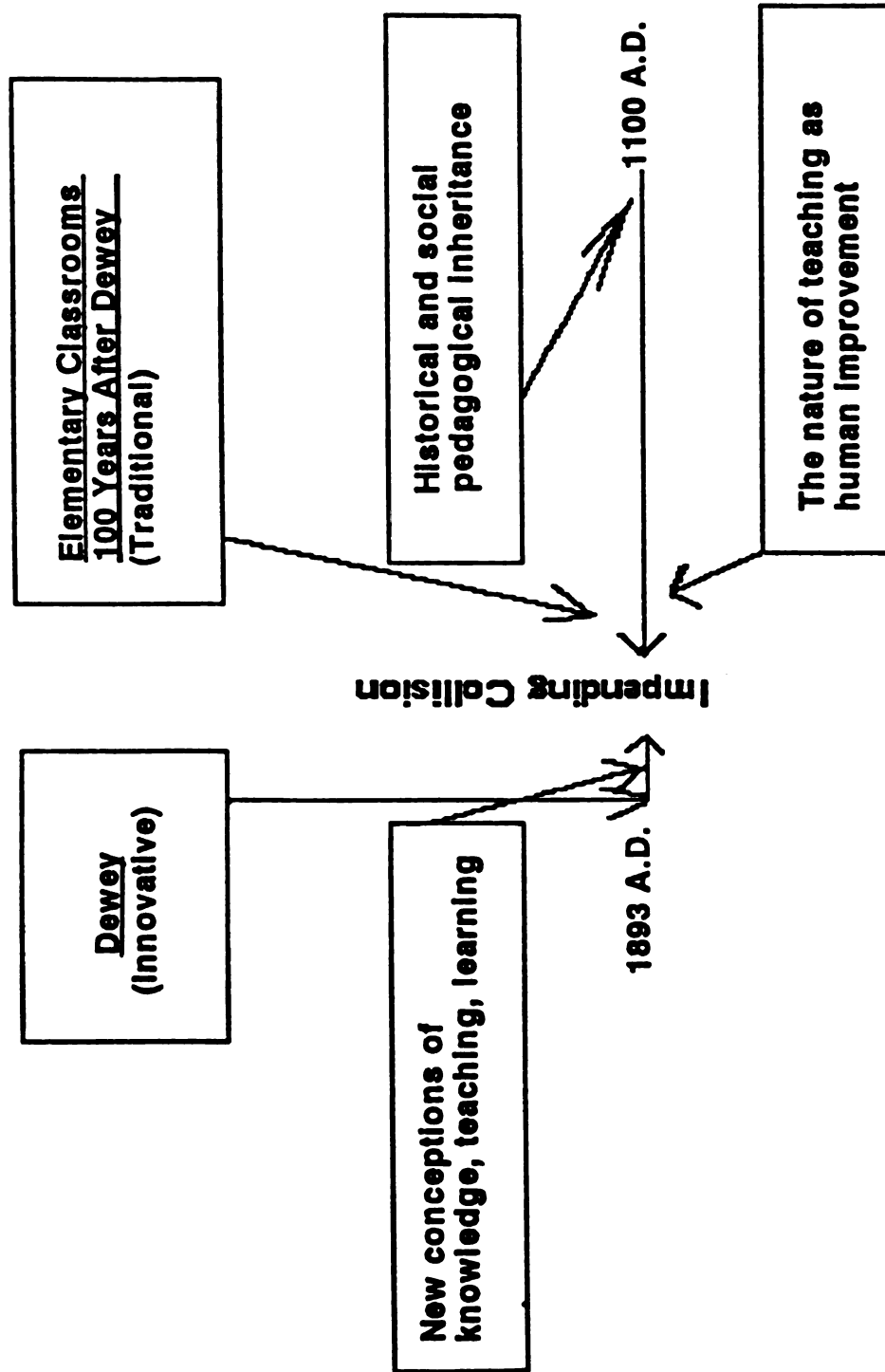


Figure 5.7 Chart illustrating Cohen's theory  
(based on Cohen, 1988)



appear to be moving toward Dewey's ideas rather than away from them.

Dewey's ideas are relatively new, but they favorably align with the newest research about knowledge, teaching, and learning. There appears to be more agreement now than ever that progressive, student centered, Deweyan style education is what children need (Tuthill, 1992). As Cohen (1988) says, "It is reasonable to suppose that we are working on the frontiers of [a] great collision" (p. 15) between traditional and "revolutionary" conceptions of knowledge, teaching, and learning.

As we progress toward such a collision, we can expect to learn more about both traditional and innovative pedagogies "as the arguments sharpen, and as some advocates on both sides try to practice what they preach" (Cohen, p. 15). However slow such learning from argument and practice is, it focuses on the substantive, not the procedural, issues of teaching and learning in American public schools today. We have reached a new plateau, and we are progressing.

Such argument and practice can be looked upon in ways similar to that of how the researcher viewed this study. The study was considered an:

experience which has the promise and  
potentiality of presenting new problems which

by stimulating new ways of observation and  
Judgment will expand the area of further  
experience. (Dewey, 1938, p. 89)

## **APPENDIX A**

## Matrix of Deweyan Pedagogical Practices

### 1. PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICE: Classrooms that are cooperative social organizations

- a. At the beginning of the school year, teacher and students decide together some of the classroom rules.
- b. Teacher and students collectively share responsibility for knowledge of and behavior according to the group-designed plan.
- c. Teachers, staff, and students decide together some of the building rules and policies.
- d. Teachers, staff, students, and community members decide together schoolwide academic and social objectives.
- e. Teachers and administrators decide together the action plan to meet the schoolwide academic and social objectives.
- f. Teacher and students decide together their learning purposes--goals and objectives--in accordance with a jointly developed curriculum.
- g. Teacher and students decide together how to accomplish the learning goals and objectives.
- h. Teacher acts as a facilitator, a group leader, who guides students in group decision making processes.
- i. Teacher acts as a facilitator who introduces students to learning activities which the teacher perceives have immediate interest to students as well as long range implications for growth and which relate to the jointly developed curricular goals.
- j. Teacher provides opportunities for parents and community members to share in the learning process.

k. Students are allowed to work together whenever working together correlates with the learning activities.

l. Teacher and students meet regularly--perhaps each morning--to evaluate learning experiences and to problem-solve goals and further experiences.

m. Teacher guides the students to choose and implement service projects in the school and in the community.

n. Teacher helps students assess their own quality of adjustment in social interaction.

o. Teacher focuses learner assessment (tests, report cards, file data) on evidence of the learner's individual growth as shown in the quality of the learner's work.

2. PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICE: Schools that are cooperative social organizations

- a. Teachers consider themselves as specialists regarding some subject matter but are also sensitive to the interrelationships between and among the various subject matters--the larger context.
- b. Teachers reflect with each other regarding the needs and progress of students and development of learning activities in accordance with agreed-upon academic and social objectives.
- c. Teachers, on an informal basis, discuss with other teachers the needs and progress of students.
- d. Teachers, with input from administrators, support staff, community members, and students, jointly develop curriculum.
- e. Teachers plan with other teachers learning activities which best meet the needs of students and which the teachers perceive have long range implications for growth.
- f. Teachers spend time reflecting with other educators regarding student growth and their own professional growth.
- g. At regularly scheduled formal meetings, school staff (administrators, teachers, support staff), community representatives, and student representatives discuss the underlying principles and aims of the school and how practices in the school align with those principles and aims.
- h. Teachers have input into the management of the school, e.g., allocation and distribution of financial resources, placement of students, school starting and dismissal times, development and allocation of times for certain social and learning activities (lunch, recesses, music, physical education, etc.), the school calendar, selection of personnel, etc.

**3. PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICE: Integration of scientific problem solving into learning experiences**

- a. Teacher helps students develop skills in problem solving and decision making.
- b. Teacher guides learners in use of scientific problem solving across the curriculum.
- c. Teacher guides students in the use and development of scientific problem solving as it relates to social organization and solving social problems which the students experience, e.g., on the playground, in the lunchroom, etc.
- d. Teacher arranges the classroom environment so that situations and activities of interest to the students will present opportunities (problems/purposes) for learning which are in accordance with a jointly developed curriculum in which the teacher him- or herself and other teachers have had input.
- e. Students have opportunities to be actively involved in determining problems they want to solve, their purposes for learning.
- f. Teacher encourages input into formulation/statement of curricular problems and purposes--goals and objectives for learning.
- g. Teacher assists students to select and evaluate activities to accomplish learning purposes.
- h. Teacher assists students to accomplish purposes.
- i. Teacher regularly assists students to organize what has been learned.

**4. PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICE: Focus on student development of self direction**

- a. Teacher encourages students to do special projects which extend and arise out of what has already been learned.
- b. Teacher teaches students how to set individual goals and objectives--how to form purposes.
- c. Teacher helps the students to set individual purposes for what they want to accomplish when they do special projects.
- d. Teacher helps students understand there may be positive and negative outcomes in their selection of methods (means) to accomplish their learning purposes as well as in their selection of the purposes themselves (ends).
- e. Teacher expects and assists students to demonstrate ability to evaluate the means selected to accomplish their learning purposes.
- f. Teacher expects and assists students to self-evaluate, to determine how they did their very best and how they might have done better.
- g. Teacher plans and uses quiet time after activities to assist students in organizing what has been learned--what academic and social objectives have been accomplished, what growth has occurred--through the activities and to formulate purposes for further learning.
- h. Teacher provides opportunities for students to share their accomplishments with other members of the school community.
- i. Teacher and students together consider and evaluate student growth in self direction.
- j. Teacher gives students honest and specific feedback regarding individual growth in self direction



5. PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICE: Use of interdisciplinary units of study incorporating active involvement of students as they address problems which are relevant to real life

a. Teacher uses units of study which integrate language arts, mathematics, social studies, science, and the fine arts.

b. Learning activities may involve auditory, visual, and kinesthetic learning channels.

c. Classrooms have movable furniture and plenty of space in which to accommodate flexibility in room arrangements for student activities and work.

d. Teacher--and, where appropriate, students--varies room arrangement according to student activities and work.

e. Students are active and involved in learning activities which incorporate physical media such as math manipulatives and scale models.

f. Students are actively involved in learning activities such as drama--plays, skits, choral reading, role playing.

g. Students are actively involved in learning activities which have them simulating and participating in activities which are related to real life activities e.g., banking, the stock market, retailing, the judicial system (courts and the law), a post office, carpentry or other construction, cooking, sewing, weaving.

h. Learning experiences are rooted in problems (purposes for learning) which arise out of the participation in activities.

i. Teacher aids the students to recognize growth-oriented problems (purposes for learning) which arise out of the participation in group activities.

j. Teacher aids the students to select and evaluate methods and activities to accomplish the learning purpose.

k. Teacher aids the students to organize what has been learned.

1. The majority of the class time is spent in learner activity--physical activities or active cognitive engagement and evaluation.

**6. PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICE: Use of cooperative learning approaches to instruction**

- a. Students spend time working in groups on communal projects/activities.
- b. Teacher, sometimes with student input, decides the composition of each of the cooperative learning groups (which students are to be in which group) in accordance with the purposes for learning; the need for some kind of mix and representativeness within each group; and the academic and/or social needs of individual students.
- c. Each member of the group shares responsibility for the group task.
- d. Teacher assists students to realize that each member of the group has the responsibility to contribute to learning.
- e. Cooperative learning groups work to accomplish academic tasks related to curricular outcomes.
- f. Teacher aids students in developing group decision-making and conflict resolution skills e.g., how to disagree without being disagreeable, how to encourage, how to look at the person who is speaking, how to allow others to voice their opinions, strategies which could be used to reach consensus, etc.
- g. Cooperative learning groups work on social objectives as well as academic objectives.
- h. Teacher constantly observes groups, provides feedback, and encourages students to share their progress on academic and social purposes.
- i. After groups have worked together, teacher encourages a large group summary about how they've accomplished the academic and social objectives.

J. After groups have worked together, further academic and social objectives for group work may be formed through group summary and processing.

k. Teacher and students assess together student growth according to the responsibility each student shows in doing his or her best for the welfare of the group, not for him- or herself alone.

l. Older students regularly work with younger students.

7. PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICE: Knowledge and use of students' experiential backgrounds and developmental levels to make the various disciplines of knowledge part of a total and growing experience

- a. Teacher administers an informal interest inventory to each student and uses the results to interrelate instructional activities and student interests.
- b. Teacher elicits through webbing, K-W-L, semantic mapping, brainstorming, advanced organizers, written pretests, or other techniques students' prior knowledge about topics they are studying.
- c. Teacher uses in instruction students' prior knowledge about topics they are studying.
- d. Teacher helps students connect their prior knowledge to new knowledge through webbing, semantic maps, K-W-L, or other techniques.
- e. Teacher intentionally gets to know each student's family and home situation.
- f. Teacher visits students' families in their homes.
- g. Teacher has the students' families into school--to share learning accomplishments, to volunteer in the room, to have lunch, just to visit, etc.
- h. Teacher goes out for recess with the students to get to know them.
- i. Teacher has lunch with the students to get to know them.
- j. Teacher regularly communicates with students' families through classroom newsletters, sending home samples of student work, writing notes home, or telephoning.

k. Teacher places more emphasis on the various disciplines of knowledge as resources in solving problems than on the individual disciplines themselves.

l. Teacher seeks to learn what each student accomplished before the student came to the teacher's class.

m. Teacher seeks to learn each student's academic and social strengths and weaknesses.

n. Based on understanding of several disciplines of knowledge, the teacher, with student input, plans learning activities which provide for each student's growth in learning ("What do we need to do next?").

o. The teacher, with student and staff input in mind, guides the students toward accomplishment of learning purposes in a way which utilizes learning activities closely related to students' real lives.

p. Teacher plans and uses a quiet time for personal reflection and organization regarding student growth and his or her own professional growth.

q. Teacher is involved in professional development activities such as membership in professional associations, college or university coursework, attendance at professional development seminars, readings in professional journals, and teaching other teachers.

**8. PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICE:** Emphasis on a process approach to instruction including regard for books and reading as tools for learning

a. Reading comprehension and writing skills are taught as part of the learning activities and as the need arises out of the learning activity.

b. Teacher has students use reading and writing to communicate about their learning experiences.

c. Teacher has students use reading and writing to gather information in order to meet the purposes which they've set for learning.

d. Teacher integrates spelling into topics being discussed and being learned.

e. Teacher encourages students to write about their own experiences and will have adults or older students help write those stories down if needed.

f. Teacher and students cooperatively choose topics for writing.

g. Where appropriate, the teacher has students read and edit each other's work.

h. Teacher encourages students to share with each other their writings.

i. Students and teacher write a classroom and/or school newsletter.

j. Teacher utilizes basal reader skill lessons, dittoes, and workbooks if these instructional materials are in context with agreed upon objectives and learning purposes and students' real lives and classroom experiences, needs and applications.

k. Teacher and class read together non-textbooks (e.g., library books, paperback books) and develop additional learning activities from what they read.

- l. Various subjects are taught as part of learning activities relevant to real life needs and applications and as the need arises out of the learning activity, e.g., banking, retailing, stock market.
- m. Teacher verbalizes strategies s/he uses to comprehend what s/he has read, to answer questions, and to solve math problems--"think alouds", metacognition, or self-monitoring.
- n. Teacher positively reinforces verbally ("Very good") and non-verbally (smiles) student use and verbalization of strategies to comprehend they have read, to answer questions, and to solve math problems.
- o. Teacher has students verbalize for each other strategies to comprehend what they have read, to answer questions, and to solve math problems.
- p. Information which students are required to memorize has a functional relationship to what is learned.
- q. Skills which students are required to learn are skills which have a functional relationship to what is learned.



## APPENDIX B

## APPLICATION FOR REVIEW OF A PROJECT INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

Submit your proposal for UCRIHS review to:

Dr. David E. Wright, Chair  
UCRIHS  
Michigan State University  
232 Administration Building  
East Lansing, MI 48824-1048

If you have any questions, or wish to check the status of your proposal, call: (517) 355-2180

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**DIRECTIONS: COMPLETE QUESTIONS 1 - 11: Attach additional material as requested.**

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**1. RESPONSIBLE PROJECT INVESTIGATOR:**  
(faculty or staff supervisor)

Dr. Janet E. Alleman, chairperson of  
doctoral committee

**NAME OF INVESTIGATOR:**  
(if different)

Gloria G. Musial, doctoral student

**2. CAMPUS ADDRESS:**

362 Erickson Hall

**PHONE #:** 353-0696

**CAMPUS ADDRESS: (or address where**  
**approval letter is to be sent)**

9780 Sonora Drive, Freeland, MI 48623

**PHONE #:** 517-781-3359

**3. TITLE OF PROPOSAL:**

John Dewey and Current Pedagogical Practices: Is Deweyan Pedagogy Alive Today?

**4. A. PROPOSED FUNDING AGENCY (if any)** \_\_\_\_\_

**B. IS THIS AN FDA PROPOSAL** ☐ YES ☒ NO

**C. MSU ORD# IF APPLICABLE** N/A

**D. DATE ON WHICH YOU PLAN TO BEGIN DATA COLLECTION** March 16, 1992

**5. EXEMPT/EXPEDITED.** If applying for Exempt or Expedited status, indicate the category. SEE INSTRUCTIONS - ITEM 1 (ie. 1-A, 2-D, etc.).

Category: Exempt 1-A, 1-C, 1-D, 1-E

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For  
Office  
Use

Subcommittee: \_\_\_\_\_  
Agenda: \_\_\_\_\_  
Comments: \_\_\_\_\_

Comments to PI: \_\_\_\_\_  
Comments to REV: \_\_\_\_\_

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6. **ABSTRACT.** Summarize the research (its purpose and general design) to be conducted. This can be identical or similar to the summary required when submitting to the NIH (200 words or less). Briefly outline, in particular, what will be done to research subjects.

John Dewey (1859-1952) was hailed, during his lifetime, as America's greatest educator. He remains one of the best known thinkers of the twentieth century as well as one of our most influential educators. Almost 100 years ago, Dewey began to lay the foundation for changes in American public education. This study is designed to describe if and how the pedagogical practices of teachers in a typical mid-Michigan elementary school reflect the pedagogy Dewey described beginning almost 100 years ago.

The researcher will use a method of educational research called educational ethnography, a form of descriptive, on-site research. In order to gather data the researcher will employ a variety of tools including observation, field notes, audiotape recordings, collections of artifacts, and interviews. Pedagogical practices will be the units of analysis, and subjects will be volunteer staff members of the school who will be considered as informants not as subjects. There will be nothing "done to" the subjects. The researcher will be with the subjects for a period of 8-10 weeks during their school day and will be present with them at any activities which relate to pedagogy and which occur outside the regular work day.

The researcher has formulated a matrix which consists of eight Deweyan pedagogical practices and corresponding behavioral indicants of each. A panel of experts within the MSU College of Education is validating the matrix, and the researcher will use the validated matrix as a standard for viewing the pedagogical practices.

7. **SUBJECT POPULATION.** Will any of the following be subjects:

	Yes	No		Yes	No
Minors	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Students	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pregnant Women	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Low Income Persons	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Women of Child-bearing age	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Minorities	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Institutionalized Persons	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Incompetent Persons	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
			(or diminished capacity)		

7a. Number of subjects (including controls)? 60

7b. Are you associated with the subjects (e.g., your students, employees, or patients.)  
☐ yes ☒ no If yes, explain nature of the association.

7c. How will subjects be contacted and selected? The subjects are being contacted through the central administrative offices of the district and through the building principal.

7d. Will research subjects be compensated? ☐ Yes ☒ No

If yes, all information concerning payment, including the amount and schedule of payment must be set forth in the informed consent.

7e. Will you be advertising for research participants? ☐ Yes ☒ No

If yes, attach a copy of the advertisement you will use. SEE INSTRUCTIONS - ITEM 2

8. **ANONYMITY/CONFIDENTIALITY.** Describe procedures and safeguards for insuring confidentiality or anonymity. SEE INSTRUCTIONS - ITEM 3

The researcher is the only person gathering data. The researcher is the only person who will work with the data. Although the subjects' identities will be known to the researcher, the subjects' identities will be kept confidential and reports of research findings will not use subjects' names nor identities. The school district, the school building, and the locale will not be named, only described. No one who reads anything written by the researcher will be able to associate subjects with specific responses or findings. The data gathered will be kept by the researcher at her home and will be accessible only to her. Data will be coded and meaningful only to the researcher. The research is only of a descriptive nature and is designed only to determine how modern pedagogical practices reflect those described by Dewey beginning almost 100 years ago. The research is of a low-risk nature to all subjects because it seeks only to describe things as they are. It is not of a punitive nature, nor may the results be generalizable beyond this particular setting.

9. **RISK/BENEFIT RATIO.** Analyze the risk/benefit ratio. SEE INSTRUCTIONS - ITEM 4. Completely answer items A, B, and C listed in the instructions. ALSO SEE item 6 in the instructions if your research involves minors or those with diminished capacity.

The risk to benefit ratio is very small. As long as all subjects are volunteers who have been informed regarding the purpose of the study and any potential risks and as long as the subjects have been provided with the right to withdraw with no reprisals, there is little risk as long as the researcher is careful to provide for confidentiality.

As long as the foregoing is provided, the research will be of benefit to the school in this way: Deweyan pedagogy aligns with current reform literature, and this study may help to gather the perceptions of teachers and students regarding the realities involved in trying to change and restructure American public education. Even if the researcher does not use the alignment with current school reform literature, the benefit to the school is still high because Dewey was such an important figure in education, and the teachers and staff may better understand through the results of this study how what they're doing is what he said they should be doing. It does all of us a lot of good to know we're doing some things right.

The researcher will follow strictly procedures which guarantee informed consent of the participants (including consent of the parents of any students involved) as well as procedures which ensure confidentiality, including security for data which contains subject identifiers.

The researcher plans to establish a positive relationship with the subjects and other people in the school. This study is approached from a positive viewpoint and will be recorded that way. The benefits to all of us as the researcher "catches reality" in a typical school outweigh any of the risks involved.

- 10. CONSENT PROCEDURES.** Describe consent procedures to be followed, including how and where informed consent will be obtained. SEE INSTRUCTIONS - ITEM 5 on what needs to be included in your consent form. Include a copy of your consent form with your proposal. ALSO SEE Item 6 in the instructions if your research involves minors or those with diminished capacity.

The researcher will prepare and send to the homes of all the students in the school a letter which states the purpose of the study, any potential risks, and that they have the right to withdraw with no reprisals. For students who are in the two classrooms in which the researcher will spend the majority of her time, the researcher will make sure that parents have signed consent forms for the students. Any students who will be interviewed will be interviewed only after parents have signed consent forms. Teachers who are to be observed and interviewed will also have signed consent forms. Any staff members and students whom I interview or in whose classrooms I will observe (I will observe briefly in other classrooms of the same grade levels as those in which I will spend the majority of my time) will have signed consent forms on file. The major focus is on pedagogical practices of (volunteer) teachers.

The researcher will place on the letter sent to students' homes a permission form for the parent/guardian to sign in order that the child may participate in the study. I will ask that of all students in the school.

Teachers and staff members will be sent a different, but similar, letter and a more detailed permission form. Teachers in whose classrooms the researcher observes will have signed the permission (consent) form. Staff members whom the researcher interviews will have signed consent forms.

- 11. CHECKLIST.** Check off that you have included each of these items with your proposal. If not applicable, state n/a.
- ☐ Provide six (6) copies of all information unless applying for exempt or expedited review. Provide two (2) copies if applying for exempt or expedited. Include all questionnaires, surveys, forms, tests, etc. to be used.
  - ☐ Proposed graduate and undergraduate student research projects submitted to UCRIHS for review should be accompanied by a signed statement from the student's major professor stating that he/she has reviewed and approves the proposed project.
  - ☐ Provide one complete copy of the full research proposal. Graduate students should furnish one copy of the "Methods" chapter of their thesis/dissertation (if available) in lieu of a research proposal.
  - ☐ Questions 1 - 10 have been filled out completely.
  - ☐ Provide the consent form (or instruction sheet, explanatory letter, or the script for oral presentation if signed consent is not to be obtained--See item 5 in the instructions).
  - ☐ Advertisement included if applicable

**YOUR PROPOSAL WILL BE ASSIGNED A UCRIHS PROPOSAL NUMBER. REFER TO THIS NUMBER AND THE TITLE OF YOUR PROPOSAL ON ANY CORRESPONDENCE OR INQUIRIES.**



## MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION • DEPARTMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824-1034

March, 1992

Dear Parents,

I am a doctoral student who has been studying the history of classroom teaching, and I am conducting a study of classroom teaching as it exists in your child's school. I will be sitting in on classes, visiting school activities, and speaking to youngsters and to staff members this spring. As I study education in your school, there is very little risk to your youngster because I will be keeping information and writing about my study in a way which keeps the name of the school district, the name of the school, and the names of individuals--including any youngsters whom I interview--confidential. I will be working with

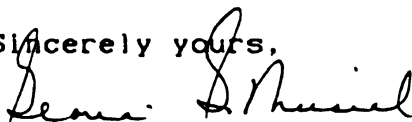
for the majority of my study, but I will visit other rooms on an informal basis.

I have studied the works of a famous educational philosopher, John Dewey (1859-1952), who began to write almost 100 years ago about how he thought American public education should be changed and made better. This study will help me to be able to describe how classroom teaching today resembles what he recommended.

This study has been approved by Public Schools, and participation is voluntary. A code number will be assigned to information gathered, and a parent may withdraw his or her child from this study at any time without penalty. The information will be gathered March-May, 1992.

Please complete the following approval and send to your child's teacher so that I can begin my study. Thank you so much for your help! If you have questions, please call me at home--Saginaw, 781-3359--and I will be happy to speak with you. This will be a fun and exciting study for me, and I am anxious to begin experiencing education in your school.

Sincerely yours,

  
Gloria G. Musial

-----

I give permission for my child, \_\_\_\_\_, to participate in a study of classroom teaching conducted by Gloria G. Musial, a Michigan State University doctoral student.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Parent/Guardian Signature\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

## MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION • DEPARTMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824-1034

March, 1992

Dear Staff Member,

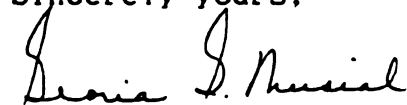
I am a doctoral student who has been studying the history of classroom teaching, and I am conducting a descriptive study of classroom teaching as it exists in your school. I will be sitting in on classes, visiting school activities, and speaking to youngsters and to staff members this spring. As I study education in your school, there is virtually no risk to you because my study is for academic purposes only, and I will be keeping information and writing about my study in a way which keeps the name of the school district, the name of the school, and the names of individuals--including any youngsters whom I interview--confidential. I will be working with \_\_\_\_\_ for the majority of my study, but I hope to be able to visit other rooms on an informal basis.

I have studied the works of a famous educational philosopher, John Dewey (1859-1952), who began to write almost 100 years ago about how he thought American public education should be changed and made better. This study will help me to be able to describe if and how classroom teaching today resembles what he recommended.

This study has been approved by \_\_\_\_\_ Public Schools, and participation is voluntary. A code number will be assigned to information gathered, and a you may withdraw from this study at any time without penalty. The information will be gathered March-May, 1992.

If you will allow me to visit your classroom and/or to interview you, will you please complete the attached consent form and send it to the office or give it to me so that I can begin my study. Thank you so much for your help! If you have questions, please call me at home--Saginaw, 781-3359--and I will be happy to speak with you. This will be a fun and exciting study for me, and I am anxious to experience education in your school.

Sincerely yours,

  
Gloria G. Musial



## MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION • DEPARTMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824-1034

1. I consent to take part in a study of classroom teaching administered and conducted by Gloria Musial, a doctoral student at Michigan State University.
2. The study has been explained to me and I understand the explanation and what my participation will involve. I understand that, if I like, I can receive additional explanation of the study after my participation is completed.
3. I understand that I am free to discontinue my participation in the study at any time.
4. I understand that my answers will be treated in strict confidence and that I will remain anonymous. Within these restrictions, results of the study will be made available to me at my request.
5. I understand that my participation in the study does not guarantee any benefit to me.

Signed \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_

## MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

OFFICE OF VICE PRESIDENT FOR RESEARCH  
AND DEAN OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824-1046

March 3, 1992

Gloria G. Musial  
9780 Sonora Drive  
Freeland, MI 48623

RE: JOHN DEWEY AND CURRENT PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICES: IS DEWEYAN PEDAGOGY ALIVE  
TODAY?, IRB #92-066

Dear Ms. Musial:

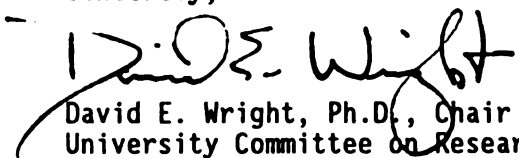
The above project is exempt from full UCRIHS review. The proposed research protocol has been reviewed by another committee member. The rights and welfare of human subjects appear to be protected and you have approval to conduct the research.

You are reminded that UCRIHS approval is valid for one calendar year. If you plan to continue this project beyond one year, please make provisions for obtaining appropriate UCRIHS approval one month prior to February 27, 1993.

Any changes in procedures involving human subjects must be reviewed by UCRIHS prior to initiation of the change. UCRIHS must also be notified promptly of any problems (unexpected side effects, complaints, etc.) involving human subjects during the course of the work.

Thank you for bringing this project to my attention. If I can be of any future help, please do not hesitate to let me know.

Sincerely,

  
David E. Wright, Ph.D., Chair  
University Committee on Research Involving  
Human Subjects (UCRIHS)

DEW/deo

cc: Dr. Janet Alleman

P.S. Extra Copies of your dissertation proposal have been sent in care of Dr. Alleman to her address.

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