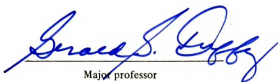This is to certify that the

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A DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF TEACHERS' CONCEPTIONS OF
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A DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF TEACHERS' CONCEPTIONS OF

READING USING A VARIATION OF THE KELLY ROLE

CONCEPT REPERTORY TEST

By

Michelle Heppler Johnston

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ABSTRACT

A DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF TEACHERS' CONCEPTIONS OF READING USING A VARIATION OF THE KELLY ROLE CONCEPT REPERTORY TEST

By

Michelle Heppler Johnston

Previous research on reading methodology indicated that the most important variable in instructional effectiveness was the teacher rather than the method or material. Yet, the unanswered question continued to be: "What made the teacher effective?" Some researchers pointed to teachers' conceptions of teaching, content, and pupils as the crucial variable in instructional effectiveness. Therefore, the purpose of the study was to identify teachers' conceptions of reading.

To identify teachers' reading conceptions, the term conceptions was first defined as what the teachers said about reading and how they organized reading information during interviews. Second, a modification of George Kelly's Role Concept Repertory Test (Rep Test) was developed to be used as a nonscheduled standardized interview guide.

Following the development of the Rep Test, twenty teachers were interviewed. The interviews consisted of two components: (1) the teachers sorted and compared students according to the Rep Test procedures; and (2) the teachers responded to probing questions posed to clarify their Rep Test responses. Then, the teachers' responses were analyzed using empirical and theoretical coding schemes. The empirical

coding schemes were developed from what the teachers said while the
theoretical coding schemes were constructed using David E. Hunt's
Behavior-Person-Environment Model and four theoretical models from
Singer and Ruddell's Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading,
Second Edition.

Three research questions were posed. The findings of the coding
schemes were used to answer the questions and the results follow.

1. What are the ways in which teachers think about reading?

The teachers described three general ways in which they thought
about reading. First, they discussed pupil differences by identifying
their bases for grouping children and by describing pupils personal
traits, backgrounds, and work habits. Second, they discussed instruc-
tional practices focusing on both materials and techniques. Finally,
the teachers stated their beliefs about their teaching of reading,
including successes and frustrations, and changes that would improve
their teaching of reading.

2. In what ways can teachers' views be classified?

The teachers' views were classified in four ways: (1) descrip-
tions of grouping practices, classroom organization, children, instruc-
tional techniques, and stated beliefs; (2) production and human
orientations; (3) decision cues; and (4) the Behavior and Person
components of Hunt's B-P-E model.

3. Are teachers' views similar to some codified models of reading?

More teachers reflected views of reading which were associated
with the psychological and affective models but those views were dis-
cussed within practical contexts such as those associated with basal

instructional strategies. The teachers may have reflected practical conceptions rather than theoretical or knowledge-based conceptions because of the nature of the Rep Test or probing questions.

Several conclusions were drawn from the findings. First, according to the definition of reading conceptions used in the study, the teachers did have such conceptions. From their descriptions of classroom practices, those conceptions appeared to influence their teaching behaviors. Second, the conceptions were personal as the teachers had individual views about what reading information was important and how they organized the information. Third, because the teachers had many conceptions about reading related to pupils, techniques, materials, and their beliefs, it was concluded that the conceptions were complex. Fourth, the conceptions were practical based on teaching goals rather than knowledge of the reading process or theory.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Background of the Problem

Reading research often focused on materials and approaches. Yet, such studies concluded that there were no significant differences between variables or that the key variable influencing reading instruction was the teacher rather than materials or approaches. What was it about the teacher that was important? Many writers indicated that a crucial aspect of the teacher variable was the teacher's concepts, beliefs, or understandings regarding course content, materials, and pupils.

For example, McKee specifically directed his attention to "the teacher's understanding of what reading instruction is."[1] Similarly, Carroll and Chall, after reviewing the first grade studies of the 1960s, concluded that an important aspect of the teaching process was the teacher's systems of beliefs about how different children learn to read.[2]

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[1] Paul McKee, "Introduction," in _Reading Instruction: Dimensions and Issues_, ed. William K. Durr (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1967), p. vii.

[2] John B. Carroll and Jeanne S. Chall, _Toward a Literate Society: The Report of the Committee on Reading of the National Academy of Education_ (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1975), p. 16.

Further, Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel stated that "the most signifi-
cant educational variation exists at the level of the individual
practitioner--not at the level of instructional materials, packaged
programs or the like."[3] They clarified their views by saying:

> It is sufficient to say here that this position assumes that
> the internal mental processes (such as understandings,
> beliefs, and values) are major underlying determinants of
> behavior and of the environments people create.[4]

Finally, Combs, Blume, Newman, and Wass supported the notion of the
importance of teachers' conceptions by stating:

> Whether a teacher will be an effective teacher depends funda-
> mentally on the nature of his private world of perceptions.[5]

This study was an attempt to identify and describe teachers'
conceptions of reading by using Wolf and Tymitz's suggestion of
pursuing reading research within an ethnographic paradigm which they
defined as "an analytical process involving the disciplined and system-
atic uncovering of human behavior and interactive patterns within any
environment or milieu."[6]

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[3]Anne M. Bussis, Edward A. Chittenden, and Marianne Amarel,
_Beyond Surface Curriculum: An Interview Study of Teachers' Under-
standings_ (Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press, Inc., 1976), p. 1.

[4]Ibid., p. 1.

[5]Arthur W. Combs et al., _The Professional Education of
Teachers: A Humanistic Approach to Teacher Education_, 2nd ed. (Boston:
Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1974), p. 21.

[6]Robert L. Wolf and Barbara L. Tymitz, "Ethnography and
Reading: Matching Inquiry Mode to Process," _Reading Research Quarterly_
12 (1976-1977):unpaged.

Therefore, this study reflected three basic ideas. First, the teacher, rather than materials and approaches, was considered to be the important element in an instructional setting. Second, the teacher's conceptions of reading were cited by the aforementioned researchers as key factors influencing reading instructional practices. Finally, an ethnographic paradigm provided an analytical way to identify and describe teacher's conceptions of reading.

The Problem

While the teacher's conception was viewed by many as a crucial instructional variable, few studies attempted to identify teacher's conceptions of reading. Consequently, the purpose of the study was to investigate the ways in which teachers conceptualize reading. Specifically, the study utilized in-depth, probing interviews to identify, describe, and classify teachers' conceptions of reading.

Significance of the Problem

The identification of teachers' conceptions of reading contributes to educational research in six ways.

1. The study provides researchers of teacher effectiveness with useful information about the way teachers think about reading. Such information gives researchers clues to the reasons certain teachers used specific reading instructional practices.

2. The identification of teachers' conceptions of reading instruction is valuable to teacher educators, curriculum planners, and material developers as an aide for planning instructional improvement.

3. The identification of differences in teachers' conceptions of reading instruction provides other researchers with ways to detect the relative influence of presage, process, and context variables.

4. The results of the study give teacher trainers a method to identify specific in-service needs in reading to help teachers and in-service teacher trainers identify target areas for in-service training.

5. The data of the study were actual teacher descriptions of instructional practices and the ways in which teachers organize information about reading. Such data provides springboards for future research on the teaching of reading.

6. The interview technique employed in the study provides a useful investigative tool for educational research in content areas other than reading.

Definitions

The following definitions of terms were specifically relevant for the study.

Conceptions of Reading

An operational definition of reading conceptions was derived from the writings of Schroder, Karlins, and Phares. They defined concepts as:

The rules by which individuals deal with the world and are the rules that individuals employ for organizing units of information about the world.[7]

Elsewhere, Schroder, Karlins, and Phares reiterated that "each person perceives and responds to the world in his own unique way."[8] Therefore, using Schroder, Karlins, and Phares as a basis, the following operational definition of conceptions of reading was constructed: conceptions of reading were what the teachers said they did about reading and how the teachers stated that they organized information about reading in response to interview questions.

Nonscheduled Standardized Interview Guide

Nonscheduled standardized interview guide, as used in this study, referred to the list of information and procedures from which the interviewer worked. According to Denzin, a nonscheduled standardized interview guide gave the interviewer freedom to probe and to gather personal or social data, such as attitudes.[9] The interview guide was nonscheduled because the questions varied according to the teachers' responses and standardized because the interviewer worked with the same list of procedures for all the teachers.

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[7]Harold M. Schroder, Marvin Karlins, and Jacqueline O. Phares, _Education for Freedom_ (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1973), p. 26.

[8]Ibid., p. 26.

[9]Norma K. Denzin, _The Research Act: A Theoretical Introduction to Sociological Methods_ (Chicago, Illinois: Aldine Publishing Company, 1970), p. 126.

Transcripts

The transcripts were the typed dialogues that resulted from using the nonscheduled interview guides. Each interview was recorded on cassette tapes and transcribed for content analysis.

Content Analysis

Content analysis (which was used to analyze the transcripts) referred to the process of examining the transcripts and formulating categories to describe teachers' reading conceptions. More specifically, Hayes defined content analysis as a process for determining characteristics of a source from its natural-language utterances.[10] Therefore, in this study, the teachers' natural-language, as it appeared in the transcripts, was examined to look for characteristics which represented conceptions of reading. The specific procedures used are described in Chapter III.

Coding Schemes

Two types of coding schemes were used for the content analysis. One coding scheme was developed empirically from what the teachers actually said and contained lists of words the teachers used to describe reading. The second coding scheme was theoretically based and contained lists of terms used by certain experts to describe reading, students, and instruction.

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[10]David G. Jayes, "Linguistic Foundations for a Theory of Content Analysis," in The Analysis of Communication Content, ed. George Gerbner et al. (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1969), p. 65.

Orientations and Decision Stimuli

Following a content analysis of what the teachers said about reading, two summary categories were formed. The summary categories were labeled "orientations" and "decision stimuli."

Orientations

Orientations referred to the relative emphasis that the teachers placed on either human attributes or production attributes. While some teachers tended to discuss reading in terms of human attributes such as attitude, other teachers emphasized production, such as work habits.

Decision Stimuli

The decision stimuli referred to the cues that the teachers described as using when they made reading decisions. Teachers relied on materials, students, self or various combinations of the three when making reading decisions.

Questions to be Answered

Because the problem was to identify teachers' conceptions of reading, the major question was: What are the ways in which teachers think about reading? Additionally, the following questions were asked:

1. In what ways can teachers' views be classified?

2. Are teachers' views similar to some codified views of reading?

Assumptions and Limitations

There were several assumptions and limitations which influenced the study.

Assumptions

In attempting to identify and describe teachers' conceptions of reading, the assumption existed that teachers did have certain beliefs about reading that influenced teaching behaviors and pupil outcomes. McKee reflected this assumption by suggesting that teachers had certain understandings of reading instruction and that these understandings were among the factors that influence pupil achievement.[11]

Furthermore, the assumption was made that teacher conceptions of reading were being tapped by using an in-depth interview technique. This assumption was supported by researchers such as Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel who suggested that "the strength of the interview lies in its ability to elicit personal opinions, knowledge, understandings, attitudes, and the like."[12]

Finally, there was the assumption that the researcher was able to capably analyze and codify the interview data. As Garfinkel stated, "The coder takes the position of a socially competent member of the arrangement to be described."[13] Specifically, the coder or researcher had to be uniquely familiar with the nuances of the elements being described and aware of the ways in which teachers discussed reading

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[11]McKee, "Introduction," p. vii.

[12]Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel, _Interview Study of Teachers' Understandings_, p. 15.

[13]Harold Garfinkel, _Studies in Ethnomethodology_ (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1967), p. 22.

and reading instruction. For the purpose of the study, it was assumed that the researcher met these criteria.

Limitations

The study had limitations related to the problem, the populations, the design, the analysis of data, and the instrumentation. Specifically, the limitations of the study were:

1. Although the problem studied was important, it was difficult to measure. The conceptions of reading attributed to the teachers may have been limited because of biases subconsciously imposed by the interviewer and other confounding variables, such as institutional constraints within a teacher's school or a misapplication of probing techniques within the interview.

2. The coding schemes used in analyzing the content of the interviews have limitations. First, the researcher's judgement was employed to determine the coding schemes. Second, relevant information may have been lost by compressing the data into categories.

3. The study was limited by the populations and samples which were selected by the investigator. Therefore, the ability to generalize the findings of the study was limited to teachers who were interviewed.

4. Because the design of the study was descriptive, many variables such as sex, age, or preservice training were not controlled and, therefore, may have confounded the findings. The conceptions of reading were not subjected to experimental

manipulations nor was any attempt made to determine the reasons for the conceptions.

Design of the Study

The design of the study included descriptions of the procedures for data collection and analyses.

Data Collection

The study was a descriptive study in which twenty teachers were interviewed using a modification of George Kelly's Role Concept Repertory Test (Rep Test) as the basis for a nonscheduled standardized interview guide. During in-depth interviews, teachers were required to sort their students according to how they received reading instruction. After identifying the ways in which their students received reading instruction, the teachers participated in triadic sorting exercises which were used to identify pupil similarities and differences. The triadic sorting procedure was the central feature of the Rep Test. Finally, the teachers were asked to identify successful instructional techniques used and materials needed to help unsuccessful students.

The Rep Test was selected as the basis for the interview guide because it forced the respondent to focus on concrete issues while it elicited underlying conceptions and the ways in which information was organized.[14,15] Teachers were forced to focus on their students while

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[14]David E. Hunt, Teachers Are Psychologists Too: On the Application of Psychology to Education (Iowa City, Iowa: The American College Testing Program, 1976), p. 5.

[15]Jarrod W. Wilcox, A Method for Measuring Decision Assumptions (Cambridge, Massachusetts: The Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1972), p. 5.

responding to the probing questions. As Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel stated, the major interest of the interviews was not the specific behaviors described by the teachers but "what the described behaviors represent."[16] Thus, the information elicited during the interviews were descriptions of behaviors which were assumed to be representing the teachers' conceptions of reading.

Qualitative Data and
Content Analyses

The data were qualitative in the form of taped interviews that were transcribed. For the purpose of identifying teachers' conceptions of reading, the collection of qualitative data was the most useful and telling as it provided a broad band of descriptive information. Because the purpose of the study was to describe teachers' conceptions of reading, the study represents a pre-experimental phase of research rather than a verification or an experimental phase of research. Furthermore, Glaser and Strauss support the collection of qualitative data by positing that it was the most adequate and efficient way to obtain information in empirical settings.[17] This study was of an empirical nature as it was conducted primarily within school settings and focused on the actual pupils.

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[16]Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel, Interview Study of Teachers' Understandings, p. 15.

[17]Barney G. Glaser and Anslem L. Strauss, The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research (Chicago, Illinois: Aldine Publishing Company, 1967), p. 18.

To analyze the transcripts, content analysis was used similar to a method described by Glaser and Strauss in which categories emerged from the data.[18] The selected method of content analysis was deemed appropriate as it met the five following characteristics of content analysis advanced by Alexander: (1) the investigator formed discriminating categories; (2) the emphasis was on hypothesis formation versus hypothesis testing; (3) estimates were made of the speaker's intended meaning; (4) the speaker's situation and purpose were taken into account; and (5) there was a close relationship to descriptive procedures.[19]

From the content analysis of the transcripts, descriptions and classifications of the teachers' conceptions of reading were developed.

Summary of the Problem

The specific problem to be studied was the identification of teachers' conceptions of reading using ethnographic research methodologies. In general, other researchers, teacher trainers, curriculum planners, and material developers were provided with important information resulting from the identification of teachers' conceptions of reading. Specifically, the Rep Test was used in interviews to identify the teachers' conceptions of reading. Following the interviews, the conceptions were reviewed and categorized to answer the questions:

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[18]Ibid., p. 18.

[19]George Alexander, "Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches to Content Analysis," in Trends in Content Analyses, ed. Ithiel De Sola Pool (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1959), p. 19.

1. What are the ways in which teachers think about reading?

2. In what ways can teachers' views of reading be classified?

3. Are teachers' views of reading similar to some codified views of reading?

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

Chapter II will include a brief review of related research regarding teacher beliefs, some theoretical models of reading, and support for the procedures of the study. The procedures for data collection and analysis will be more fully described in Chapter III. In Chapter IV, descriptions and categories of the teachers' conceptions of reading will be presented. Conclusions, results, and recommendations for future study will be presented in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The materials in the Review of the Literature were selected
to provide background in three areas: (1) previous writing and research
on teachers' conceptions of teaching in general and of reading;
(2) views of reading held by certain experts; and (3) description of
the research procedures used in the study.

Teacher Conceptions

The literature on teachers' conceptions was reviewed in two
ways: teachers' conceptions of teaching in general; and teachers'
conceptions of reading.

Teachers' Conceptions of Teaching

From their extensive review of the research, Brophy and Good
concluded:

> The teacher individual difference variable that appears to
> be especially important for the classroom is the teacher's
> belief system or conceptual level.[1]

They saw the beliefs of teachers as having an influence on pupil
achievement.[2]

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[1] Jere E. Brophy and Thomas L. Good, Teacher-Student Relationships: Causes and Consequences (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1974), p. 262.

[2] Ibid., p. 124.

Washburn and Heil concurred with Brophy and Good as they hypothesized that teachers' personalities, including their beliefs, had a "definite and determinable influence on the intellectual, social, and emotional growth of children."[3] Although their major problem was to construct instruments for identifying different types of children and teachers, they concluded:

> Our experiment does show that whatever effects the teacher's knowledge measured in the Teacher Education Examination are completely masked by the effects of the teacher's personality.[4]

Further, Fuller found that teachers' conceptions about their roles, teaching content, and pupils vary over time. Fuller used ethnographic methodologies including surveys in a variety of related studies to identify conceptions of teaching at the pre-service level and at several different in-service experience levels.[5]

In a massive study, researchers at the University of Wisconsin attempted to investigate the "substance and structure of teacher viewpoints" for the following two reasons:

1. . . . the perceptions and discriminations of a teacher exert critical influence on the stimulation and direction of pupil learning. It is a teacher's own thoughts and conceptualizations of the instructional process which mold and control the learning climate.

2. . . . to improve the performance of teachers, and to accumulate a body of knowledge relevant to facilitating learning, information is needed which describes views

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[3]Carleton Washburne and Louis M. Heil. "What Characteristics of Teachers Affect Children's Growth?" School Review 68 (1960):420.

[4]Ibid., p. 425.

[5]Frances F. Fuller, "Concerns of Teachers: A Developmental Conceptualization," American Educational Research Journal 6 (March 1969):218.

and perceptions of teachers. A program for increasing effectiveness must take into account their existing perceptions concerning teaching and learning.[6]

To assess the substance of the teacher viewpoints, the researchers used essays, content analysis of reports, interview recordings, autobiographical writings, and lesson plan reports.[7] Sorting was used to assess the structure which was referred to as the organization of the substance.

Hunt used an adaptation of the Rep Test to help teachers make their implicit conceptions explicit.[8] The teachers matched and sorted students according to student characteristics, learning outcomes, and teaching approaches in an effort to get them to think about their teaching.[9] By using the Rep Test, knowledge was gained on how the teacher organized information about content and students.[10] The conceptions Hunt elicited from the Rep Test were fitted into a paradigm and had the following four characteristics: the conceptions were interactive;

[6]The University of Wisconsin Instructional Research Laboratory, "Elementary School Teachers' Viewpoints of Classroom Teaching and Learning," U.S.O.E. Project Number 5.1015.2.12.1 (Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin, 1967), pp. 3-4.

[7]Ibid., p. 5.

[8]Hunt, Teachers Are Psychologists, p. 5.

[9]Ibid.

[10]David E. Hunt and Edmond V. Sullivan, Between Psychology and Education (Hinsdale, Illinois: Dryden Press, 1974), p. 54.

the person was viewed in a developmental procedure; the conceptions were reciprocal; and they were practical.[11] In a later writing, Hunt asserted:

> One of the reasons for earlier inconsistency in the study of teacher awareness and its influence on teacher behavior has been the failure to permit teachers to express themselves in their own terms about all aspects of the teaching-learning process.[12]

Therefore, according to Hunt, the Rep Test allowed teachers to verbalize their conceptions about reading in their own terms in relationship to their pupils.[13]

Similarly, Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel used in-depth interviews to capture and describe teacher conceptions of teaching because of their developmental, interactive, and person-oriented view of the teaching learning process.[14] Like Hunt, Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel were looking for practical information concerning teachers' conceptions that went beyond surface understandings.[15] Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel concluded that their interview procedure tapped teachers' underlying conceptions and that those conceptions of what was important instructionally influenced teachers' classroom behaviors.[16]

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[11]David E. Hunt, "The B-P-E Paradigm in Theory, Research, and Practice," _Canadian Psychological Review_ 16 (1975):190.

[12]David E. Hunt, "The Teachers' Adaptations: 'Reading' and 'Flexing' to Students," _Journal of Teacher Education_ 27 (1976):272.

[13]Hunt, _Teachers Are Psychologists_, p. 5.

[14]Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel, _Interview Study of Teachers' Understandings_, p. 1.

[15]Ibid., p. 171.

[16]Ibid., pp. 169 and 171.

In additional studies reported by Combs and others, researchers at the University of Florida wrestled with the question: "What kinds of perceptions do 'good' professional workers have?"[17] They have developed hypotheses that were corroborated and led them to believe "that the following major areas were crucial in the perceptual organization of a good teacher":

1. Rich, extensive, and available perceptions about his subject field.
2. Accurate perceptions about what people are like.
3. Perceptions of self leading to adequacy.
4. Accurate perceptions about the purpose and process of learning.
5. Personal perceptions about appropriate methods for carrying out his purpose.[18]

The preceding studies focused on teachers' conceptions of teaching which included conceptions of teacher roles, students, learning outcomes and curriculum. In an attempt to tap the teachers' conceptions, the researchers used interviews, surveys, sorting, biographical sketches, lesson plans, and content analysis. Each researcher concluded that the beliefs, viewpoints, or conceptions held by teachers influence their classroom behavior.

Teachers' Conceptions of Reading

The research previously reviewed did not focus specifically on teachers' conceptions of reading. According to Belli, Blom, and Reiser, there was very little research on teachers' conceptions of

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[17]Combs et al., _Professional Education of Teachers_, p. 21.

[18]Ibid., p. 22.

reading and the research on teachers' conceptions had to be drawn from outside reading and transformed to meet reading needs.[19] Such research was presented in the previous section of the Review of Literature.

Another source for information about teachers' reading conceptions was the literature on in-service activities and teachers' conceptions related to instructional practices, such as materials and grouping.

To illustrate, Cadenhead tried to determine teachers' conceptions of reading by describing an activity in which participants within groups sorted cards to identify their beliefs about reading.[20] The sorting process consisted of accepting and rejecting assumptions Cadenhead presented concerning reading.[21] Following the sorting, the group discussed the assumptions.[22] There were no attempts made to codify or categorize the assumptions as he was writing for the purpose of discussing an in-service technique rather than a research study.

Further, Mayes used the Teacher Practices Inventory, the Personal Beliefs Inventory, and the Dogmatism Scale to measure the beliefs of teachers using the DISTAR program as compared to the beliefs

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[19] Gabriella Belli, Gaston Blom, and Ann Reiser, Teachers' Concerns and Conceptions of Reading and The Teaching of Reading: A Literature Review (East Lansing, Michigan: Institute of Research on Teaching, Michigan State University, 1977), p. 9.

[20] Kenneth Cadenhead, "What Are Your Beliefs About Reading Instruction?" Journal of Reading 20 (November 1976):129.

[21] Ibid.

[22] Ibid., p. 130.

of teachers using basals.[23] Mayes found no significant differences between the DISTAR teachers and the basal teachers.[24] She attributed the finding to the basic common value from which both types of materials originate and to the values of the teachers.[25] Because DISTAR teachers and basal teachers had similar values, Mayes concluded that their teaching was similar.[26] She stated that changes in instructional practices "cannot occur" until teachers change their values.[27]

Miller and Hering asked if reading teachers preferred to teach the more talented readers.[28] To answer the question, Miller and Hering asked twenty-six first grade teachers to list the names of their pupils according to reading group. At a later date, the teachers were asked to list the pupils to whom they preferred to teach reading.[29] The researchers saw no evidence of sex differences but they found that teachers did prefer teaching the better students.[30]

When Bennett studied the open classroom, he developed three questionnaires to assess teachers' aims and opinions. His questionnaires were composed of items derived from other research studies and

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[23]Bea Mayes, "The Reading Teacher and Values," Contemporary Education 45 (Winter, 1974):127.

[24]Ibid., p. 129.   [25]Ibid., p. 130.

[26]Ibid.   [27]Ibid., p. 131.

[28]Harry B. Miller and Steve Hering, "Teachers' Ratings--Which Reading Group Is Number One?" The Reading Teacher 28 (January 1975): 389.

[29]Ibid., p. 390.   [30]Ibid.

from teacher interviews.[31] Teachers rated aims on a five-point scale in terms of their relative importance. The need for basic skills in reading and number work received a high rating while the necessity to read fluently, accurately, and with understanding was considered less essential.[32]

From the information reported in the review of teachers' conceptions of reading, only Cadenhead's activity attempted to identify teachers' beliefs about reading. However, Cadenhead's article focused on presenting an in-service training activity rather than presenting a research study. The studies in this section presented findings which compared teacher values as related to materials used, instructional group preferences, and rating aims of reading instruction. Therefore, from this review, the researcher concurred with Belli, Blom, and Reiser that there was very little research on teachers' reading conceptions. Yet, teachers' conceptions of reading needed to be identified because, according to literature in this review, the teachers' underlying conceptions influenced their classroom behavior.

The conceptions reviewed thus far were on a practical not theoretical level. Theoretical conceptions of reading provided a structure within which practical reading conceptions were identified.

Theoretical Models of Reading

The process of identifying teachers' conceptions of reading included an examination of the views of reading held by recognized

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[31]Neville Bennett, _Teaching Styles and Pupil Progress_ (London: Open Books, 1976), p. 55.

[32]Ibid., p. 56.

experts. Descriptions of the views of reading held by certain authori-
ties gave the study and the teachers' conceptions of reading a frame
of reference. For the purpose of the study, four types of reading
models described in Singer and Ruddell's <u>Theoretical Models and
Process</u>, Second Edition were used. Following a brief presentation of
each type of model, practical classroom applications of the models
were described. Descriptions of practical classroom applications
showed how some aspects of the models were reflected in the teachers'
instructional practices and conceptions. The four types of theoretical
models of reading were the psycholinguistic models, information pro-
cessing models, developmental models, and the affective model.

<u>Psycholinguistic Models</u>

Two psycholinguistic models which focused on the relationship
between language and thought with comprehension as the major goal of
reading were presented by Ruddell and Goodman respectively.

<u>Ruddell's Model</u>

Although at the initial stages of reading Ruddell recognized
that children must be taught to use grapho-phonic, syntactic, and
semantic clues, he also recognized "that in some manner, children are
independently able to arrive at an optimal decoding unit depending
upon their own cognitive strategy and the particular decoding approach
used and that the main goal of reading was comprehension."[33]

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[33] Robert B. Ruddell, "Psychologistic Implications for a System
of Communication Model," in <u>Theoretical Models and Processes of
Reading</u>, 2nd ed., ed. Harry Singer and Robert B. Ruddell (Newark,
Delaware: International Reading Association, 1976), p. 454.

Goodman's Model

Goodman, through the presentation of a slightly different model, concurred with Ruddell that the main goal of reading was comprehension.[34] He further posited that through the application of guesses the reader was able to reconstruct the intended meaning of the author.[35] To support his view of reading, Goodman offered practical suggestions for teachers of all levels. First, he suggested that reading was closely tied to practical communication, such as dictating experience stories and reading directions, labels, and signs.[36] Because differences between literary language and practical communication exists, he further suggested that children needed prereading experiences with literature.[37] Finally, he suggested that reading instruction adopted a multimedia approach which used reference skills in the content areas.[38] To develop sophistication in reading, Goodman stated that the reading teacher needed to develop techniques and strategies that led to independence, flexibility, a sense of significance to reading, and a critical sense.[39]

Summary of the Psycholinguistic
Models

The psycholinguistic models focused on the relationship of thought and language with comprehension as the main reading goal.

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[34]Kenneth S. Goodman, "Behind the Eye What Happens in Reading," in Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading, 2nd ed., ed. Harry Singer and Robert B. Ruddell (Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1976), p. 454.

[35]Ibid., p. 472.   [36]Ibid., p. 484.

[37]Ibid., p. 485.   [38]Ibid., pp. 486-87.

[39]Ibid., pp. 493-95.

Therefore, teachers whose reading conceptions and instructional prac-
tices reflected the ideas of the psycholinguists used a variety of
materials or strategies which required their students to use their own
language and thinking to predict graphemic, syntactic and semantic
understandings inherent in the printed page.

Information Processing Models

Three different types of information processing models were
examined in Theoretical Models and Processes, Second Edition.

Gough's Model

Gough presented an information processing model of reading by
attempting to describe what went on in the mind of the reader beginning
with eye fixations and breaking down the reading process into a letter-
by-letter flow process.[40] He posited that the rapid identification of
letters was an important reading skill which was mastered through
cryptanalysis, not memorization.[41] In advancing the use of phonics
instructional procedures over the Look-and-Say method, he qualified
his support by saying:

> It is important to realize, though, that phonics does not
> teach the mapping required to become a Reader. What the
> Reader knows is the mapping between characters and system-
> atic phonemes; what the child is taught in phonics is to
> name a letter (or a letter part) with a syllable that
> contains the appropriate systematic phoneme. When the
> child "sounds out" a new word, it is apparent to any
> auditor that the child is not converting letters into
> underlying phonemic representations. Rather he is
> searching for something that he can hear as a word.[42]

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[40] Philip B. Gough, "One Second of Reading," in Theoretical
Models and Processes of Reading, 2nd ed., ed. Harry Singer and Robert B.
Ruddell (Newark, Delaware: Internat. Reading Association, 1976), p. 510.

[41] Ibid., p. 526.   [42] Ibid., p. 528.

To present an information processing view of comprehension, Gough focused on the element of speed, the interference of oral reading, and guessing.[43] He posited that oral reading forces the reader to have temporal delays between words that hindered comprehension.[44] Concerning the psycholinguistic view of the appropriateness of guessing, Gough stated:

> A guess may be a good thing, for it may preserve the integrity of the sentence comprehension. But rather than being a sign of a normal reader, it indicates that the child did not decode the word rapidly enough to read it normally. The good reader need not guess; the bad should not.[45]

LaBerge's and Samuels' Model

Another model of reading as information processing was presented by LaBerge and Samuels who recognized reading to be a complex skill which the fluent reader processed instantaneously.[46] Their model emphasized selectivity and capacity of limitations as two characteristics of the role of attention[47] and "involves a sequence of stages of information processing."[48] Through an examination of the theoretical relationships between visual and phonological systems and between visual, phonological, and semantic systems, they continued to recognize

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[43]Ibid., p. 532.   [44]Ibid.

[45]Ibid.

[46]David LaBerge and S. Jay Samuels, "Toward a Theory of Automatic Information Processing in Reading," in Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading, 2nd ed., ed. Harry Singer and Robert B. Ruddell (Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1976), p. 548.

[47]Ibid., p. 549.   [48]Ibid., p. 549.

"the importance of automaticity in the performance of fluent reading."[49] For practical application of their model, they favored instructional measures that single out skills at various strategic stages and that had two criteria of achievement for each stage: accuracy and automaticity.[50]

In a re-examination of their model, LaBerge and Samuels noted that it did not "spell out higher-order linguistic operations, such as parsing, predictive processing, and contextual effects on comprehension."[51] They separated word meaning from comprehension by designating word meaning as the semantic referrent of a written word and comprehension as the organization of the word meanings and "thinking in general."[52] They posited that automaticity processed word meanings were organized for comprehension.[53] From their description of the comprehension process, the assumption was made that without automaticity of word meanings the semantic referrents were lost or nonexistent, resulting in the lack of comprehension.

Anderson's, Goldberg's, and
Hidde's Model

Anderson, Goldberg, and Hidde used the results of two experiments to present a third information processing model to describe the meaningful processing of sentences. The researchers posited "that there were several stages or levels of processing which occurred if a

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[49]Ibid., p. 570.

[50]Ibid., p. 575.

[51]Ibid.

[52]Ibid., p. 576.

[53]Ibid.

person was to learn from written verbal materials."[54] Specifically,

they identified two of these stages as auditory and semantic encoding

which consist, respectively, of bringing words into speech and of

bringing meaningful representations to the mind.[56] In their experi-

ments, subjects who were required to fill in blanks in sentences

learned more than the subjects who only read the sentences. The results

seemed to indicate that readers proceeded through the auditory encoding

stage without semantic encoding.[56]

Summary of the Information
Processing Models

Although the three information processing models presented

different pictures of the reading process, they had certain common

elements. A commonality existed across the models in their emphasis

on skill acquisition and mastery at specified levels. The skills needed

to be mastered and become automatic to allow progression to the

following stages. Therefore, teachers who had viewpoints of reading

similar to the information processing models used instructional

procedures that required students to master specified skills at certain

stages.

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[54]Richard C. Anderson, Sheila R. Goldberg, and Janet L. Hidde, "Meaningful Processing of Sentences," in Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading, 2nd ed., ed. Harry Singer and Robert B. Ruddell (Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1976), p. 580.

[55]Ibid., p. 580.

[56]Ibid., p. 586.

Developmental Models

Holmes' and Singer's interpretations of the substrata-factor theory were presented as developmental models.

Holmes' Interpretation

The substrata-factor theory was formulated by Holmes who employed substrata-factor analysis.[57] According to Holmes, "the substrata-factor theory assumed that once a meaningful psycho-educational association was learned or established within the mind-brain contraplex, the neurological structure retains memory traces in cell assemblies and supra-assemblies as relatively permanent ability-systems."[58] In other words, within a mental structure there were many large and small systems which acted to form associations and retained information. Holmes presented the model pictorially as a tri-level hierarchial connection with the Power of Reading (high school level reading) at the summit. The three levels below the summit included factors and subfactors which supported reading. A factor entitled "the range of information" and "the breadth of knowledge" was noted to be the most important factor.[59]

Singer's Interpretation

By defining the subtrata-factor theory of reading as "an explanation of the mental structures and dynamics involved in

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[58]Jack A. Holmes, "Basic Assumptions Underlying the Substrata-Factor Theory," in Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading, 2nd ed., ed. Harry Singer and Robert B. Ruddell (Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1976), p. 604.

[59]Ibid., p. 615.

[60]Ibid., p. 614.

reading," Singer attempted to explain the development of the Power of Reading in grades three through six.[60] Singer explained further that as an individual learns to read "he sequentially develops a mental structure that is interwoven and functionally organized in at least three hierarchial levels."[61] Through an experiment, Singer found developmental changes in the Power of Reading in the later elementary grades. For example, he found that syllabication consistency had a direct influence on the Power of Reading in grade 3 but an indirect influence in grades 4, 5, and 6.[62] Similar developmental influences were found in the differences between the Power of Reading in sixth grade, high school, and college. He surmised that Piaget's theory of development explained changes in factor patterns which occurred around the sixth grade level as a result of movement into formal operations.[63]

Summary of the Developmental Models

Holmes and Singer explained the substrata-factor theory of reading which appeared to be hierarchial as the readers proceeded through levels of reading competency until they reached high school level reading. The reader's progress through the stages was related to his cognitive development. Teachers who reflected reading conceptions similar to the developmental model not only expressed a concern

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[60]Harry Singer, "Substrata-Factor Patterns Accompanying Development in Power of Reading, Elementary through College Level," in Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading, 2nd ed., ed. Harry Singer and Robert B. Ruddell (Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1976), p. 619.

[61]Ibid., p. 620.   [62]Ibid., p. 627.

[63]Ibid., p. 631.

for a reader's hierarchial skill development but also the cognitive development of the reader as he became a more mature reader.

Affective Model

Mathewson's Model

In presenting an affective model of reading, Mathewson discussed the importance of attitude as it was related to the reading process. He expressed a need for a definition of the role of affect as "the concepts of attitude, motivation, interest, belief, and value may have a vague quality resisting systematic treatment."[64] Mathewson labeled the affective model, "The Acceptance Model: A Model of Attitude Influence in Reading Comprehension" and used motivation and attitude as components that "work together to create the condition in which the child begins to pay attention to books."[65] Although he recognized that the model did not present a clear or complete picture of the reading process, the model provided a direction to follow in creating school materials, for teaching, and for future research on the theory of attitude in reading.

Summary of the Affective Model

The affective model proposed that interest and motivation were the prime forces behind a child's reading progress. The teachers who

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[64]Grover C. Mathewson, "The Function of Attitude in the Reading Process," in Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading, 2nd ed., ed. Harry Singer and Robert B. Ruddell (Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1976), p. 655.

[65]Ibid., p. 661.

permitted self-selection and discussed interests, attitudes, and motivation reflected reading conceptions similar to the affective model.

Summary of the Models

The models of reading were presented in the Review of the Literature to provide a framework for the descriptions of teachers' conceptions of reading. Teachers' conceptions were compared to four theoretical models of reading in an effort to present clear descriptions of their conceptions of reading. The degree to which the teachers' conceptions matched or did not match the theoretical models had important implications as noted by Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel.[66]

Description of the Research Procedures

The materials presented in this section of the Review of the Literature focused on ethnographic methodologies and field-study techniques in general and specific procedures and problems related to the study.

Ethnographic Methodology and Field Study Techniques

Ethnographic studies, which Garfinkel referred to as ethno-methodological studies, attempted to "analyze activities and members' methods for making those same activities visibly-rational-and-reportable-for-all-practical-purposes . . . practical reasoning."[67]

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[66]Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel, Interview Study of Teachers' Understandings, p. 47.

[67]Garfinkel, Studies in Ethnomethodology, p. vii.

As Garfinkel later added, the concern of ethnographic studies was for an adequate description.[68] Therefore, a study done within an ethnographic framework focused on describing practical aspects of everyday life. In the case of the present study, the focus was on the descriptions of the teachers' conceptions of reading which were assumed to govern their everyday teaching activities and interactions with children.

Denzin looked at ethnographic methodologies as naturalistic research in which the empirical world set the tone[69] and in which pre-experimental designs exercised no control.[70] Further, Denzin said that in the case of a survey subjects were asked questions concerning behaviors, attitudes, and beliefs at one point in time.[71] This study asked subjects such questions at one point in time.

In reporting on his field-study, Erickson defined the work as:

> . . . ethnographic in a sense that it considers as a whole the organization of behavior in these interactional events--considers nonverbal and situational aspects of the inter-action as well as verbal aspects--and identifies customary features of interactional form and function in events.[72]

Through field work, Erickson identified the "gatekeeping encounters" as salient features of the Chicago West Side and, therefore, appropriate

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[68]Ibid., p. 89.

[69]Norman K. Denzin, _Sociological Methods: A Source Book_ (Chicago, Illinois: Aldine Publishing Company, 1970), p. 7.

[70]Denzin, _Research Act_, p. 69.

[71]Ibid.

[72]Fredrick Erickson, "Gatekeeping Encounters: A Social Selection Process," in _Anthropology and the Public Interest: Field Work and Theory_, ed. Peggy Reeves Sanday (New York: Academic Press, 1976), p. 112.

for study.[73] Similarly, in this study, teachers' conceptions of
reading were considered to be appropriate features for further study
after extensive work with teachers by the researcher.

Interview

Support for the interview as a means for collecting data
regarding teachers' conceptions of reading was reported in a review of
the study conducted by Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel.[74] Denzin
offered further support for interviews by noting they were the favorite
"digging tool for sociological research" in which the act of measure-
ment comes to life.[75] He classified three types of interviews
according to their structure, purpose, and underlying assumptions. The
first type of interview identified by Denzin was the standardized
interview schedule formulated to give to large numbers of people: a
homogeneous population with similar meaning vocabularies and values.[76]
When using the nonscheduled standardized interview, the second type,
the interviewer worked with a list of information required from each
respondent.[77] The nonscheduled standardized interview required highly
trained interviewers who rephrased and reordered questions to fit
each respondent.[78] Additionally, the nonscheduled standarized

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[73]Ibid., p. 113.

[74]Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel, Interview Study of Teachers'
Understanding, p. 2.

[75]Denzin, Research Act, p. 122.

[76]Ibid., p. 123.   [77]Ibid., pp. 123-24.

[78]Ibid., p. 124.

interviews were used for exploratory work.[79] Finally, the nonstan-

dardized was the third type of interview which recognized "that

individuals have unique ways of defining their world."[80] Thus, it had

no prespecified set of questions, no order to the questions, and the

freedom to allow the interviewer to probe.[81] Denzin recognized that

in gathering social data, such as attitudes, it was acceptable to com-

bine approaches.[82] The nonscheduled standardized form was used in this

study because of the exploratory nature of the study.

Sampling, Control, and
Generalizability

For the purpose of the study, nonrandom samples were used. Two

issues which arose from the use of nonrandom samples were: (1) control;

and (2) generalizability.

Control. Gordon faced the issue of control in exploratory

research by stating that "overly severe standards for methodological

purity applied to early stages of investigation can lead to paralysis"

and can prevent the emergence of valuable insights.[83] Similarly,

Sjoberg and Nett suggested that for the basis of discovery there was no

well-defined hypothesis and no random sample.[84]

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[79]Ibid., p. 125.   [80]Ibid.

[81]Ibid., p. 126.   [82]Ibid.

[83]Chad Gordon, "Self-Conceptions and Configurations of Content," in The Self in Social Interaction, ed. Chad Gordon and Kenneth J. Gergen (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1968), p. 117.

[84]Gideon Sjoberg and Roger Nett, A Methodology for Social Research (New York: Harper and Row, 1968), p. 137.

Sampling. Denzin identified two basic types of samples: non-interactive and interactive.[85] Noninteractive samples were typically used in experimental research and "fail to establish directly patterns of relationship between natural social units."[86] Conversely, inter-active samples recognized relationships of natural social units.[87] An example of an interactive sample was a natural work group, such as a group of teachers.

The use of comparative samples which were two different natural work groups had the advantage of uncovering more information[88] from which categories can emerge.[89] In this study, two groups of teachers were used.

Generalizability. Erickson encountered the issue of generali-zability by stating that the findings of his field work were not generalizable but from the analytical procedures used he could make intuitive statements.[90] From the description of the cases he col-lected, he made public certain statements but, he warned, one counter example "could ruin" his argument and that a need existed for further evidence.[91]

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[85]Denzin, Research Act, p. 87.

[86]Ibid.   [87]Ibid.   [88]Ibid, p. 95.

[89]Glaser and Strauss, Discovery of Grounded Theory, p. 49.

[90]Erickson, "Gatekeeping Encounters," p. 141.

[91]Ibid.

In concluding a review of the research measuring teacher behavior, Shavelson and Dempsey-Atwood stated that generalizability was extremely limited.[92] The focus of their review was experimental research, not ethnographic research, but they succinctly pointed to the problem of limited generalizability of the research on teacher behavior.

Summary of control, samples, and generalizability. The purpose of the study was to describe teachers' conceptions of reading. To describe those conceptions, freedom was needed within the research design to explore. Because of that need for freedom, the two samples contained volunteers from selected populations. Using such samples weakened control and limited generalizability. Yet, the issue of limited generalizability was common in the research on teaching. Therefore, to address the issue of generalizability, the researcher used Erickson for support in gathering evidence within natural settings. According to Erickson, after gathering the evidence and systematically analyzing the data, the results can be used for making strong intuitive statements rather than generalizations.[93] This study gathered evidence with natural settings, analyzed the information systematically, and presented statements rather than generalizations about the teachers' reading conceptions.

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[92]Richard Shavelson and Nancy Dempsey-Atwood, "Generalizability of Measures of Teaching Behavior," Review of Educational Research 46 (Fall, 1976):608.

[93]Erickson, "Gatekeeping Encounters," p. 141.

Summary of Ethnographic Methodologies
and Field-Study Techniques

To describe teachers' conceptions of reading was the major
purpose of the study. Because it was an exploratory study, descriptions
of the procedures were drawn from the literature on ethnographic
methodologies with particular emphasis on interviews, sampling, control,
and generalizability.

Specific Procedures Related
to the Study

Many writers recognized the difficulty of measuring teachers'
conceptions, understandings, or viewpoints. Examples of such writers
are Combs and others who described the effective teacher as being a
consequence of the following six conditions:

1. Knowledge of the world and of his subjects.
2. Sensitivity to people, the capacity for empathy.
3. Accurate and appropriate beliefs about people and their
   behavior.
4. Positive beliefs about self.
5. Appropriate and congruent beliefs about the purposes, the
   goals of society, schools, the classroom, the teacher's own
   goals in teaching.
6. The personal discovery of his own appropriate authentic
   ways of teaching.[94]

These researchers stated that all the conditions were assessable but
items two through six were not measurable by traditional techniques.[95]
Therefore, the research studies which were reviewed at the beginning
of Chapter II used varieties of techniques and instrumentation
including interviews, sorting, and George Kelly's Role Concept Reper-
tory Test (Rep Test).

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[94]Combs et al., _Professional Education of Teachers_, p. 170.

[95]Ibid.

Interviews and Sorting

Using techniques, such as interviews and sorting, provided a
solution to the problem of tapping and identifying teacher conceptions.
Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel suggested the interview as a method for
collecting information about teacher conceptions, as they stated:

> . . . an interview methodology is a sensitive approach to the
> study of underlying constructs about teaching and learning
> that have visible counterparts in the classroom and that have
> a traceable continuity overtime.[96]

Bennett added support for the interview technique[97] while researchers
from the University of Wisconsin concurred with Hunt by illustrating
the usefulness of sorting.[98] Therefore, the present study used
sorting procedures within interviews as an instrument for gathering
information about teachers' conceptions of reading. The specific
sorting procedure used in the study was a modification of George
Kelly's Role Concept Repertory Test (Rep Test).

Rep Test

Wilcox and Hunt, who used transformations of the Rep Test to
identify conceptions, applied two distinctly different modifications
of the Rep Test in their respective fields of inquiry.

The purpose of the Wilcox study was to illustrate the uses of
further transformations of the Rep Test. Wilcox specifically used the

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[96]Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel, _Interview Study of Teachers'
Understandings_, p. 55.

[97]Bennett, _Teaching Styles and Pupil Progress_, p. 56.

[98]University of Wisconsin Instructional Research Laboratory,
"Elementary Teachers' Viewpoints of Classroom Teaching," p. 5.

Rep Test to see how stockbrokers made decisions but his central purpose was to illustrate a method to find out how people make choices. He developed an adaption of the Rep Test because:

1. Direct questions have limited usefulness as they are time consuming.

2. Assumptions (reasons behind decisions) were only partly conscious.

3. Answers to direct questions were not often put in concrete operational terms.

4. The role concept method asked the decision maker to draw from background experience.

5. In direct questioning, observer preconceptions and bias limited reliability.[99]

The Rep Test was an instrument that identified implicit conceptions which were tapped by direct interview questions.

In identifying teachers' conceptions of reading by direct questioning, there was the problem that the nature of the interview often influences the subjects' responses. Hunt and Wilcox both used variations of Kelly's Role Concept Repertory Test to identify conceptions with limited bias imposed by the researcher. Using the Rep Test forced subjects to generate conceptions in relationship to objects, students or stocks, about which they were familiar. The subjects responded in their own terminology which limited the influence of the interviewer.

The Rep Test as a method of requiring forced comparisons through triadic sorting had limitations. First, the conceptions elicited by the sorting were the true conceptions of the subject but

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[99]Jarrod W. Wilcox, _A Method for Measuring Decision Assumptions_ (Cambridge, Massachusetts: M.I.T., 1972), pp. 5-6, 41-42.

those conceptions forced by the sort. Secondly, there are problems in recording and reporting the data. Kelly originally proposed a grid[100] and Hunt categorized teachers' statements.[101] For the purpose of the study, Hunt's technique of statement categorization was closely allied to the content analysis used to examine the transcripts.

Summary of the Review of the Literature

The Review of the Literature provided a framework for the procedures used in the study. Because very little research was done to identify teachers' reading conceptions, literature on teachers' conceptions of teaching in general were examined followed by materials on teachers' conceptions of reading. Information from the studies done on teachers' conceptions of teaching can be helpful in attempting to tap teachers' reading conceptions. Next, four types of theoretical models were presented with possible classroom applications. Finally, information supporting the procedures of the study were examined.

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[100] George A. Kelly, The Psychology of Personal Constructs: A Theory of Personality, Vol. 1 (New York: W. W. Norton and Company, Inc., 1955), p. 268.

[101] Hunt, Teachers Are Psychologists, p. 5.

PROCEDURES

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to describe teacher conceptions of reading. More specifically, the study attempted to identify: (a) the ways in which teachers thought about reading; (b) classifications or patterns of teachers' reading conceptions; and (c) similarities that existed between the teachers' views of reading and some codified views of reading. To accomplish these tasks, a descriptive study was designed utilizing in-depth interviews and content analysis techniques to analyze the interview data.

Procedures

Population and Samples

To answer the research questions, twenty elementary teachers were interviewed using a modification of George Kelly's Role Concept Repertory Test. Ten of the teachers were from Ypsilanti Public Schools, Ypsilanti, Michigan, and ten of the teachers were from Warren Woods Public Schools, Warren, Michigan. The samples were drawn from selected populations on the basis of the following criteria:

1. Subjects' background of in-service training:

    a. Both districts have had continuous in-service training in reading for at least the past two years.

      b. The Ypsilanti in-service training has focused on the implementation of a continuum of reading skills.

      c. The focus of the Warren Woods in-service training has been toward reading as a communication process and as an interest.

2. Researcher's rapport with the subjects: according to Hunt, teachers have difficulty expressing their concerns and are more open with someone they know and trust.[1] Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the teachers and the interviewer had to have a good rapport. The investigator was familiar with the teachers in both districts.

The investigator selected the teachers from the Warren Woods and Ypsilanti school district who had received in-service reading training within the last two years. The samples of ten were suggested by Dr. William Schmidt of Michigan State University.[2]

The teachers were not selected randomly. Instead, they were all volunteers with similar concerns for reading instruction. Evidence of their concern for reading instruction was seen by their participation in local district reading in-service programs. The teachers volunteered to participate in the in-service programs and received financial remuneration, materials, and additional classroom assistance for their participation. Because of this participation, the teachers interviewed were similar to the sixty teachers interviewed by Bussis, Chittenden,

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[1] Interview with David E. Hunt, 31 January 1977.

[2] Interview with William Schmidt, Michigan State University, 23 November 1976.

and Amarel who stated, "The common denominator among these teachers was the fact that they were all seeking some form of assistance . . ."[3]

Two groups of teachers were selected for comparison because each group received in-service training reflecting different reading philosophies. The focus of the Ypsilanti in-service program was a systematic-linear skills instruction; the Warren Woods in-service focused on varieties of activities which integrate reading, language arts, and creative expression. For descriptions of the in-service programs, see Appendix B.

According to Glaser and Strauss, the use of comparison groups, such as the Ypsilanti teachers and the Warren Woods teachers, allowed the researcher to identify many properties and a broad range of indicators for the development of descriptive categories.[4] Because the purpose of the study was to identify teachers' reading conceptions and to categorize the conceptions, using the two groups of teachers with such different in-service training provided the research with a broad range of indicators similar to those described by Glaser and Strauss.[5]

As indicated in Table 1, most of the teachers taught at the primary levels. Two teachers from Ypsilanti taught first and second grade combinations while the rest taught in self-contained classrooms

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[3]Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel, _Interview Study of Teachers' Understandings_, p. 34.

[4]Glaser and Strauss, _Discovery of Grounded Theory_, p. 49.

[5]Ibid., p. 41.

Table 1.--Grade Level(s) Taught at the Time of the Interview.

Level(s)	WW	Y	Total
K	0	1	1
1	1	1	2
1-2	0	2	2
2	2	1	3
3	4	3	7
4+	3	2	5
	10	10	20

containing students of a single grade level. The teachers from both
school districts were experienced with all having taught more than
three years. Additionally, all of the teachers who participated in the
study were females because there were only three male participants in
the original in-service programs. The males were not asked to volunteer
as they were, at the time of the study, no longer involved in the
in-service program, teaching in secondary grades, or out of the class-
room working on the administrative level.

Data Collection

The data was collected using a modification of the Role Concept
Repertory Test (Rep Test) which was developed by George Kelly. The
following steps outline the procedure for the study:

Step 1: October-February

    IRT* interviewers and researchers used and developed
    a variety of sorting and questioning procedures prior
    to the pilot.

Step 2: Pilot Phase: February 28, 1977 - March 12, 1977

    a. Interviewed four teachers and modified procedures.
    b. Met with school district officials to clarify
       procedures.
    c. Scheduled interviews with teachers.

Step 3: Data Collection Phase: March 14, 1977 - April 30, 1977

    Interviewed teachers using the Rep Test and recorded
    responses on cassette tapes and interview guides.

Step 4: Data Analysis Phase: May 2, 1977 - July 30, 1977

    a. Transcribed tape interviews for analysis.
    b. Analyzed content of qualitative interview data.

Pilot and Modification Phase

Prior to the pilot phase of the study, teams of interviewers
from the Institute for Research on Teaching assisted the researcher by
interviewing teachers using a variety of sorting and questioning
procedures. From the initial interviews, the Pilot Instrument (see
Appendix A) was developed which combined key interview questions with
the triadic sorting procedures of the Rep Test. During the pilot phase,
four teachers were interviewed. As a result, the decision was made to
require the teachers to sort cards rather than work from class lists
and the Interview Guide was reduced in length because the information
received from the teachers became redundant. The reduction was two-
fold: (1) the teachers were asked to sort fifteen students instead of
the entire class; and (2) the number of questions was reduced. The

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*Institute for Research on Teaching, Michigan State University,
East Lansing, Michigan.

final Interview Guide (see Appendix A) used in the study was a result of the modifications performed during the Pilot Phase.

School District Procedures

Each school district had a specific research policy. To gain permission to interview the teachers in Warren Woods, the assistant superintendent approved a basic outline of the research design. In Ypsilanti, the proposal for the study had to be approved by a school district committee comprised of administrators, teachers, and representatives of the local education association.

Following the approval in each district, teachers who participated in the local in-service reading programs were contacted individually by the researcher and asked if they were willing to volunteer for an interview. No teachers declined to be interviewed. After the twenty volunteers were identified, interviews were scheduled at the convenience of the teachers.

Data Collection Period

The interviews were conducted during the teachers' workday but at released times with the exception of two teachers who had student teachers and felt free to be interviewed during class time.

Although Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel indicated that settings apart from the school in which the teachers worked "were more conducive to a leisurely, reflective pace because they were free from the intrusions and immediacy of school-related matters,"[6] most of the teachers

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[6]Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel, _Interview Study of Teachers' Understandings_, p. 42.

preferred their classrooms or the teachers' lounges for the interview setting.

The interviews lasted from 30 to 60 minutes. Although the format was the same for each interview, the time varied because some teachers volunteered more information or made statements which required more probing.

Modification of George Kelly's Role Concept Repertory Test (Rep Test)

The interviews utilized a nonscheduled standardized format which was based on George Kelly's Role Concept Repertory (Rep Test). The Rep Test was chosen as the basis of the interviews for three reasons. First, because the teachers used their own language to discuss their own pupils, the Rep Test had the advantage of being flexible enough to assist subjects in making their implicit conceptions explicit without imposing too much interviewer bias.[7] Both Hunt and Wilcox found the Rep Test to be an instrument which has as a strength the ability to elicit personal opinions, understandings, and concepts.[8,9] Second, because the Rep Test forces the subjects to focus on concrete terms, Hunt and Wilcox also found that the Rep Test did not lead their subjects to make unproductive responses.[10,11] Bussis, Chittenden, and

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[7]Hunt, _Teachers Are Psychologists_, p. 5.

[8]Ibid.

[9]Wilcox, _Measuring Decision Assumptions_, p. 5.

[10]Hunt, _Teachers Are Psychologists_, p. 5.

[11]Wilcox, _Measuring Decision Assumptions_, p. 5.

Amarel defined unproductive responses as those responses which were "too vague to be revealing."[12] Third, the Rep Test was used because it was flexible enough to be used for the exploratory probing that characterized nonscheduled standardized interview procedures which were necessary for the study. The importance of using interview procedures for identifying teachers' conceptions was presented by Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel when they stated:

> . . . the strength of the interview as a research instrument was equated with its ability to elicit personal opinions, knowledge, and understandings--the type of evidence necessary to obtain personal constructs and a construct system.[13]

The actual modification of the Rep Test used in this study was suggested by Hunt[14] and was different from both George Kelly's original Rep Test and from Hunt's own Rep Test modification in purpose and procedure. The Rep Test was originally created by Kelly to be used for psychological testing in clinical settings. In the original version, Kelly's subjects were asked to do triadic sortings of likes and differences according to stimulus questions.[15] Specifically, subjects were required to identify certain individuals who represented specified roles. Subsequently, modifications of the Rep Test were made by Hunt in educational psychology and Wilcox in business. Both modifications continued to use triadic sorting. Wilcox, however, used

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[12]Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel, _Interview Study of Teachers' Understandings_, p. 43.

[13]Ibid., p. 42.

[14]Hunt, Interview.

[15]Kelly, _Psychology of Personal Constructs_, pp. 219-68.

his version for describing the decision making procedures used by stock brokers[16] while Hunt used his modification as a means of getting teachers to look more closely at their children and to think about teaching practices within his Behavior-Person-Environment paradigm.[17]

For the purpose of this study, the Rep Test was further modified according to suggestions made by Hunt who recommended that the teachers first sorted the names of their students according to how the students received reading instruction, that they then were directed to speak to the interviewer as the pupils' teacher for the following school year, and that finally they did triadic sorting of pupils in terms of reading.[18] Hence, the procedures for administering the modification of the Rep Test, as it was used in this study, were as follows:

1. The subjects were asked to sort fifteen of their students according to how they receive reading instruction.

2. Following the sort, the subjects identified specific reasons for sorting pupils, such as diagnostic or grouping procedures. The teachers were then probed for more diagnostic or instructional information.

3. The subjects grouped three students together to identify two that were similar and one that was different in terms of reading successes, failures, habits, and interests. The

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[16]Wilcox, Measuring Decision Assumptions, p. 1.

[17]Hunt, Teachers Are Psychologists, p. 5.

[18]Hunt, Interview.

procedure was repeated five times after which the teacher identified two successful pupils and one unsuccessful pupil to compare. After noting the differences between the successful and unsuccessful pupils, the teachers were asked to identify the source of the success.

4. Finally, the subjects responded to specific directed questions posed by the interviewer (see Appendix A).

Teacher Identity

To protect the identity of the teachers and to respect their privacy in discussing very sensitive issues, each teacher was assigned an identification code which consisted of letters and numbers. All of the teachers from Warren Woods were assigned WW preceding a number. Similarly, the Ypsilanti teachers were assigned the letter Y. Numbers were assigned to each teacher according to the order of the interview. For example, the first Warren Woods teacher to be interviewed was WW#1 followed by WW#2, WW#3, and so on to WW#10. The same procedure was followed for the Ypsilanti teachers. When the teachers' quotations are included, the quotations are followed by the teachers' identification codes.

Data Analysis

The data of the study were the taped interviews which were transcribed. The transcripts ranged from seven to thirteen pages in length. Because the data were qualitative in the form of transcripts, content analysis was used to examine the data.

Using transcriptions of the interviews was different than the procedure used by Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel who analyzed the

actual tapes. They opposed the use of typed transcripts because the transcripts "fail to capture such rich qualities as the teacher's tone of voice, emphasis and hesitations."[19] Although Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel make a strong argument against transcribing tapes, for the purpose of this study, the transcripts provided a clearer content for analysis than the cassette tapes. The researcher believed that reading the transcripts was less subjective and easier to replicate than listening to tapes for tone of voice, emphasis, and hesitations.

Once the tapes were transcribed, content analysis as defined by Hayes, Krippendroff, and Alexander was begun. Hayes defined content analysis as "the determination of characteristics of a source from the natural-language utterances it emits."[20] Content analysis was further clarified by Krippendroff who stated that:

> . . . content analysis be restricted to the use of replicable and valid methods for making specific inferences from the text to other states and properties of its source.[21]

Additionally, Alexander defined content analysis by supporting qualitative content analysis. He stated that content analysis was employed as

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[19]Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel, _Interview Study of Teachers' Understandings_, p. 47.

[20]David G. Hayes, "Linguistic Foundations for a Theory of Content Analysis," in _The Analyses of Communication Content_, ed. George Gerbner, Ole R. Holsti, Klaus Krippendroff, William J. Palsey, and Philip J. Stone (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1969), p. 65.

[21]Klaus Krippendroff, "Models of Messages: Three Prototypes," in _The Analyses of Communication Content_, ed. George Gerbner et al. (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1969), p. 70.

a diagnostic tool for making inferences about some aspects of the speaker's purportive behavior.[22] Furthermore, he stated:

1. qualitative analysis of a limited number of crucial communications may often yield better clues to the particular intentions of a particular speaker.

2. the important fact about that content feature for his inference may merely be that it occurs at all within a prescribed communication.[23]

Pool supported Alexander by stating that qualitative or nonfrequency analysis can establish categories.[24]

Finally, Glaser and Strauss described the analysis of qualitative data using the Constant Comparative Method.[25] When using the method suggested by Glaser and Strauss, emerging data were continually fitted into existing categories or new categories were created.[26]

Therefore, the procedures of content analysis used in this study were derived from Hayes, Krippendroff, Alexander, and Glaser and Strauss. The procedures utilized coding schemes and qualitative analysis to make inferences from the interviews and to establish categories which allowed emerging data to fit and new categories to develop.

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[22]Alexander, "Approaches to Content Analysis," p. 7.

[23]Ibid., pp. 7 and 11.

[24]Ithiel De Sola Pool, "Trends in Content Analysis Today: A Summary," in Trends in Content Analysis, ed. Ithiel De Sola Pool (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1959), p. 191.

[25]Glaser and Strauss, Discovery of Grounded Theory, p. 105.

[26]Ibid.

Coding Schemes

The content analysis method employed in the study used coding schemes for producing descriptions as suggested by Garfinkel.[27] To produce descriptions which attempted to accurately identify teachers' conceptions of reading, coding schemes were empirically and theoretically derived similar to those used by Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel.[28]

Empirically derived coding schemes. The empirically derived coding schemes emerged from reading the transcripts similar to the suggestions of Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel,[29] Alexander,[30] and Glaser and Strauss.[31] From reading the transcripts, the teachers' responses were divided into the following groups which appeared to represent the way in which the teachers discussed reading and organized information about reading: (1) what the teachers said about grouping, the class, the children, and the reading program; (2) what the teachers said about instructional techniques and about reading in the content areas; and (3) what the teachers said about their beliefs concerning instructional needs, themselves, desired changes, successes, and beliefs. Within each of these three general groups of responses, descriptions were identified. For example, teachers said that they

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[27]Garfinkel, Studies in Ethnomethodology, p. 20.

[28]Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel, Interview Study of Teachers' Understandings, p. 46.

[29]Ibid.

[30]Alexander, "Approaches to Content Analysis," p. 24.

[31]Glaser and Strauss, Discovery of Grounded Theory, p. 105.

created instructional groups according to previous records, formal testing, informal testing, maturity, convenience, and performance. Therefore, an empirical coding scheme was developed in which the six teacher grouping procedures could be identified (see Appendix C). The information about grouping procedures was transferred to a coding sheet entitled "Groups Developed By" (see Appendix C), and the transcripts were examined for comments that would fit one of the six bases for grouping as described by the teachers. The results were then recorded on a grid which is presented in Appendix D. A similar procedure was followed to identify the teachers' reading programs, descriptions of their classes, children, teaching techniques, and their stated beliefs.

Following content analysis using the empirically derived coding schemes, a second type of content analysis was pursued. The second analysis utilized theoretically derived coding schemes.

Theoretically derived coding schemes. The theoretically derived coding schemes were developed to provide a frame of reference for the teachers' reading conceptions and to produce accurate descriptions of teacher conceptions of reading in order to answer the research questions: (1) In what ways can teachers' views be classified? and (2) Are the teachers' views similar to some codified models of reading? The theoretically derived coding schemes were developed from two sources. First, Hunt's B-P-E paradigm was used to determine if teachers viewed reading in terms of behavior (B), persons (P), or the environment (E).[32] Second, Singer and Ruddell's Theoretical Models

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[32]David E. Hunt, "Person-Environment Interaction: A Challenge Found Wanting Before It Was Tried," Review of Educational Research 45 (Spring, 1975):218.

and Processes of Reading, Second Edition, was used as a guide to deter-
mine if the teachers' conceptions of reading were similar to any of the
four types of models presented in the book. Bussis, Chittenden, and
Amarel stated that it was significant to note if there was no agree-
ment between the themes reflected by the teachers and the theoretical
viewpoints.[33]

    Using the Review of the Literature, a set of descriptors was
created that could be identified with Hunt's B-P-E Model and the four
models from Singer and Ruddell's Theoretical Models and Processes,
Second Edition (see Appendix C). Those descriptors were put on coding
sheets which were used to reexamine the findings of the empirically
derived coding schemes. For example, in Hunt's B-P-E paradigm E
represents descriptions of school environment. By reviewing the
results from the empirically derived coding schemes (see Appendix D),
only one teacher was found who made a statement about school environ-
ments.

Qualitative Analysis

    Once the coding schemes were devised and the coding sheets
constructed (see Appendix C), the transcripts were reread fifteen
times (one for each coding sheet). As the transcripts were read,
teachers' comments that reflected a specific issue were recorded on a
coding sheet. For example, as the teachers discussed the number of
instructional groups that they had, one teacher said, "I have three.
Doesn't everybody?" (WW#5) Therefore, on her coding sheet under

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    [33]Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel, Interview Study of Teachers'
Understandings, p. 46.

Description of Class, Groups, 3, "I have three. Doesn't everybody?" was written. This information was used in two ways: (1) the teachers' comments were used to elaborate on the findings in Chapter IV; and (2) in Coding Results (Appendix D), there was a check under WW#5 for three groups.

Categories

From the coding procedures, teachers were categorized according to what they said about their groups, classes, and children, what they said about instructional techniques, and what they said about their beliefs. That information is presented on tables in Chapter IV showing the number of teachers fitting into specific categories. Using those categories and the information about what teachers said, two summary categories were developed. The summary categories attempted to show the relative importance teachers place on human factors and production factors in reading and the types of cues teachers used in making decisions about reading.

<center>Summary</center>

This study consisted of the analysis of in-depth interviews which were conducted with teachers to determine their conceptions of reading. Through an analysis of what teachers said during the interviews, the research questions were answered by categorizing teacher responses and matching the teacher responses with codified models of reading.

The interviews were nonscheduled standardized interviews using a variation of the Rep Test which required teachers to sort

fifteen of their students and answer questions about reading. Because
the interview was of the nonscheduled standardized type, the teachers
periodically were asked probing questions to elicit further explana-
tions to their responses. Following the interviews, coding schemes
were employed to analyze the content of the interviews. Both
empirically and theoretically derived coding schemes were used to
develop descriptions.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to describe teachers' reading con-
ceptions which emerged from an analysis of in-depth interviews using
a modification of George Kelly's Role Concept Repertory test. The
findings were presented in three ways. First, the results of the
empirically and theoretically derived coding schemes were presented on
tables and supported by quotations. Secondly, answers to the research
questions are presented. Lastly, a brief discussion of the generali-
zability of the findings appears at the conclusion of the chapter.

Results of Coding Schemes

The sets of categories which emerged from the coding schemes
used to analyze the content of the teacher transcripts were presented
in two sections: findings from Empirically Derived Coding Schemes and
findings from Theoretically Derived Coding Schemes.

Findings From Empirically Derived
Coding Schemes

To present the findings of the empirically derived coding
schemes, categories of responses were used which represent what the

teachers said about grouping practices, the classroom organization, the
children, instructional practices, and their stated beliefs. Following
the information about what the teachers said, two summary categories
are described: orientations and decision stimuli. Orientations referred
to the teachers' emphasis on human factors and production factors when
discussing reading. Decision stimuli referred to the information
sources that the teachers described as being important when making
decisions about reading. Such information sources were learners,
materials, or self.

What the Teachers Said About
Grouping Practices

As the teachers sorted their pupils during the Rep Test,
they described six bases in which pupils were grouped for reading
instruction. An explanation of the six bases for grouping were
developed for presentation below.

Six Bases of Grouping

Previous records: Teachers examined records and report cards from
                     the previous school year.

Formal testing: Achievement tests results such as the Metropolitan
                     Achievement Test were used by the teachers to
                     determine instructional levels.

Informal testing: Graded oral reading paragraphs, locally con-
                     structed tests, and tests related to the materials
                     used in class were the informal measures used by
                     the teachers.

Maturity: Teachers made informal observations of the
                     pupils' behavior and development in relationship
                     to other children.

Convenience: Groups were developed according to numbers of
                     groups and children that the teacher could manage
                     efficiently.

Productivity: Groups were developed according to work habits, assignments outcomes, and rate of reading (the number of words read per minute).

Table 2 shows the number of teachers who stated that they used the six grouping bases, either alone or in combination. Four teachers devised groups by a combination of previous records and informal testing.

Table 2.--Method of Grouping.*

Groups Developed By	N
1. Previous Records	4
2. Formal Testing	6
3. Informal Testing	11
4. Maturity	1
5. Convenience	2
6. Productivity	5
7. Combinations	
a. Previous Records--Informal	4
b. Formal and Informal	2
c. Testing and Productivity	1
d. Maturity and Productivity	1

*Some teachers mentioned more than one method.

The teachers who used previous records stated that previous records were useful because the records identified a starting place for administering graded oral reading paragraphs. One teacher explained she usually had children start reading at the level indicated by the previous teacher and then added, "If they miss seven words on a page, then I move them down . . . and depending on how they read, I move them to another book or put them in that particular book" (WW #4). Conversely, another teacher opposed the use of previous records to avoid being prejudiced against the students (WW #1).

Some of the teachers did not do their own grouping but relied on a reading consultant or other outside sources. Teacher Eight from Warren Woods used the reading consultant to give graded oral reading paragraphs to her entire class but most of the teachers who used outside help for grouping did it only for specific students who had problems in reading.

Of the teachers who stated that the students were grouped according to convenience, one frankly said, "I really hate to handle more than four groups myself. It's frustrating (Y #10)." Her complaint was common and was reflected in the statements of six other teachers. They stated that it was difficult to work with the wide range of reading levels and problems found within their classrooms. The other teacher who grouped because of convenience at the beginning of the year found it necessary to regroup as the children became more independent in their reading (Y #1).

Those who based grouping arrangements on work habits used distinctive formats. Although one teacher used a variety of diagnostic procedures in the Fall, her two instructional groups were distinguished by students who worked independently and those who had difficulty working independently.(Y #4). She instructed the children who could work independently and gave them weekly assignments. The students who had difficulty working independently met daily with the teacher's student teacher. Another teacher who used productivity as a basis for her reading groups used student performances on weekly spelling lists and accompanying worksheets as criteria for a group placement. Following the introduction of the weekly list containing words with regular phonic patterns (such as pan, fan, ran), the teacher says, "Who needs help with

it?" From the responses to that question, the groups and activities for the week were developed (Y #5). In another classroom where productivity was cited by the teacher as being a key factor in grouping practices, the speed (words per minute) at which the students read selected passages was the basis on which grouping and instructional assignments were made (WW #10).

What Teachers Said About
Classroom Organization

The teachers discussed classroom organization in relationship to grouping practices. When grouping practices and classroom organization were explained by the teachers, the number and types of groups emerged as important issues. Twelve teachers did not have the traditional three group patterns but used a variety of grouping combinations including basal groups, flexible skill groups, and individualized instruction. Five teachers (WW #2, #3, #4, #6, and #9) had three groups. Prior to the interview, Warren Woods #6 said, "I have three groups. Doesn't everybody?" Three teachers (WW #2 and #4 and Y #7) who described their classes as being organized around basal reading levels commented that all the children within each basal group were not on the same instructional level. Those teachers mentioned that the students whom they considered to be the most able and had reading levels well above the majority of their classmates were put in a basal reader one grade level above their grade placement. The numbers in Table 3 represented the teachers' descriptions of their classroom organization which included information on the number and types of groups.

Table 3.--Classroom Organization.

Organization	N
Number of Groups:	
More than 3	10
3	5
Less than 3	2
Individualized	10
Combination	7
Range--Many instructional levels within the class	6
Flexible groups--Frequently regrouped	6
Grouped according to:	
Skill	7
Instructional level	9
Not all group members are on the same level	3

When describing the numbers and types of groups, the teachers' comments reflected both personal opinions as well as some local issues. For example, five Ypsilanti teachers had flexible skill groups as opposed to one Warren Woods teacher. This was attributable to the fact that flexible grouping (the practice of regrouping as children master skills) was an integral part of the Ypsilanti in-service program. Another example of a local issue was a complaint registered by a Warren Woods teacher (WW #1). She wanted Joplin plan grouping but such an organizational pattern was against school district policy.

In explaining the reasons behind the number of instructional groups, some teachers referred back to their diagnostic information while others stated opinions which gave insights about their concep- tions of reading. Warren Woods #1, who was the previously-mentioned proponent of the Joplin Plan, stated that on the basis of diagnostic tests given at the beginning of the year she divided her class into

two groups. The top group was individualized and included "anybody who scores middle second grade or above." The lower group was sent to the reading resource teacher. Another teacher stated that the three groups of first grade children represent "nonreaders, ready to read, and learned to read (WW #9)." Within the "learned to read" group, there were some children who learned to read with some kind of reading instruction and other children who learned naturally or without instruction, according to the teacher.

The term "individualized" needed clarification as teachers tended to operationalize the term in different ways. Some described instruction as being individualized when all students were doing the same types of activities but at different rates (WW #10 and Y #6). For example, a class was described as doing "individualized basal" work (Y #6). After probing, the "individualized-basal" technique was described as allowing students to proceed through basals at paces selected by the students. Similarly, another teacher upon completion of the initial sort, had one pile of cards in which the students were arranged in order of their reading rate (reading speed) because the teacher stated that she individualizes according to the rate at which the students proceed through activities such as a speed reading machine, the <u>S.R.A. Reading Laboratory</u>, and <u>Reader's Digest Skill Builders</u> (WW #10). Basically, all of the children were doing the same activities and using the same material. Four other teachers described individualized instruction as allowing student self-selection and including varieties of activities according to pupil needs and interests (WW #3, WW #9, Y #3, and Y #8).

Although the basal textbooks were the primary instructional tools used by the teachers, they described varying activities which were used to supplement basal teaching or were used instead of basals. However, diverse patterns developed which illustrated that the teachers used different activities with children of different reading levels. Table 4 illustrated the activities used with high, middle, and low groups.

The majority of teachers tended to use the same general types of activities with students of different levels. Six teachers stated that they used different types of activities while fourteen teachers used the same types of activities with children of different reading levels. The designations of "different" or "same" were difficult to identify and may have reflected a bias of the researcher concerning definition of different activities. To illustrate the point, an excerpt from a teacher transcript is used:

Interviewer: . . . What are you doing with the four groups?
Teacher: Well, I'm doing something different with each group
      (Y #7).

After explaining the instructional activities for each, the teacher was asked to identify the source of material and responded:

Teacher: Whatever is along with the <u>Teacher's Guide</u>.
Interviewer: Are you using a basal?
Teacher: Yes (Y #7).

Although the teacher stated that each group was doing different activities, a basal textbook still remained the key instructional tool for all groups as the teacher had all four instructional groups in different basal textbooks and followed the plans presented in the Teacher's Guide. She did not create new activities for the groups or vary her overall instructional techniques other than those techniques

Table 4.--Activities for Groups.

	High Readers	Middle Readers	Low Readers
WW_1	Individualized		Reading Teacher
WW_2	Basals		1.
WW_3	Self-selection	Basals	Basals
WW_4	Basals	Basals	Basals (More oral reading)
WW_5	Basals	Basals	Basals
WW_6	Basals	Basals	Basals
WW_7	(Less oral reading) Basals		
WW_8	Basals	Basals	(Individualized language arts)
WW_9	(Self-selection, individualized oral reading)	Language experience	Listening, awareness, perception, coordination
WW_{10}	Speed readers and kits		2.
Y_1	Basals	Basals	Listening and language experience
Y_2	Basals	Basals	Basals
Y_3	Language experience, research skills, self-selection		2.
Y_4	Contracts		3.
Y_5	Contracts		2.
Y_6	Individualized-basal		2.
Y_7	Basals	Basals	Basals
Y_8	Individualized (self selection)	Basals	Basals
Y_9	Skill groups		2.
Y_{10}	Basals	Basals	Basals

1. One child has programmed materials.
2. Same general procedures for different groups or individuals.
3. Weekly or daily contracts developed according to work habits.

prescribed in the teachers' edition of the basal textbooks. Furthermore, she was one of the teachers who had a top reading group that included students having a wide range of high instructional reading levels.

Warren Woods #3 and #9 and Ypsilanti #3 and #8 indicated that they used self-selection for students who have mastered reading skills. The children who have mastered reading skills, according to the teachers, selected their own reading material and met with the teacher individually for conferences regarding the reading material. One of the teachers was a sixth grade teacher while the others were primary teachers.

What Teachers Said About
Instructional Techniques

In examining the instructional techniques described by the teachers, the basals appeared to influence the teachers more than in-service training and seemed to cause internal conflicts within teachers regarding instructional practices. For example, although Warren Woods has changed basal series from a phonics oriented basal series in the primary grades to a more comprehensive basal series and has had in-service training focusing on language development, creative expression and comprehension rather than phonics, half of the teachers referred to the previous basal and were using parts of the materials from the original basal readers. In fact, when one teacher (WW #9) who continued to use the previous basal was asked if it corresponded with her philosophy of reading, she responded that it did not. Similarly, in Ypsilanti, a teacher (Y #1) taught readiness skills from Scott Foresman prior to a recent first grade adoption of Houghton-Mifflin and a kindergarten adoption of Ginn. The teacher stated that

all of the readiness ideas were important from each reading program and that she teaches all of them to the children as she did not want the children to miss any skills. Specifically, she said that she teaches all of the readiness skills from the three publishers. From her explanation, there appeared to be no integration of skills from basal to basal.

When the teachers described the ways in which the basals were used, they focused on the basal plus comprehension or the basal plus phonics. Thirteen teachers discussed emphasizing the phonics instructional components of the basals or supplementing the basal work with additional phonetic drill. Sixteen teachers discussed comprehension activities related to the basal. There was some overlap. Warren Woods Five, who had all of her students in basals, identified her pupils according to their comprehension or phonetic strengths and weaknesses.

Despite the different in-service emphasis in the two districts, most of the instructional techniques described by the twenty teachers were similar. Only two local issues emerged during discussions of instructional techniques: skill hierarchies and contracts, both of which were covered in the Ypsilanti in-service. Four Ypsilanti teachers referred to hierarchies. Although two of these teachers did not use hierarchies for instructional purposes, the teachers mentioned that skill hierarchies were a guide to which they could refer (Y #1 and Y #3). Three Ypsilanti teachers used contracts but the contracts were directed toward work schedules or spelling, not specifically reading. For example, some weekly and daily contracts were developed because of work habits (Y #4), some because of spelling performance (Y #5), and some to keep track of pupil pace through the basal (Y #6).

The remaining thirteen teachers who did not use contracts and the three teachers who used skill hierarchies used similar techniques, such that their descriptions of instructional techniques appeared to be common across school districts despite different in-service training. A possible explanation for the commonality of techniques between districts was the use of the same basals in both districts.

Table 5 was used to present the types of instructional techniques described by the teachers.

As previously noted, sixteen teachers identified comprehension as an important instructional technique. In fact, a teacher said, "It doesn't matter if you can call a word. If you don't understand what you're reading, it's useless" (Y #8). Although the teachers did identify comprehension as an instructional technique, they did not identify inferential or evaluative thinking as components of comprehension. Eight teachers discussed following directions as a separate comprehension skill and sixteen teachers discussed literal comprehension. Comprehension appeared to be defined by the teachers during the interviews as a general understanding of a story or answering questions.

The teachers who used spelling as an integral part of their reading programs discussed the relationship between spelling and phonics instruction. Specifically, one teacher (Y #5) used performance on spelling lists and worksheets as the basis for all reading instruction. Another teacher said:

> I believe in phonics because it's the foundation to reading and spelling. I can't spell well but since I've been teaching reading my spelling has improved (WW #6).

Writing was an instructional technique that two teachers said they used in teaching reading, in addition to four teachers who used

Table 5.--Instructional Techniques.*

Technique	N
Kits	6
Phonics	11
Writing	5
Choral Reading	1
Spelling	10
Machines	2
Language experience approach	4
Sight words	11
Comprehension	16
Research skills/study skills	4
Following directions	8
Contracts	3
Trade books	6
Movement--exercise, balance	1
Listening	4
Skill hierarchies	4
Sustained silent reading	3
Self-selection	6

*One teacher identified her instructional practices as multi-media and used eleven of the above techniques. Also, some teachers identified materials such as kits and trade books as techniques.

forms of the language experience approach. The use of writing as part
of reading was clearly separated from the language experience approach.
Teachers who used the language experience approach either specifically
stated that they used the language experience approach or mentioned
dictations. When the two teachers (WW #2 and Y #5) discussed using
writing, they spoke of mechanical tasks, such as copying poetry or
drilling on punctuation. The emphasis on the mechanical aspects of
writing persisted despite the fact that teachers from both school
districts had received in-service training utilizing creative expres-
sion.

Eleven teachers described their pupils according to their
reliance on sight words. For example, Warren Woods #5 called a student
"a sight word reader" and Ypsilanti #9 said that her faster children
"filled quite a stack of sight words." However, the teachers did not
describe how they taught sight words.

While six teachers discussed using trade books, four of the six
teachers described pupil self-selection as a teaching technique and
expressed a desire for more trade books. Those teachers using self-
selection noted that their students had mastered enough reading skills
to be independent readers. Two teachers regarded reading trade books
as something to occupy free time.

Oral reading. Oral reading was an instructional technique that
received attention although only three teachers identified oral reading
as a key element of their instructional program. In fact, two teachers
commented that they were trying to do less. The teachers who identi-
fied oral reading as an instructional practice used it in a variety of

ways. Three teachers used more or less oral reading depending on the

child's reading competence. For example, poor readers had more oral

reading than good readers (WW #4). Four others used oral reading

for evaluation or practice. Ypsilanti #3 used oral reading to check

pupil progress while Ypsilanti #7 explained that oral reading was a way

that student practiced reading for improvement. Three teachers were

particularly strong in their statements concerning oral reading as seen

in the following quotations:

> Y 7: They're oral reading. I have everyone of my kids
> everyday read orally because I think that's very
> important. So what if they can read with their eyes?
> How do we know if they're reading the right words,
> you know?

> Y 10: We read orally around the class, one sentence at a
> time so that everybody tries. A lot of people will
> miss on words and things, but it keeps moving, and
> it keeps them following along . . .

> WW 4: I do oral reading two ways. I have eight tutors and
> they listen to the kids read . . . and . . . I
> usually do only the four low kids who need that
> oral-type reading.

For the children in the classrooms of the teachers quoted above, oral

reading was a daily occurrence. The numbers in Table 6 illustrate

the uses of oral reading in instruction as described by the teachers.

Content area reading. A discussion of the use of reading in

the content areas gave insight about the teacher's views of reading

as an integrated process. Five teachers did not refer to reading in

any content area. In Warren Woods, one teacher (WW #9) spoke of the

content areas in general while the other fourteen teachers who men-

tioned reading in the content areas identified specific areas. For

example, the Warren Woods teachers only discussed spelling, writing,

Table 6.--Oral Reading.

Oral Reading	N
Occurs daily with each child	3
Less than daily	3
With certain children	3
To tutors	1
For evaluation	2
For practice	2
For descriptions of the children	2
Would like to do less	2
Did not mention oral reading	9

and creative dramatics which were all to be considered within language arts while the Ypsilanti teachers mentioned social studies, science, math along with language arts. Insights regarding teachers' conceptions of reading in the content areas were gained by examining some teacher comments about reading in the content areas. For example, a teacher (Y #10) discussed reading in the content areas as a way to build vocabulary and gain information. The teacher (Y #1) who identified math was comparing the math performance of a child to his reading performance, and said, ". . . there must be a relationship."

The school districts were viewed separately since local issues emerged during the teachers' discussions of reading in the content areas. Because the Warren Woods in-service program focused on integrating language arts and reading and the Ypsilanti in-service contained a component in which reading in all the content areas was discussed, the teachers' responses reflected the differences in training. To illustrate what the teachers said about the teaching of reading in the content areas, Table 7 contains the numbers of teachers

Table 7.--Content Area Reading.[a]

Content Area Reading	Warren Woods (N)	Ypsilanti (N)
Content area in general	1	0
Language Arts	6	2
Spelling	6	4
Writing	3	2
Creative dramatics[b]	2	2
Social Studies	0	2
Science	0	3
Math	0	1

[a]Some teachers responded to more than one area; and five teachers did not mention content area.

[b]Creative dramatics as defined by some teachers was doing the plays in the basals.

from each district who discussed content area reading as an instructional practice.

To review instructional techniques, the findings indicated: (1) teachers interviewed used a variety of materials and techniques but basals seemed to be the most important instructional tool; (2) teachers interviewed limit comprehension to questions at the literal level; (3) phonics and spelling instruction were considered to be more important than teaching sight words; (4) oral reading seemed important to three of the twenty teachers interviewed; and (5) reading instruction occurred within the content areas of fifteen of the teachers interviewed.

What Teachers Said About
Parent Role

Because the teachers' transcripts contained many references to the home and parents, parents were considered to be within viewpoints

of reading. Some teachers included parents as part of their instruc-

tional programs by utilizing parents as tutors while other teachers

used parents for support through communication and positive reinforce-

ment of the teachers' attitudes, pupils' attitudes, and teachers'

instructional goals. When a teacher was asked to note if the inter-

viewer missed anything about her beliefs about reading, she responded:

> Well, one thing, I do believe that it does, it starts in the
> home, and I can really tell the kids whose parents will really
> sit down and take time to read with the kids, read to them,
> listen to the kids read, or just really spend a lot of time
> with the kids. I think it is very important (Y #2).

To add support, another teacher (Y #8) said that it took six years

of schooling to help a child catch up if the parents did not actively

participate in reading early at the home. Two teachers (WW #4 and

Y #4) stated that they depended on home support through weekly communi-

cations; one of those teachers (WW #4) felt that her reading program was

faltering because the parents were not responding to her communications.

The parent-home role was presented in Table 8.

Table 8.--Parent-Home Role.

Parent-Home Role	N
Parent serves as classroom aide	2
Influence--attitude	9
Home tutor--after school assistance	2
Foundations--read at home, provide experiences	7

How the Teachers Described
the Children

Because the responses to the Rep Test focused on comparing

children, the teachers described their students in ways which provide

insights about their conceptions of reading. The descriptions can be categorized into descriptions of personal traits and descriptions of instructional performance. Descriptions of personal traits focused on such attributes as age, self-image, economic background, health, and many other descriptions that can be applied outside of instructional settings. Conversely, descriptions of instructional performance were attributes, such things as work habits, reading level, needs practice, and other terms used within instructional settings. The teachers used more descriptions of personal traits than instructional traits when comparing the children. In Table 9, the categories of personal traits and instructional performance are presented with corresponding attributes. The number of teachers responding to each attribute is given.

Combinations of attitude, work habits, and independent were used by the teachers thirteen times to describe children. They often referred to children as "good little workers," "liking to work," or "independent workers." After describing her students as good, independent, or capable workers, a teacher said, "Okay, my goal is kids being able to use reading to work independently. My aim is to really make them functionally independent . . ." (WW #2).

Teachers who appeared to be committed to the basals identified their students according to the grade level or reading level. They said that the child was "a strong third grade reader," "a weak third grade reader," or "a good solid third grade reader." Although teachers described the children according to reading or grade levels, only one teacher (Y #7) identified children according to their relative position within a group. For example, when she described three boys she said,

Table 9.--Descriptions of Children.

Description	N
Personal Traits	
Self-image	8
Social-emotional	6
Race	1
Age	4
Language--Language development	10
Economic	3
Creative ability	1
Potential	3
Maturity	5
Health	4
Attitudes	14
Intelligence	2
Interest	6
Home life	9
Discipline problem	4
Motivation/Self-discipline	5
Leader	1
Frustrating	1
Shy	2
Instructional Performance	
Work habits	11
Independent[a]	10
Achievement	1
Needs one to one work with teacher	6
Learning styles	1
Attention span	1
Reading/Grade level	5
Fits into group	1
Needs encouragement	4
Needs rewards	4
Needs practice	5
Natural readers[b]	4

[a]Independent was defined by the teachers as the ability to work without assistance.

[b]Four of the teachers identified students as natural readers who learned without instruction.

". . . are really at the top of that group" and "he's in the low group, the lowest group I have but he's the top one in that group."

Because teachers simultaneously described children in terms of personal traits and instructional performance, it was difficult to categorize them into two clearly definitive groups. However, some teachers reused specific descriptions a sufficient number of times to categorize them as having tendencies toward conceptualizing reading through either personal or instructional descriptions of children. For example, some teachers emphasized the home, family life, health, or intelligence of the students as being such major factors influencing the pupils' reading that the teachers appeared to have little or no impact on the children's reading progress. The teachers who relied heavily on such personal traits did not describe themselves as being in control of reading instruction. For example, a teacher (Y #2) who stated that she believed that the home was an important factor influencing reading success was asked what she needed to help the children who were having difficulty and she responded, "The answer." She further explained, "It starts in the home, and I can really tell the kids whose parents will really sit down and take time to read to them . . ." Conversely, teachers who tended to dwell on instructional performance seemed to be saying that they were in control and could teach reading. Specifically, a teacher (Y #5) who described children primarily in instructional terms said, "There's always a way to teach reading to somebody."

What Teachers Said About
Their Stated Beliefs

Throughout the interviews, the teachers interjected their
beliefs by prefacing certain comments with "I believe," or "I think," or
similar statements. In addition, twice during the interviews, they
were asked if anything important concerning their beliefs about
reading was omitted from the discussion. The information that was
obtained from the interjected beliefs and questions concerning their
beliefs are reflected in the following three categories: human;
environmental; and material-technique. Teachers who could be classi-
fied as having human belief orientations stated that the attitudes of
parents, teachers, and pupils influenced reading. Those teachers who
had environmental orientations primarily stressed the home, although
one teacher discussed the size of the school as having an impact on
reading. Classrooms were not included in the environmental category
as classroom environments were not mentioned by any of the teachers.
Those teachers who referred to materials and techniques in stating
their beliefs seemed to be supporting their own instructional programs.

Some comments did not adequately fit into the three categories.
One teacher (Y #6) stated that she did not know what she believed.
Three teachers discussed reading as a foundation for school and life
success (Y #1, Y #4, and WW #7). Similarly, three teachers added that
reading was something applied to other curricular areas (WW #2, WW #10,
and Y #4).

Table 10 was used to present the numbers of teachers who
selected attributes within human, environmental, material-techniques,
and other categories to describe their beliefs about reading.

Table 10.--Stated Beliefs.*

Belief	N
Human	
Teacher attitudes	1
Parental attitudes	7
Student attitudes	7
Learning styles	2
Environmental	
Home	4
School	1
Materials-Technique	
Basal	3
Phonics	7
Self-selection	1
Skills	1
Comprehension	2
Hierarchies	2
Research	1
Sight words	2
Writing	1
Speed	1
Literature	1
Multi-media approach	2
Other	
Foundation (for life)	3
Application (for school success)	3
I don't know	1

*Some teachers gave multiple responses.

Of teachers discussing human belief orientations, only one
(Y #9) discussed the teacher's attitudes. After discussing learning
styles, she said, "Well, I guess one thing I like to think of is
humaneness. That's the key word. I think if I'm humane . . . even in
reading, it comes easier." The other teachers who were identified as
having human belief orientations discussed pupil and parent attitudes.

As an example of teachers believing in reading as a foundation,
a teacher (Y #4) said, "Well, my philosophy in reading is that it is a
very important skill . . . I feel that getting a good start is
important." A good start was important because, she noted, it was the
basis for success in junior high and high school. She continued, "I am
not a believer in the sight vocabulary nor in just phonics, but I have
a blend of both because of the children and the way we learn."

Additional information emerged from combining categories. For
example, the human, environmental, and material-techniques orientations
were combined for a reexamination of the data. From this reexamination,
teachers were found to reflect a single orientation toward attitudes,
environments, and materials-techniques, or combinations of two or three
of the orientations. For example, seven teachers' beliefs focused
only on material-technique orientations while five had a combined
orientation of human-materials. To illustrate the orientations,
Table 11 was constructed. The primary orientation of the teachers'
beliefs was toward materials and techniques. When teachers discussed
their beliefs in terms of materials-techniques, they were usually
defending their instructional procedures or materials. Although two
teachers (WW #2) and (WW #9) stated that they did not believe in the

Table 11.--Belief Orientations.

Orientation	N
Single Orientation	
Human	3
Environment	0
Materials-techniques	7
Combined Orientations	
Human-environment	1
Environment-materials	1
Human-materials	5
Human-materials-environment	3
	20

types of materials they were using, the materials helped them reach their instructional goals.

Needed for a successful reading program. As teachers discussed their beliefs about reading, they suggested two types of improvements: desired changes and needs. The teachers who stated that they wanted to incorporate changes in their instructional practices referred to self-improvements or modifications in their own teaching strategies. Ypsilanti #1 said, ". . . I'm trying to do less oral reading." Others wanted to individualize, improve their organization and management techniques, or initiate diagnostic-prescriptive practices. For example, a teacher explained she wanted to provide challenges for the students and an informal atmosphere in which they could work independently on skills prescribed after a diagnosis (Y #8). The teachers who stated specific needs identified items outside of the teachers' control. For example, those teachers cited administrative changes in class size, tracking

procedures, or in remediation, readiness, and retention policies, hiring of additional paraprofessionals, and purchasing of materials such as more basals, co-basals, phonics materials, hardware, kits, and activities as being necessary for improvement.

The teachers who discussed grouping or tracking, class size reductions, and paraprofessionals seemed to reflect the undergirding belief that time was an important factor. With tracking, class size reductions, or paraprofessionals, they said they could spend more instructional time with their students. Specifically, a teacher who identified tracking as necessary for improvement stated that with tracking she would have more time to be with those students who need help (WW #8). Another teacher who supported tracking explained that she would need less planning time and therefore spend more time with the children (Y #7). Further, a teacher who requested smaller class size stated that having a smaller class would allow her to spend more time with individual pupils (WW #8).

In citing the need for more materials, the teachers did not appear to consider existing materials. For example, a teacher (WW #9) stated that she was opposed to the materials of a publisher which had a phonics orientation. However, to improve her reading program, she requested materials from a second publisher having an equally heavy emphasis on phonics.

Stated beliefs about self as a reading teacher. The needs that the teachers cited for improvement grew out of expressed feeling about themselves as teachers. Fifteen of the teachers discussed their feeling about themselves as reading teachers. Thirteen had negative

feelings. In Table 12, the expressed feeling of the teachers were presented.

Table 12.--Thoughts About Self as a Teacher.

Thoughts About Self	N
Overwhelmed	1
Powerless	3
Guilty	2
Unhappy	1
Frustrated	3
Overworked	1
Unrealistic Expectations	1
Excited	2
Doing a Better Job	1
	15

The teachers who were overwhelmed and overworked complained again of the lack of time to adequately prepare materials and meet the needs of the children. Specifically, one teacher said,

> Well, I'm overwhelmed by the things in the teacher's edition.
> If I did all of that stuff, it would take weeks to do a
> story. As I am doing now, I do a story in one day (Y #7).

Frustrated teachers felt that it was difficult to meet the needs of the children. Warren Woods One was frustrated by children who did not do well in both reading and math, although she was not as frustrated in reading. When teachers expressed guilt and unhappiness, they were referring to their way of handling the materials and teaching the materials. For example, Ypsilanti One felt guilty that she was not using materials prepared by her fellow workshop participants. A teacher (WW #2) who had unrealistic expectations moved from sixth to fourth grade and from a middle class-white collar school to a middle class-blue collar school and she felt that she had difficulty making

the transition. Both of the excited teachers and the teacher who said that she was doing a better job identified their in-service training as the reason for positive feelings about their teaching (Y #1 and Y #4).

Reasons for instructional successes. Finally, from a discussion of their beliefs, the teachers identified reasons for success. Eight teachers attributed reading success to the children themselves. But in identifying the children as the source of success, four teachers said that certain children learned to read naturally without instruction. Seven teachers attributed success to a technique while four teachers could not identify the source of success. As an example of many of the teachers' comments, a teacher said:

> Okay, Jonathon has made a great deal of improvement but I'm not sure if it is the technique that I'm using, or if it is due to the fact that he is getting a lot of individualized attention, or if it is due to some skill that he has, I really don't know (Y #4).

Only one teacher (WW #5) attributed success to herself as a teacher.

Summary of stated beliefs. From a review of the teachers' stated beliefs, teachers focused their beliefs on humans (parents, students, or themselves), on environments (home or school--not the classroom) and on material or techniques. They did not relate their stated beliefs directly to the reading process. When they stated that they believed in specific materials or techniques, it was to justify their own instructional practices. Changes that the teachers desired were internal (self-improvement) or external (administrative or material changes). Most of the teachers were negative about themselves as reading teachers and attributed reading successes to children or techniques rather than self.

Summary Categories

From the findings of the empirically derived coding schemes, teachers were categorized according to orientations and decision stimuli. Orientations referred to teacher emphasis on either human or production factors. Specifically, as teachers discussed their students, reading, and classroom practices, some teachers emphasized attitude/ interest, language, home/family, and intelligence while other teachers emphasized skill acquisition, work habits, developing independence, or performance, such as oral reading. Decision stimuli referred to the cues teachers appeared to use in making instructional decisions. Teachers tended to make reading decisions based on the children, the materials, or themselves.

Orientations. As teachers discussed their students, reading, and classroom practices, they seemed to emphasize human factors and production factors. Four human factors were attitude/interest, language, home/family, and intelligence. Factors identified as production factor containing three attributes. Table 13 represented the number of teachers mentioning each attribute. Although all twenty the human factor category containing four attributes; and the production factor containing three attributes. Table 13 represents the number of teachers mentioning each attribute. Although all twenty teachers related that the learning of skills was important, not all of the teachers mentioned all of the production factors. Similarly, not all of the teachers mentioned all of the human factors; therefore, the teachers were divided into those who had high, moderate, or low

Table 13.--Human Factors and Production Factors.*

	Human Factors			
	Attitude-Interest	Home-Family	Language	Intelligence
Warren Woods	6	4	8	5
Ypsilanti	4	7	3	3

	Production Factors		
	Learning Skills	Developing Independence	Work Habits
Warren Woods	10	5	8
Ypsilanti	10	5	6

*Some teachers mentioned more than one factor.

production orientations or high, moderate, and low human orientations. The following criteria were used to determine the degree of production and human orientations:

Production and Human Orientations

High production teachers: Concerned that children acquire skills, develop independence, and have good work habits. Described children in terms of productivity such as good work habits, reads well orally, finishes work, etc.

Moderate production teachers: Mentioned two of the attributes identified for production.

Low production teachers: Identified only one or none of the production attributes.

High human teachers: Concerned with all of the human attributes which include attitudes--interests, home and family, language, and intelligence.

Moderate human teachers: Mentioned two or three of the attributes.

Low human teachers: Emphasized one or no human attributes.

Table 14 presents the number of teachers holding combined orientations.

Table 14.--Combined Orientations.

Production	Human	N
High production	High human	1
High production	Moderate human	6
High production	Low human	1
Moderate production	High human	0
Moderate production	Moderate human	3
Moderate production	Low human	5
Low production	High human	0
Low production	Moderate human	3
Low production	Low human	1
		20

The orientation which appeared to be most frequently emphasized was the high production--moderately human; the responses of six teachers fell within that orientation.

Decision stimuli. When the teachers described their instructional practices, three stimuli emerged as being used by teachers as cues for making decisions. The three stimuli were the students' personal traits and instructional performance; materials; and the teacher. The decision stimuli identified as materials generally referred to basal texts which were the primary types of instructional

reading materials used by the teachers, although some teachers used spelling materials as a decision source. Because of textbook adoption policies, both school districts used basals from the same publishers. When relying on themselves for instructional decisions, the teachers used either their beliefs or intuition. No one mentioned that their knowledge of the reading process influenced their instructional practices which was probably due to this modification of the Rep Test.

All of the teachers used their students as cues for making decisions about instructional practices. Teachers placed the emphasis either on the students' instructional performance or the students' personal traits, with ten teachers relying on instructional performance and ten relying on personal traits. In Table 15, the number of teachers who relied on personal traits and instructional performance were presented.

Table 15.--Personal Traits and Instructional Performance.

	Personal Traits	Instructional Performance	Equal Emphasis
Warren Woods	4	6	0
Ypsilanti	3	4	3
Total	7	10	3

Five of the teachers who emphasized instructional performance over personal traits were the same teachers who fell within the high production category (see Table 14).

Some teachers tended to use only the students as cues for making instructional decisions while others used combinations of the

students and materials or self. Two teachers (WW #2 and Y #1) used a combination of all three as cues for making decisions about instructional practices. Many teachers mentioned more than one decision cue. Ypsilanti Ten was categorized as using intuition because she said that she taught reading "like she plays bridge--off the top of her head." The numbers on Table 16 represent the number of teachers who mentioned each stimulus.

Table 16.--Decision Stimuli Mentioned by Teachers.

Stimuli	N
Learner	
Personal traits	15
Instructional performance	2
Equal emphasis	3
Materials	
Basals	10
Spelling	2
Kits	1
Self	
Knowledge	0
Beliefs	5
Intuition	1

The numbers on Table 17 represented how the teachers used the decision stimuli in combination.

Table 17.--Decision Stimuli Used by Teachers.

Stimuli	N
Only students as cues	5
Students and materials	9
Students and self	4
Students, materials, and self	2

Summary of the Empirically
Derived Findings

The findings from the empirically derived coding schemes indicated that the teachers discussed reading according to descriptions of grouping practices, of their instructional techniques, and of their children in addition to stating their beliefs about reading, desired changes, self as a reading teacher, and instructional successes. From those descriptions, two summary categories of orientations and decision stimuli emerged. The high production-moderately human orientation was the most popular and was held by six teachers. In making decisions about reading, nine teachers relied on a combination of students and materials as cues for reading decisions.

Findings from Theoretically
Derived Coding Schemes

The findings from the theoretically derived coding schemes were developed after rereading the transcripts and examining the findings of the empirically derived coding schemes. The first group of categories derived from the theoretical coding schemes were from Hunt's B-P-E Paradigm. Next, a second group emerged which related to four models of reading presented in Singer and Ruddell's Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading, Second Edition.

Hunt's B-P-E Paradigm

The transcripts and previous findings were reviewed to look for descriptions of behaviors, persons, environments, and relationships between those three characteristics in the manner described by Hunt. The empirically derived teacher orientations showed that teachers viewed reading in terms of human and production orientations. The

human and production orientations were similar to Hunt's person and behavior descriptions presented in Chapters II and III and Appendix C. As was previously described, the category labeled as "high performance-moderate human" received the largest number of teacher responses. Thus, from the teachers' descriptions, a relationship seemed to exist between behaviors and persons because teachers most frequently described their students in terms of a combination of instructional performance, work habits and independence, and personal traits or attitudes. The environment component of the paradigm received little recognition by the teachers as they primarily focused on the home rather than the school environment. Only one teacher (WW #9) mentioned the school environment but she did not mention materials or the other aspects of the classroom environment which were under her control.

Theoretical Models

To categorize the teachers' viewpoints of reading according to the four models presented in Singer and Ruddell's Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading, Second Edition, the findings presented concerning teachers' descriptions of children and instructional techniques were reread to see if the teachers used any of the terms which were identified with each model as presented in Chapters II and III and Appendix C.

Psycholinguistic models. A number of teachers described various aspects of the psycholinguistic models. Table 18 presents the number of teachers who described each component of psycholinguistics. The teachers who discussed the language experience approach were counted as those who saw a connection between language and thought but the

Table 18.--Psycholinguistic Models.

Psycholinguistic Models	N
Language and Thought	7
Communication	0
Reading and Writing Related	6
Goal of Comprehension*	4
Relevance	0
Flexibility	6
Multimedia Approaches	1
Learning to read--natural	4

   *Although fifteen teachers mentioned comprehension as an instructional technique, within that group four teachers mentioned comprehension as an instructional goal.

possibility existed to also classify the language experience approach under communication. Besides communication, another descriptor which was difficult to code was relevance. No one specifically mentioned relevance, although one teacher stated that the basal series needed updating (WW #3).

   More teachers mentioned components of the psycholinguistic models than the information processing and developmental models. Although no teacher comments were identified solely with one model, four teachers (WW #8, Y #3, and Y #8) mentioned three or four of the psycholinguistic terms. Warren Woods Six and Ten and Ypsilanti Two and Four did not mention any component of the psycholinguistic models.

   Information processing models. To look for teachers whose views closely matched information processing models, the descriptions of instructional techniques were reexamined. Some teachers discussed phonics, speed, self-instructional materials, attention, and skills hierarchies which were identified in Chapters II and III and Appendix C

as descriptors of the Information Processing Model. Phonics instruc-
tion, which was mentioned by twelve teachers, was the most frequently
identified component of information processing. The visual components,
such as scanning and fixations, were ignored by the teachers. Ypsilanti
One, who appeared to have incorporated more of the psycholinguistic
model into her instruction, mentioned three of the information pro-
cessing components which was the most mentioned by a teacher. The
data presented in Table 19 represent the number of teachers who
responded to each component of the Information Processing Model.

Table 19.--Information Processing.

Information Processing	N
Visual Process	0
Attention*	1
Fixations	0
Scanning	0
Phonics	12
Speed	0
Accurate Decoding	0
Automaticity	0
Stages	0
Self-Instructional Materials	1
Close Procedure	0
Skills Hierarchy	4

*Attention, as in attention span, was mentioned by a teacher.
She did not discuss visual attention.

Developmental models. The developmental models were not
closely related to the teachers' conceptions, although a few aspects
of these models were mentioned by the teachers. As previously
noted, four of the teachers mentioned hierarchies (Y #1, Y #2, Y #9,
and Y #10), and four teachers mentioned age as a factor (WW #1, WW #6,

WW #9, and Y #8). Of that group of teachers, Warren Woods Nine also mentioned maturity. The teachers who used self-selection as an instructional technique felt that the children had mastered the skills for their level, regardless of grade placement, which could be associated with the developmental models as they were presented. No one mentioned cognitive development, mental structures, or Piaget. On Table 20, the numbers represent the teachers who mentioned components of the developmental models.

Table 20.--Developmental Models.

Developmental Model	N
Piaget	0
Hierarchial	4
Age-related differences*	4
Information and knowledge	0
Mental structures	0
Cognitive development	0

*One teacher who mentioned age-related differences taught a first grade-second grade combination (Y #8).

While eight teachers identified components of the developmental models, seventeen mentioned elements of the affective model.

Affective models. To determine the degree to which teachers' conceptions were related to the affective model of reading, which Matthewson called the Acceptance Model, the teachers' descriptions of the children were reviewed to look for terms such as motivation, interest, attitude, belief, and attention. All of the terms associated with the acceptance model were used by the teachers and were presented in Table 21.

Table 21.--The Acceptance Model.

Acceptance Model	N
Motivation	4
Interest	6
Attitude	14
Attention	1
Beliefs/Values	1

Because fourteen teachers mentioned attitude, attitude appeared to be a very important pupil characteristic in relationship to reading. Three teachers did not mention any component of the affective model (WW #2, WW #6, and Y #10). Warren Woods Three, Warren Woods Nine, and Ypsilanti Six had the strongest leanings toward the affective model by mentioning three of the five affective descriptors.

Summary of the Theoretically
Derived Findings

The teachers' viewpoints of reading reflected elements of Hunt's B-P-E paradigm and the four theoretical models of reading. Regarding Hunt's paradigm, the behavior and person components received attention from all of the teachers but only one teacher mentioned the school environment. In relating the teachers' responses to the four models of reading, the teachers' conceptions were more closely aligned to the affective and the psycholinguistic models as evidenced by the number of teacher responses using the terms identified with those models. Yet, the context within which the psycholinguistic and affective terms were used does not match the intent of the theoreticians who presented the models because the teachers relied on basal textbooks for reading instruction.

Answers to the Research Questions

Because the teachers' conceptions of reading were operationally defined as what the teachers said they do about reading and how they organized information about reading in response to the interview questions, the answers to the research questions could be found in the descriptions of the teachers' responses presented in the findings from the empirical and theoretical coding schemes.

What Are the Ways in which Teachers Think About Reading?

During the interviews, the teachers discussed reading according to descriptions of their grouping practices, classroom organization, pupils, and instructional techniques. When teachers mentioned grouping practices, they identified six bases for forming groups. Of those six bases for forming groups, informal testing was the most popular as it was cited by eleven teachers. The teachers used a variety of organizational plans but ten teachers indicated that they had more than three instruction reading groups and individualized instruction. Although the teachers discussed having varieties of organizational formats and using varieties of materials, fourteen teachers tended to use the same general types of instructional techniques with children of different abilities. The teachers described the children in two ways: personal traits and reading instructional performance.

Besides discussing their students and different instructional practices, the teachers stated their beliefs about reading. Yet, while the teachers focused the discussion of their beliefs on human factors, environmental factors and materials, no one identified their beliefs as being related to the reading process. When discussing their beliefs,

the teachers included information about desired changes, themselves as reading teachers, and instructional successes which they primarily attributed to the children.

The teachers discussed reading instruction and organized reading information in a variety of ways. The conceptions that were expressed by the teachers during the interviews reflected viewpoints more closely associated with reading instruction than a reading process. This may have happened because the form of the Rep Test encouraged the teachers to discuss reading as an immediate issue or in curricular terms rather theoretically. Three teachers discussed reading as a foundation for future life and separate from the school environment.

In What Ways Can the Teachers' Views of Reading Be Classified?

The teachers' statements about reading were presented in three classifications using the empirically derived coding schemes. First, their views were classified according to descriptions of grouping practices, classroom organization, the children, instruction techniques, and stated beliefs that were the presented findings from the empirical coding schemes. Second, from the above descriptions, the teachers were grouped according to orientations: human and production, since the teachers tended to view reading according to human and production orientations. Teachers who had leanings toward the human orientations emphasized personal traits, such as attitude/interest, home/family, language, and intelligence, and teachers favoring production discussed skills, developing independence, and work habits. Third, the teachers' views were classified according to the sources from which they received cues in decision making. When teachers discussed making reading

decisions, they relied on pupils, materials, self, or a combination. Production teachers tended to rely on materials for their decisions.

A fourth classification of teachers' views was developed by the theoretically derived coding schemes. Responses of the teachers can also be classified according to Hunt's B-P-E model. The teachers thoroughly discussed behaviors (B) and persons (P) but only one teacher mentioned limiting the school environment (school size) and no one mentioned the classroom environment. Environment was mentioned more frequently when the teachers described the children's home life. Using Hunt's model, teachers' views of reading can be said to focus on behaviors and persons, not environment.

Are Teachers' Views Similar to Any Codified Models of Reading?

The teachers mentioned terms that could be identified with the four models of reading presented in Singer and Ruddell's _Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading_, Second Edition. The terminology associated with the psycholinguistic and affective models were mentioned most frequently.

Although specific teachers were identified as having reading conceptions that matched only one model, some teachers were identified as having viewpoints which more closely relate to certain models. For example, four teachers (WW #8, Y #1, Y #3, and Y #8) were identified as being more closely associated with the psycholinguistic model as they mentioned more psycholinguistic terms than the other teachers. Similarly, Warren Woods Three, Warren Woods Nine, and Ypsilanti Six were more closely associated with the affective model because they used more affective descriptors. Conversely, other teachers were

identified as not being associated with specific models because they did not mention those terms.

To definitely say matches exist would be wrong, or to generalize across teachers and say that all teachers were more closely associated with the affective and psycholinguistic models would be wrong. Because of the nature of this study, the answers are descriptions not generalizations.

Generalizability

The issue of generalizability was confronted in Chapter II of this paper but needed reemphasis here. Because the study was descriptive within an ethnographic paradigm, the findings apply only to the teachers interviewed during the data collection period.

A teacher (WW #2) most succinctly addressed the issue of limited generalizability of findings in research on teaching by saying that if she were interviewed the previous year, her ideas and responses would have been different.

Because the twenty teachers who were interviewed in the study were volunteers from two selected populations, the study has weaknesses that are often associated with case studies and field work. Issac and Michaels described the weakness as follows:

1. Because of their narrow focus on a few units, case studies are limited in their representativeness. They do not allow valid generalizations to the population from which their units came until the appropriate follow-up research is accomplished, focusing on specific hypotheses and using proper sampling methods.

2. . . . To the extent selective judgements rule certain data in our out, or assign a high or low value to their significance, or place them in one context rather than another, subjective interpretation is influencing the outcome.[1]

Therefore, although the study was conducted in a systematic manner employing procedures which could be replicated, the interpretations of the data were unique to the researcher. This was a weakness inherent within naturalistic studies and generalizations were not made beyond the specific teachers interviewed.

Summary

The teacher transcripts were analyzed using empirically and theoretically derived coding schemes. From the analysis of the transcripts, descriptions of how teachers organize information about reading emerged. The findings indicated that teachers described reading in a variety of ways which were classified according to orientations, decision stimuli, grouping procedures, descriptions of children, descriptions of techniques, stated beliefs, and the P and B components of Hunt's model. Teachers' views of reading reflected some aspects of the four models of reading described in Singer and Ruddell's Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading, Second Edition, although the teachers more frequently mentioned terms associated with the psycholinguistic and the affective models.

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[1]Steven Issac and William B. Michael, Handbook in Research and Evaluation (San Diego, California: Robert R. Knapp Publishers, Inc., 1974), p. 20.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Chapter V is divided into six main headings: summary; major findings; discussion of the findings; conclusions; implications; and recommendations.

Summary

The purpose of the study was to describe teachers' conceptions of reading because assumptions were made regarding the influence of teacher reading conceptions on teacher behavior and pupil outcomes. Thus, a linear progression from conceptions to teaching behavior to student impact was assumed to exist. Such an assumption regarding the linear progression from conceptions to pupil impact was supported in the literature. The identification of reading conceptions was the focus of this study rather than teacher behaviors or pupil outcomes.

To identify teachers' conceptions of reading, the term conception was first defined as what teachers said about reading and about how they organized reading information during interviews. Second, for the interviews a nonscheduled standardized guide was developed using a modification of George Kelly's Role Concept Repertory Test (Rep Test).

The modification of the Rep Test required teachers to sort and compare students. As the teachers compared students, they discussed

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reading instructional practices, described their students' reading abilities, and stated certain beliefs about reading. The pupil sorting technique forced teachers to discuss the concrete practical aspects of their reading conceptions. For the purpose of the study, the major emphasis of probing interview questions and of the content analysis was to determine the reasons behind the comparisons or what the comparisons represented. Once the interviews were completed, transcripts of the interviews were typed and prepared for content analysis.

The content analysis included using empirically and theoretically derived coding schemes for the examination of qualitative data and the development of categories. While the empirical coding schemes were based on what teachers actually said during the interviews, the theoretical coding schemes were developed using Hunt's Behavior-Person-Environment Model and four models from Singer and Ruddell's Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading, Second Edition. Two types of coding schemes were needed to answer the three research questions regarding identifying teachers' reading conceptions, classifying those conceptions and matching the teachers' conceptions to the four theoretical models presented by Singer and Ruddell. The major findings regarding the answers to the questions are presented in the following section.

Major Findings

The answers to the research questions are presented and examined in this section.

Answers to the Research Questions

Question 1. What are the ways in which teachers think about reading?

During interviews using a Rep Test modification, teachers described the ways that they think about reading in terms of instructional practices, students, and student work habits. The teachers discussed classroom practices such as grouping procedures and instructional techniques. In addition, they described their pupils according to personal traits as well as the pupils' performance in reading instruction. Teachers expressed concerns about pupils who achieved success, pupils who experienced failure, and improving their reading programs.

Question 2. In what ways can teachers' views be classified?

The teachers' views of reading were classified in the following four ways: (1) descriptions of grouping practices, classroom organization, children, instructional techniques, and stated beliefs; (2) production-human orientations; (3) decision stimuli; and (4) the Behavior and Person components of Hunt's B-P-E model.

Question 3. Are teachers' views similar to some codified views of reading?

Although the teachers' views contained some elements of four theoretical reading models, more teachers reflected views which could be associated with psycholinguistic and affective methods but those views were usually discussed within the context of basal text instruction.

Examination of the Answers

Using the operational definition of reading conceptions (which was what the teachers said they did about reading and how the teachers organized information about reading in response to interview questions), the findings did indicate that teachers had conceptions since they conveyed a great deal of information about reading and about how they organized reading information during the interviews. Those teacher statements about reading and organizing reading information had three characteristics: they were complex, personal, and practical.

First, the conceptions appeared to be complex since teachers discussed many aspects of reading as being important to them. They described grouping procedures, materials and techniques as well as their personal feelings about reading, the children and the children's parents.

Second, the conceptions were personal as each teacher had specific views regarding information and those specific views governed their teaching behaviors. For example, two of the teachers discussed oral reading as important but they viewed oral reading as important for different reasons. One teacher viewed oral reading as important for purposes of evaluation while the other teacher viewed oral reading as a means of practicing. This second characteristic of teachers' reading conceptions was reflected in the work of Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel who stated that teachers were influenced by their view of what was important.[1]

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[1] Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel, *Interview Study of Teachers*, p. 47.

Third, the conceptions did not reflect reading theory as presented in Singer and Ruddell's Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading, Second Edition, or a knowledge of the reading process. This finding was probably due to the modification of the Rep Test used in the study and to the type of probing interview questions, neither of which specifically asked the teachers theory or knowledge based questions. Instead, the researcher noted that the teachers did not volunteer information about reading theories or knowledge of the reading process but, rather, responded in practical terms. The significance of the teachers' focus on practical reading issues was presented by Cogan in a discussion of teacher education in which he examined educational innovations in British schools. Cogan posited that teaching the innovations would have been more efficiently accomplished if the innovations had been grounded in theory and if the teachers had been allowed to state their aims and related classroom practices to theory.[2] Further, he questioned the absence of theory in teacher training and schools, when he asked, "Or is it the inescapable condition of schools that they must stumble forward without the aid of relevant theories?"[3] Therefore, the practical rather than theoretical conceptions of the teachers could have also been due to the general nature of the school settings and in-service training in which theories were not related to classroom practices.

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[2] Morris L. Cogan, "Current Issues in the Education of Teachers," in Teacher Education: The Seventy-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, ed. Kevin Ryan (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1975), p. 216.

[3] Ibid.

Discussion of the Findings

The answers to the research questions indicated that the teachers have very complex, individual, and practical conceptions of reading. Because of the emergence of a broad range of conceptions rather than a single conception of reading and the generation of a vast amount of information about reading, teachers, and conceptions, the discussion of the findings examined: (1) the information that the teachers provided regarding reading and organizing information about reading; (2) the information that the teachers did not provide regarding reading; and (3) the assumption regarding a linear relationship between teachers' conceptions, teaching behaviors, and pupil behaviors.

Information Teachers Provided about Reading

As a result of the interviews, five ideas related to reading emerged. These five ideas reflect teacher responses regarding pupil differences, operationalizing viewpoints, influences of instructional materials, abilities to teach reading, and work habits.

Ideas Regarding Pupil Differences

Concerning pupil differences, the teachers identified six methods of collecting information about their pupils and described their pupils in many ways. When diagnosing reading differences among their pupils, teachers used records of past performance, formal testing, informal testing, pupil performance, pupil maturity, and teacher convenience (which was the only method not related directly to the pupils). In describing their pupils, teachers used descriptions of personal traits like health, intelligence, attitude, and sex and

descriptions of performances such as work habits, need for practice, oral reading, and speed of reading. From the varieties of ways in which teachers gathered information about children and described children, the inference was made that teachers viewed pupils as having many differences related to reading.

Ideas Regarding Operationalizing

Although the teachers gathered information about the children in six different ways and used many descriptors in discussing pupils, the teachers presented three types of evidence to show that they did not always use diagnostic information. First, the teachers described using the same instructional techniques with groups of students having different needs. Second, teachers placed children having different instructional levels within the same group. Third, teachers placed students in groups for reasons different than the diagnostic data suggested. For example, after collecting a variety of diagnostic information, a teacher ignored it and divided her class in half; those who worked independently; and those who did not (Y #4).

Not only did teachers act upon their knowledge of pupil differences in a variety of ways which suggested that there might be a mismatch between their ideas of pupil differences and operationalizing reading, they also pursued stated instructional goals differently. For example, a number of teachers stated that vocabulary development was important. However, one of the teachers operationalized that point of view by having every pupil in the class read a line from a content area text in a "round robin" fashion (Y #10) while other teachers

discussed taking dictation or other types of language experience activities.

After examining the examples of how teachers operationalized their views of pupil differences and vocabulary development, the inference was made that teachers had different ideas or methods of operationalizing their reading programs. Specifically, teachers stated similar goals and concerns but attempted to meet those goals by different means.

Ideas Regarding Influences of Instructional Materials

There were three types of evidence presented by the teachers which demonstrated the influences of instructional materials, specifically basals. First, the teachers discussed using materials as bases for decisions. Second, materials which had supposedly been abandoned by a school district continued to have an effect on teachers. Finally, the materials used by the teachers appeared to have a greater influence than in-service training.

The teachers discussed relying on three types of cues for decision making. Those cues were pupils (personal or work traits), materials, and themselves. Of the three types of cues that teachers used, the teachers most frequently relied on materials, specifically basal textbooks. In fact, the teachers' reliance on the basal textbooks for decision cues superseded the knowledge of reading content received in their in-service training programs, their knowledge of the children and personal beliefs.

The basal series had a lingering effect on the teachers. For example, teachers were using basal text series previously abandoned

by their school districts. While some teachers taught all reading lessons from basal series which had not been officially used in their school district for three years, others used selected parts of these basal series, such as worksheets and practice activities.

When the teachers described their reading programs, there were similarities across districts. For example, the teachers in both school districts used the same basals and similar strategies. Such similar strategies were attributed to the materials rather than to the in-service training received by the teachers, since the philosophical foundations of the in-service training programs were different in each school district while the instructional materials (basal series) were the same.

Ideas Regarding Teachers' Abilities to Teach Reading

Some teachers described themselves as being in command of instructional situations and able to teach children to read. For example, they discussed improving reading instruction by changing their instructional strategies, thereby signifying internal control. Other teachers explained that instructional improvements resulted from external changes, such as more materials, parental intervention or administrative changes. Teachers who discussed external changes appeared to view their power for making an impact on children as weak. For such teachers, that power or ability to teach a child to read was out of their control.

Another way in which teachers described their control over teaching children to read was their direct comments. The types of comments ranged from teachers who needed "the answer" to help children

to those who gave up because children's reading depended on home life and those who stated that there was always a way to teach reading.

Ideas of Work

Teachers' conceptions of work were also related to reading. Teachers discussed production related terms, such as developing good work habits and working independently as being important to their reading instructional goals. For example, children who were usually identified as good workers were also identified as good readers.

Summary of Information Teachers Provided About Reading

The examination of the aforementioned information that teachers provided about reading showed that a broad range of ideas relating to reading emerged from the interviews. In addition, other insights regarding reading emerged from information that the teachers did not provide about reading.

Information Teachers Did Not Provide About Reading

During the interviews, the teachers' comments did not include thorough descriptions of the reading process and theoretical models of reading or a broad view of classroom environments. This exclusion of comments relating to the reading process, theoretical models and classroom environments could be due to the Rep Test and probing interview questions used in the study which forced the teachers to focus on their pupils and practical reading issues. Specific questions were not asked about the reading process, theoretical models, or environment. Yet, the exclusion of the comments regarding the reading

process, theoretical models, and the classroom environments was important because Hunt stated that the Rep Test allowed implicit views to become explicit.[4] In this case, the teachers' implicit knowledge about the reading process and theory did not emerge. Further, Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel reported that it was significant to note whether or not teachers mentioned theoretical knowledge.[5] Therefore, it was important for this study to note the limited ways in which teachers discussed knowledge of the reading process, theoretical models, and classroom environments.

The teachers' failure to mention the reading process, knowledge of theoretical models and classroom environments leads to three conclusions. First, teachers appeared to have an incomplete knowledge of the reading process, specifically comprehension. Second, although the teachers discussed some components of the four theoretical models in Singer's and Ruddell's Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading, Second Edition, they mentioned those components within practical situations, such as instructional settings using basal textbooks. Finally, a contradiction emerged in the teachers' descriptions of environments. Although teachers discussed practical aspects of reading instruction, the classroom environment under their control was not mentioned by the teachers since they only discussed home environments and school environments under administrative control.

The Rep Test forced the teachers to focus on practical aspects of reading but it was important to note that the teachers did not

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[4]Hunt, Teachers Are Psychologists, Too, p. 5.

[5]Bussis, Chittenden, and Amarel, Interview Study of Teachers, pp. 46-47.

mention the reading process or theory and aspects of the environment over which they had control.

The Underlying Assumption
of Linear Progression

This study was based on the assumption that teachers had identifiable conceptions of reading which influenced their teaching behaviors. As a result of the study, the assumption appeared to hold true for the teachers interviewed. In addition to discussing reading, how they organized reading information, and what was important in reading instruction, the teachers cited illustrations in their reading behaviors that would substantiate their reading conceptions. Yet, the findings did not indicate that teacher conceptions were based in knowledge and theory nor did it point out the influences on the conceptions which might explain variations within and among teachers. Therefore, the assumption about a linear progression between reading conceptions and teaching behavior held true for the teachers interviewed but information did not emerge which explained the bases of the conceptions.

Conclusion

This study identified what the teachers said about reading and how the teachers organized information. Those conceptions were then described, classified, and matched to theoretical reading models which were based on the assumption that conceptions influenced behavior. The results of the study indicated that the teachers have reading conceptions as defined by the study which influenced their behavior and that those conceptions had the following three characteristics: conceptions were complex; conceptions were personal and appeared to govern behavior;

and conceptions were practical rather than theoretical. Besides the characteristics of the conceptions, five ideas emerged from what the teachers said regarding the teachers reading conceptions. The five emergent ideas were the teachers' concerns for pupil differences, the teachers' varying methods of operationalizing similar viewpoints, the influence of materials, the teachers' feelings about their abilities to teach reading, and the teachers' concern over student work.

The findings indicated that there were conceptions of reading which influenced behavior but the findings were unable to determine if the conceptions had foundations in knowledge of the reading process or theory. Perhaps, as suggested by the practical focus of the teachers' discussions, their conceptions were formed to meet reading instruction problems in daily practice.

Implications

The following implications were drawn from the conclusions, discussion of the findings, and the study:

1. Implications for theory and practice
2. Implications for training and materials
3. Implications for classifying teachers
4. Implications for research

Implications for Theory and Practice

In the reading literature, there has been a great deal of discussion focusing on describing various theoretical views of the reading process and developing theoretical models to explain the reading process. During the interviews, the teachers did not express a knowledge of the reading process and did not focus on theoretical

issues. Perhaps experts in reading should also relate theories to the practical problems encountered by teachers and assist teachers in acquiring knowledge of the reading process as it applied to practice.

Implications for Training and Materials

Assisting teachers to acquire a thorough knowledge of the reading process has been an elusive problem for teacher educators. In Ypsilanti and Warren Woods, attempts were made to help teachers gain more reading knowledge by providing in-service programs and follow-up support for the teachers. Although the programs were philosophically different, there appeared to be few differences in the practices pursued by the teachers in the different school districts. To be specific, the teachers from Warren Woods and Ypsilanti who did oral reading did so for similar resaons. Similarly, many of their instructional activities and stated beliefs revolved around procedures prescribed by the materials. Therefore, if in-service training is to make a difference, perhaps materials and training procedures should have similar foundations.

Implications for Classifying Teachers

Each teacher interviewed was an individual practitioner organizing reading information in a unique way. While there were similarities between teachers, enough differences existed to question the usefulness of discrete classifications. To discuss teachers along continuums was more productive. For example, all of the teachers valued pupil production traits but some teachers valued the production traits more intensely than others.

Implications for Research

The implications for research are related to the underlying assumption, the Rep Test, and interviewing teachers.

Underlying Assumption

The assumption which undergirded this study posited a linear progression from reading conceptions to teacher behaviors which impact pupils. Each teacher had many reading conceptions which included conceptions of students' reading, students' working influences of materials, or teachers' abilities to teach reading that work within the teachers in a variety of ways. Such conceptions were manifested in different teacher behaviors depending on goals and interactions with curriculum, resources, children, time, or milieu. This study suggests that teacher actions may emerge from a broad range of reading conceptions regarding students, materials, and teaching. Such actions may then by directed to some anticipated reading goal. For instance, a teacher who had a goal of children reading with expression used basal readers differently than the teachers who had comprehension as a goal.

The Rep Test and Interviews

The modification of the Rep Test, which required teachers to sort and compare students, was an instrument used for identifying teachers' reading instructional practices and teachers' conceptions of reading instruction, their children as readers, themselves as reading teachers, and causes for reading successes and failures. Because such a diverse amount of information can be obtained from the Rep Test, it could be a good tool to use to assess the entry behavior of teacher in-service participants or to assist teachers in focusing on classroom

problems. For example, in a local school district, a reading consultant uses another Rep Test modification to identify areas in which she can help teachers solve instructional problems. Also, because the Rep Test is flexible, it may be possible to restructure the Rep Test to elicit information about the teacher knowledge and theoretical concerns.

Using interviews as a research technique generates a great deal of information for study: specifically, nonscheduled standard interviews allow the researchers to ask exploratory, probing questions which attempt to identify the reasons behind actions and establish patterns of response. More studies using nonscheduled interview techniques would give researchers and teacher educators valuable information regarding teacher conceptions, beliefs, and goals.

Recommendations for Practice and Research

Specific recommendations for practice and research arose from the findings and implications of the study.

Recommendations for practice:

1. Although the teachers in this study came from two school districts, having different philosophical foundations underpinning their in-service programs, the teachers used similar instructional techniques and had similar concerns. Since this similarity is apparently due to the influence of materials, training programs should use materials which reflect the desired philosophical foundations of the in-service.

2. Teacher training procedures like those pursued in Warren Woods and Ypsilanti may have been more productive or shown greater results if the teachers articulated their goals, or if the

teachers' needs had been assessed using something similar to the Rep Test.

Recommendations for Research

1. A need exists to determine teachers' conceptions of the reading process, specifically, comprehension. For example, the teachers who cited comprehension as being important failed to mention specific components of comprehension. Thus, research should be pursued to identify teacher conceptions of components within the reading process.

2. The following terms should be clarified through research to more accurately identify teachers' conceptions of reading and instructional practices: individualized reading and reading independently.

3. Teachers consistently identified the good readers as good workers and well-behaved children. For example, a teacher (Y #4) divided her class in half; children who could work without a lot of direction and those who needed direction and supervision. Further research should be conducted which examines teacher practices, expectations and conceptions regarding the work habits of children having different reading abilities.

4. Teachers recognized wide ranges of student abilities through their diagnostic work but placed children having different reading levels in the same group. Researchers should investigate such a practice to determine possible reasons and effects.

5. The teachers who used self-selection as an instructional technique stated that their students had mastered certain skills

or all the skills necessary for successful reading. Additional research should focus on the identification of suchs skills and how perceptions of those skills vary across teachers.

6. Teachers identified students according to grade level. For example, they would refer to children as "good third grade readers" or "a solid fourth grader." Researchers should work with teachers to identify specific behaviors common to students carrying titles such as "a solid third grade reader," "an average sixth grade reader," and so on.

7. The procedures of the study need to be replicated for validation, and the findings need to be studied in more controlled designs. Specifically, the human and production orientations, the relative influence of the decision stimuli, and the six types of conceptions need to be studied. In addition to control, more demographic information is needed about the teachers to determine if their conceptions vary according to age, sex, experience, or training.

8. The study was limited because it indexed conceptions on one dimension. To produce accurate descriptions of teachers' reading conceptions, teaching behaviors need to be examined independently.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW GUIDES

PILOT

INTERVIEW GUIDE

The procedures for the interview guide employing the Rep Test
are a combination of those described by David E. Hunt in an interview
and in his paper entitled, "Teachers Are Psychologists Too: On the
Application of Psychology to Education." The following procedure should
be taped.

		Student Numbers	Tape Footage

Step 1. List student names on 3 x 5 cards and
number the cards.

Step 2. Tell the teacher to sort student name
cards into piles according to how they
receive reading instruction.
Notes:

Step 3. Ask the teachers to explain why they
sort the student name cards into their
specific piles.
Notes:

Step 4. The interviewer selects three students
from different piles constructed in
Step 2.

Step 5. In answering the following questions,
ask the teacher to pretend to be
speaking to the teacher who will have
the students next year.

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A. How are two of the students alike
in terms of reading?
Notes:

(Probe for reading successes,
failures, habits, and interests.)

Step 6. Repeat Step 5 about four or five more
times or until the responses become
redundant.

A. (Repeat Step 5)
Notes:

B. (Repeat Step 5)
Notes:

C. (Repeat Step 5)
Notes:

D. (Repeat Step 5)
Notes:

E. (Repeat Step 5)
Notes:

Step 7. Ask the following questions.

A-i. Pick two students who have
responded particularly well to
a specific instructional tech-
nique you have used. What is
that technique?

A-ii. Who are the students who have
responded well? How are they
the same?

A-iii.   What was particularly good about
         the way these pupils responded?

A-iv.   Select one student who did not
         respond well to this same tech-
         nique.

A-v.   Why do you suppose the student
         did not respond well?

A-vi.   How do the students differ?

B-i.   Pick out two pupils in your
         room who, in your opinion, are
         not making satisfactory progress.
         Who are they?

B-ii.   Why do you think they are not
         making satisfactory progress?

B-iii.   If you had the money or resources
         or "administrative pull" to get
         anything you needed to help these
         pupils, what is it that you would
         get?

B-iv.   Why do you think they would
         profit from this?

B-v.   How do they differ from one
         student who is making satis-
         factory progress?

C-i.   Pick out one pupil who is having
         trouble with a particular aspect
         of reading. What aspect of
         reading are you thinking of?

C-ii.   Which child has trouble with this?

C-iii.   Why do you think he or she has
         trouble?

C-iv.   Is there another pupil who has
         similar difficulty with this
         aspect of reading? Who is it?

C-v.   Is the cause of his or her diffi-
culty the same as for the first
pupil?

C-vi.   Who has no trouble with any aspect
of reading?

C-vii. To what do you attribute this lack
of difficulty?

Step 8. Is there anything concerning your beliefs
about reading, how you teach it, or your
students that is missing in the interview?

INTERVIEW GUIDE*

The procedures for the interview guide employing the Rep Test are a combination of those described by David E. Hunt in an interview and in his paper entitled, "Teachers Are Psychologists Too: On the Application of Psychology to Education." The following procedure should be taped.

		Student Numbers	Tape Footage

Step 1. List 15 student names on separate 3 x 5 cards and number the cards. (1 through 15).

Step 2. Tell the teacher to sort student name cards into piles according to how they receive reading instruction. Notes:

Step 3. Ask the teachers to explain why they sort the student name cards into their specific piles. (Probe for diagnostic testing, grouping procedures, instructional strategies, and other reasons for card arrangements.) Notes:

Step 4. The interviewer selects three students from different piles constructed in Step 2.

Step 5. In answering the following questions, ask the teacher to pretend to be speaking to the teacher who will have the students next year.

  A. How are two of the students alike in terms of reading? Notes:

---

*Used in the study.

B. How is the remaining student different?
(Probe for reading success, failures,
habits and interests.) Notes:

Step 6. Repeat Step 5 about four or five more times
or until the responses become redundant.

A. (Repeat Step 5) Notes:

B. (Repeat Step 5) Notes:

C. (Repeat Step 5) Notes:

D. (Repeat Step 5) Notes:

Step 7. Ask if there was anything about their reading
beliefs that was omitted or any child omitted
that was crucial to the discussion. Notes:

Step 8. Ask the following questions:

A. Pick two students who have responded
particularly well to a specific instruc-
tional technique you have used. What is
that technique? Why? Notes:

B. Select one student who did not respond
well. Why? Notes:

C. How does the student differ from the
two students that were successful?
Why? Notes:

Step 9. Ask the following question:

      A. If you had the money or resources or "administrative pull" to get anything you needed to help these pupils, what is it that you would get? (Relate to pupils on the cards.) Notes:

Step 10. Is there anything concerning your beliefs about reading, how you teach it, or your students that is missing in the interview? Notes:

APPENDIX B

PROGRAM DESCRIPTIONS

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY AND SPECIAL EDUCATION

November 1, 1977

Michelle Johnston, Instructor
133-E Erickson Hall
Michigan State University
Campus

Dear Michelle:

This letter describes the Ypsilanti Reading Inservice Program which I directed. The reading inservice program was comprised of three major components: (1) the training courses; (2) the follow-up classroom visitations and meetings; and (3) the materials development.

During the summer vacations of 1975 and 1976 and the academic school year of 1976-77, advanced training courses in reading instruction were offered to the Ypsilanti teachers, teacher-aides, and substitute teachers. The content of the training courses included the development of diagnostic and prescriptive instructional skills, the analysis and development of skill hierarchies in word recognition, comprehension, study skills, and literary understanding, the development of a reading program which maintained a balance among skills, use of skills and the desire to use skills. In addition, materials were analyzed and developed; functional reading, reading in the content areas; language development, recreational reading, and development reading were included; and trade-books were examined and included in the developing reading program.

The second component was built around the follow-up classroom visitations and meetings which were designed to assist the teachers during the implementation and maintainance of the reading program which had been developed during the training course. Specific assistance was offered to the teachers in the forms of demonstration teaching, consultation, and observation.

The visitations and meetings were scheduled periodically during the school year of 1975-76 and the school year of 1976-77.
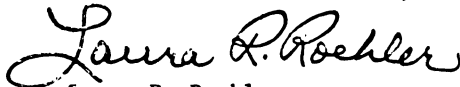
The final component, the development of materials, had two thrusts. The first thrust was the development of a skills management system by the teachers for the Ypsilanti Public Schools. Objectives, pretests, posttests, record-keeping devices, and teaching suggestions were included in the management system. The second thrust was the development of teacher made materials which corresponded to the objectives in the skills management system and supplemented the teaching strategies in the reading program. Teachers were provided with special facilities, materials, and assistance during both school years and summer vacations.

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Michelle Johnston
November 1, 1977
Page 2

Throughout the inservice program, there has been close cooperation between the
Ypsilanti administrators and teachers in the implementation of their local district
skills management system. The participating teachers have been given released
time and materials. In addition, a workroom was created for the teachers with the
purpose of establishing a place where the teachers can get together and develop
new materials such as games for practice. Final evidence of the cooperation
between the administrators and teachers is the continued recognition of the need
for classroom visitations and follow-up. Ypsilanti now has a reading demon-
stration teacher who helps the teachers with classroom implementation.

If you have further questions, I can provide more information.

Sincerely,

Laura R. Roehler
Assistant Professor

LRR/lr

WARREN WOODS PUBLIC SCHOOLS

27100 SCHOENHERR ROAD   WARREN, MICHIGAN 48093   PHONE: (313) 775-1012

ROBERT S. TOWER   Superintendent
C. DUANE BRUNN   Assistant Superintendent Elementary Instruction
HENRY S. SIENKIEWICZ   Assistant Superintendent Secondary Instruction
W. A. YUNGTON   Business Manager

April 22, 1977

Ms. Michelle Johnston, Instructor
Michigan State University
301/14 Erickson Hall
East Lansing, Michigan 48824

Dear Ms. Johnston,

Over the past two years, approximately 80 teachers in grades 1-6 have participated in the Warren Woods Title I Reading In-Service Program. Each teacher attended 7 full days of in-service and tutored 3 children from his/her own classroom 1 hour per week on an after school paid basis. Workshop topics included: Values Clarification, Self-Concept and Self-Awareness, Dr. W. Glasser and Classroom Meetings, Informal Diagnosis of Reading Problems, Tour of M.I.S.D. Facilities, Language Experience Approach, Motor Skill Development, Art and Reading, Auditory and Visual Skill Development, Use of the Newspaper in the Classroom, Cooking and Reading, Creative Dramatics, Paperback Books in the Classroom and Music and Choral Reading. Most workshops included a make and take session and/or hands-on materials. Teachers were expected to utilize activities and ideas gained from the workshops in their tutoring sessions. Each teacher kept a log of activities conducted during tutoring sessions. The Gates-MacGinitie and Coopersmith were given as pre and post tests.

This program has been totally funded through Title I, Part A funds. If you need any further information, please feel free to contact me.

Sincerely,

Robbie Fairleigh,
Title I Director

RF:mw

APPENDIX C

CODING SCHEMES AND CODING SHEETS

CODING SCHEMES

The following outline presents the attributes within each category used for the empirically derived coding schemes.

I. What teachers said about

    A. Groups created on the basis of

        1. Previous records--CA60, previous teacher
        2. Formal testing--the standardized tests
        3. Informal testing--local tests, oral reading
        4. Maturity--teacher's estimate of development
        5. Convenience--of the teacher
        6. Performance--student work habits

    B. Program for

        1. High readers--description
        2. Middle readers--description
        3. Low readers--description
        4. Same/different--variety of instructional program
            between groups

    C. Class descriptions

        1. Number of groups

            a. more than 3
            b. 3
            c. less than 3

        2. According to basal
        3. Level--instructional reading level or grade level
        4. Range--more than one instructional level within
            the classroom
        5. Skill--groups/instructioned based on skills
        6. Individualized
        7. Combination--use both individualized and basals
        8. Flexible--groups change according to pupil need
        9. Contracts
      10. Match groups with levels--a reading group consists
            of children on a specific reading level

D. Descriptions of children

    1. Work habits
    2. Self-image
    3. Social characteristics
    4. Racial characteristics
    5. Age
    6. Economic characteristics
    7. Creative--artistic ability
    8. Achievement--according to tests
    9. Values
  10. Potential
  11. Maturity
  12. Health/physical--illness
  13. Language--language development
  14. Attitudes
  15. Intelligence
  16. Effort
  17. Independent
  18. Interests
  19. Home life
  20. Needs one to one
  21. Learning styles
  22. Discipline
  23. Sex
  24. Attention span
  25. Self-discipline
  26. Fits into group
  27. Needs rewards
  28. Leadership qualities
  29. Frustrating
  30. Shy
  31. Needs encouragement
  32. Needs practice
  33. Natural reader--learned to read without help
  34. Reading/grade level--reading at grade level or an
      instructional level

II. What teachers said about instructional techniques

A. Reading instructional techniques*

    1. Kits
    2. Phonics
    3. Writing
    4. Choral reading
    5. Practice-drill
    6. Oral reading

       a. important
       b. daily

*Some teachers referred to materials like kits as techniques.

      c. less than daily
      d. all children
      e. with certain children
      f. for practice
      g. for evaluation
      h. for description
      i. would like to do less
      j. not mentioned

    7. Machines
    8. Language experience approach
    9. Research skills--study skills
  10. Sight words
  11. Comprehension
  12. Trade Books
  13. Unified sustained silent reading
  14. Movement--exercise, balance
  15. Listening
  16. Self-selection
  17. Skill hierarchies

B. Reading in the content areas

    1. Content areas in general
    2. Spelling
    3. Writing

      a. creative--composition, expository
      b. mechanical--punctuation, copying

    4. Language arts
    5. Creative dramatics
    6. Social studies
    7. Science
    8. Math

III. What the teachers said about their beliefs.

A. Needed for a successful reading program

    1. Human resources

      a. aides
      b. reduction in class size
      c. remedial reading teacher
      d. grouping/tracking--changes in policy

    2. Materials

      a. basals
      b. co-basals
      c. phonics materials
      d. hardware--tape recorders, projectors

         e. trade books
         f. kits
         g. activities
         h. nothing

     3. Other

         a. I don't know
         b. Administrative support
         c. Time

B. Beliefs about self as a teacher

     1. Overwhelmed
     2. Powerless
     3. Guilty
     4. Unhappy
     5. Overworked
     6. Frustrated
     7. Excited
     8. Doing a better job
     9. Unrealistic expectations

C. Changes desired

     1. Remediation
     2. Tracking
     3. Grouping
     4. Diagnostic-Prescriptive
     5. Retention
     6. Readiness
     7. Organization and Management

D. Attributes successes to

     1. Self
     2. Child
     3. Technique
     4. Unknown

E. Stated beliefs

     1. Human

         a. teacher attitudes
         b. parent attitudes
         c. student atttitudes
         d. learning styles

     2. Environment

         a. home
         b. school

3. Materials and Techniques

    a. basals
    b. phonics
    c. self-selection
    d. skills
    e. hierarchies
    f. comprehension
    g. speed
    h. sight words
    i. writing
    j. speed
    k. literature
    l. multi-media approaches
    m. foundation
    n. application
    o. I don't know

IV. Summary categories

A. Receives cues from

    1. Learner

        a. performance
        b. traits

    2. Materials (e.g., basals)
    3. Self

B. Reading is a function of

    1. Attitude-interest
    2. Home
    3. Learning skills
    4. Language
    5. Intelligence
    6. Developing independence
    7. Work habits

The following lists of descriptors were used in the theoretically derived coding schemes to determine how teachers' views can be classified and if the teachers' views were similar to any codified models.

List 1

Hunt's B-P-E Paradigm

Behavior --   descriptions of reading
              behaviors and outcomes

Person --   descriptions of pupils

Environment -- descriptions of school environment

Relationship -- descriptions of relationships between behaviors,
                persons, and environments

List 2

Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading

Psycholinguistic Models --   language and thought
                             communication
                             reading and writing related
                             goal of comprehension
                             relevance
                             flexibility
                             multi-media approaches
                             learning to read--natural element
                                of communication

Information Processing Models -- visual process
                             attention
                             fixations
                             scanning
                             phonics
                             speed
                             accurate decoding
                             accuracy
                             automaticity
                             stages
                             self-instructional materials

	close procedure
	skills
	hierarchy
Developmental Models --	Piaget's stages
	hierarchial
	age related differences
	information
	knowledge
	mental structure
Affective Model --	motivation
	interest
	attitude
	belief
	value
	attention

Teacher _____

Needed for a Successful Program

Human				Materials		
Aides	Reduction in Class Size	Remedial Reading	Grouping	Basals	Co-Basals	Phonics

Materials

Hardware	Trade Books	Kits	Activities	Nothing --Have Enough	I Don't Know	Administrative Support	Time

Teacher _____

Beliefs About Self as a Teacher

Overwhelmed	Powerless	Guilty	Unhappy	Overworked	Frustrated

Excited	Doing a Better Job	Unrealistic Expectations

Teacher

Changed Desired

Remediation	Tracking	Grouping	Diagnostic Prescriptive	Retention	Readiness	Organization and Management

Parent Role

Aide	Support (for influence)	Home Tutor	Foundation			Communication
			SES	Values	Reading	

Success Attributed to

Self	Child	Technique	Unknown

Teacher _____

Reading in the Content Areas

Content Area in general	Spelling	Writing		Language Arts	Creative Dramatics	Social Studies	Science	Math
		Mechanics	Creative					

Description of Classes

Groups	+3	3	-3	According to			Range	Indivi-dualized	Combi-nation	Flexible	Contracts	Match Group with Levels
				Basal	Skill	Level						

Teacher _____

Oral Reading

Important	Daily	Less Than Daily	All Children	With Certain Children	For Practice	For Evaluation	For Description	Would Like to Do Less	Not Mentioned

Groups Developed by

Previous Records	Formal Testing	Informal Testing	Maturity	Convenience	Performance

Teacher _____

Program For

High Readers	Middle Readers	Low Readers

Teacher Receives Cues From

Learner		Basal	Self
Performance	Traits		

Teacher _____

Reading Instructional Techniques*

Kits	Phonics Skills	Writing	Choral Reading	U.S.S.R.	Self-Selection	Machines	L.E.A.

Research Skills	Sight Words	Compre-hension	Trade Books	Skill Hierarchies	Movement	Listening

*Some teachers referred to materials like kits as techniques.

Teacher _____

Description of Children

Work Habits	Self Image	Socio-Emotional	Racial	Age	Economic	Creative Ability	Achievement	Values	Potential

Maturity	Health/ Physical	Language	Attitudes	Intelligence	Effort	Independent	Interest	Home Life

Teacher _____

Description of Children (continued)

Needs 1 - 1	Learning Styles	Discipline	Sex	Attention Span	Self Discipline	Fits Into Group	Needs Reward	Leaders

Frustrating	Shy	Needs Practice	Needs Encouragement	Natural	Reading/grade level

Teacher _____

Stated Beliefs

Human				Environment		Materials and Techniques				
Teacher Attitudes	Parent Attitudes	Student Attitudes	Learning Styles	Home	School	Basals	Phonics	Self-Selection	Skills	Hier-archies

Materials and Techniques

Spelling	Research	Sight Words	Writing	Speed	Literature	Multi-media	Foundation	Application	I Don't Know	Compre-hension

Teacher

	Reading behaviors	Reading outcomes	Description of pupils	School environment	Language and thought	Communication	Reading and writing related	Goal of comprehension	Relevance	Flexibility	Multi-media approaches	Learning to read--natural	Visual process	Attention	Fixations	Scanning	Phonics	Speed	Accurate decoding	Stages	Self-instructional material	Cloze procedure	Skills hierarchy	Piaget	Hierarchial	Cognitive development	Age related differences	Information knowledge	Mental structure	Motivation	Interest	Attitude	Belief	Value	Attention
WW 1																																			
WW 2																																			
WW 3																																			
WW 4																																			
WW 5																																			
WW 6																																			
WW 7																																			
WW 8																																			
WW 9																																			
WW 10																																			
Y 1																																			
Y 2																																			
Y 3																																			
Y 4																																			
Y 5																																			
Y 6																																			
Y 7																																			
Y 8																																			
Y 9																																			
Y 10																																			

APPENDIX D

CODING RESULTS

	Warren Woods										Ypsilanti									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Programs for Different Groups*																				
Same		x		x	x	x	x			x*		x		x*	x*	x*	x		x*	x
Different	x		x					x	x		x		x					x		x
Instructional Techniques**																				
Kits	x			x						x				x			x		x	
Phonics Skills	x			x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x					x
Writing		x	x					x					x		x					x
Choral Reading	x																			
USSR															x			x		x
Skill Hierarchies											x		x						x	x
Machines										x			x							
L.E.A.				x				x		x	x		x							
Research Skills													x		x			x		
Sight Words				x	x		x	x	x		x	x	x		x				x	
Comprehension	x			x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x		
Trade Books			x				x			x			x		x		x			
Self-selection			x						x				x							
Movement									x											

*Same procedures.
**Some teachers referred to materials like kits as techniques.

	\multicolumn{10}{c}{Warren Woods}	\multicolumn{10}{c}{Ypsilanti}
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Listening	x		x				x		x	x	x		x		x					
Parent Role																				
Aide								x											x	
Support	x			x				x	x	x	x	x					x	x		x
Home Tutor														x				x		
Foundation																				
SES			x															x		
Values																x				
Reading											x	x						x		
Communication	x			x							x			x						
Description of Children																				
Work Habits	x			x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x			x
Self Image		x	x			x	x	x		x	x	x	x			x	x			
Social-Emotional		x	x	x			x				x					x		x		
Racial																		x		
Age	x					x			x									x		
Economic															x	x				
Creative Ability	x														x					
Achievement											x									
Values																		x		

	Warren Woods										Ypsilanti									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Potential	x			x																x
Maturity		x		x	x	x					x						x		x	
Health/Physical	x		x	x	x	x	x				x						x		x	x
Language	x	x		x		x	x	x	x		x							x		
Attitudes	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	
Intelligence	x	x			x	x			x		x					x	x			x
Effort							x	x						x						
Independent	x	x		x				x	x		x		x	x	x		x	x		
Interest	x		x		x				x				x		x					
Home Life	x		x			x			x		x	x	x	x			x	x		x
Needs 1 to 1	x	x									x	x	x	x		x				
Learning styles				x										x					x	
Discipline	x																			
Sex																			x	
Attention Span	x										x									
Motivation	x		x						x					x	x					
Fits into group																	x			
Leaders																				x
Frustrating														x						x
Shy			x																	x
Needs encouragement		x		x					x						x					

	Warren Woods										Ypsilanti									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Reading/Grade level	x	x	x											x	x					
Rewards		x	x	x									x	x						
Practice		x		x	x								x							
Natural								x	x								x		x	
Description of Classes																				
Groups																				
+3	x		x		x	x	x	x			x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x
3		x	x	x		x			x											
-3	x																			
According to																				
Basal		x			x	x		x	x			x					x			x
Skill	x			x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x	x	
Level	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x				x	x	x		
Range	x	x	x							x						x		x		
Individualized	x		x	x									x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Combination	x		x	x									x			x		x	x	
Flexible			x								x		x			x		x	x	
Contracts														x	x	x		x		
Mismatch groups with Level		x		x													x			

	Warren Woods										Ypsilanti									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Oral Reading																				
Important				x													x			x
Daily				x			x										x			x
Less than daily								x						x	x				x	
All children				x					x					x			x			x
With certain children							x							x						
For practice				x			x										x			
For evaluation														x	x					
For description							x	x							x					
Would like to do less											x								x	
To aides				x																
Groups Developed By																				
Previous records			x	x	x	x														
Formal testing	x	x										x		x		x				
Informal testing			x	x	x	x	x	x				x	x	x			x	x	x	
Maturity									x	x								x	x	
Convenience	x										x									x
Performance										x		x		x	x					x

	Warren Woods										Ypsilanti									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Changes Desired																				
Remediation	x																			
Grouping/Tracking		x															x			
Individualized											x									
Diagnostic/Prescriptive																		x		
Retention									x											
Readiness									x											
Organization and Management																		x		
Attributes Success To																				
Child		x	x		x	x	x		x		x		x			x				
Self					x															
Technique	x			x		x				x					x		x	x		x
Unknown							x	x	x											
Reading in the Content Areas																				
Content areas in general									x											
Spelling	x		x			x			x	x					x					x
Writing																				
Mechanical		x				x								x	x					

	Warren Woods										Ypsilanti									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Writing																				
Creative												x						x		
Language Arts	x		x	x			x		x	x		x								
Creative Dramatics	x			x						x		x		x						
Social Studies												x		x						x
Science													x	x						x
Math											x									
Stated Beliefs																				
Human																				
Teacher attitudes																			x	
Parent attitudes			x	x				x			x	x	x					x		
Student attitudes	x			x				x			x	x	x	x					x	x
Learning styles															x			x		
Environment																				
Home	x		x	x							x									
School									x											
Materials and Techniques																				
Basals		x	x																	
Phonics						x		x	x	x						x	x			
Self-selection			x																	

	Warren Woods										Ypsilanti									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Skills							x													
Hierarchies	x										x		x							
Spelling										x										
Research					x															
Sight words									x					x						
Writing															x					
Speed										x										
Literature				x			x													
Combinations						x							x							
Foundation							x				x			x						
Application		x								x				x						
I don't know																	x			
Comprehension					x					x										
Needed for a Successful Program																				
Human																				
Aides							x	x			x		x	x		x			x	
Reduction in class size	x						x							x		x				
Remedial reading		x																		
Tracking/Grouping	x						x										x			

	Warren Woods										Ypsilanti									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Materials																				
Basals			x	x																x
Co-basals		x						x					x					x		
Phonics									x											
Hardware	x		x								x		x		x					
Trade Books			x												x					x
Kits			x										x							
Activities			x		x					x			x							
Other																				
Administrative support	x			x																
Nothing--have enough								x				x								
I don't know						x										x				
Time	x					x						x								
Beliefs about Self as a Reading Teacher																				
Overwhelmed																	x			
Powerless			x	x			x				x									
Guilty			x								x									
Unhappy											x									
Overworked																	x			
Frustrated	x													x						

	Warren Woods										Ypsilanti									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Excited															x					
Doing a better job		x									x									
Unrealistic expectations		x									x									x

	Human				Production		
	Atti- tudes- Interest	Home Family	Language	Intell- gence	Learning Skills	Developing Indepen- dence	Work Habits
WW1		x	x	x	x	x	x
WW2		x	x	x	x	x
WW3	x	x	x		x		
WW4	x		x		x	x	
WW5				x	x		x
WW6		x	x		x		x
WW7	x		x	x	x	x	x
WW8	x		x		x	x	x
WW9	x	x	x		x	x	x
WW10	x				x		x
Y1	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Y2		x			x		x
Y3	x	x	x		x	x	x
Y4		x			x	x	x
Y5	x				x		x
Y6	x			x	x		
Y7		x			x		x
Y8		x	x		x	x	
Y9					x		
Y10		x		x	x		

Decision Stimuli

The teacher receives cues from:

	Learner		Materials			Self		
	Perfor-mance	Traits	Basals	Kits	Spelling	Know-ledge	Beliefs	Intui-tion
WW1	4	9						
WW2	6	3	1				1	
WW3	1	7	1		1			
WW4	5	6	1					
WW5	2	3	1					
WW6	1	6	1					
WW7	1	6						
WW8	2	4	1					
WW9	4	8					1	
WW10	2	3		1				
Y1	5	7	1				1	
Y2	2	2	1					
Y3	6	2						
Y4	5	5					1	
Y5	3	4			1			
Y6	1	5						
Y7	2	2	1					
Y8	1	6						
Y9	1	2					1	
Y10	1	8						1

Teacher	Reading behaviors	Reading outcomes	Description of pupils	School environment	Language and thought	Communication	Reading and writing related	Goal of comprehension	Relevance	Flexibility	Multi-media approaches	Learning to read--natural	Visual process	Attention	Fixations	Scanning	Phonics	Speed	Accurate decoding	Stages	Self-instructional material	Cloze procedure	Skills hierarchy	Piaget	Hierarchial	Cognitive development	Age related differences	Information knowledge	Mental structure	Motivation	Interest	Attitude	Belief	Value	Attention
WW 1	×	×	×		×																						×			×	×				
WW 2	×	×	×				×																									×			
WW 3	×	×	×				×			×											×									×	×	×			
WW 4	×	×	×		×												×															×			
WW 5	×	×	×					×									×														×				
WW 6	×	×	×														×										×								
WW 7	×	×	×					×									×															×			
WW 8	×	×	×		×		×					×					×										×			×	×	×			
WW 9	×	×	×	×								×					×															×			×
WW 10	×	×	×															×														×			
Y 1	×	×	×		×					×				×			×						×		×							×			
Y 2	×	×	×														×						×		×						×	×			
Y 3	×	×	×		×		×			×	×	×					×															×			
Y 4	×	×	×														×													×		×			
Y 5	×	×	×		×		×			×							×													×					
Y 6	×	×	×					×		×		×															×				×	×	×		
Y 7	×	×	×		×																											×			
Y 8	×	×	×							×													×		×							×			
Y 9	×	×	×							×																						×			
Y 10	×	×	×				×										×															×			
Total	20	20	20	1	6	0	6	3	0	6	1	4	0	1	0	0	12	1	0	0	1	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	0	5	6	14	1	0	1

APPENDIX E

CORRESPONDENCE

Ypsilanti Public Schools
Ypsilanti, Michigan
48197

Enclosed is an application to conduct research in the Ypsilanti School District. Please complete in detail enclosing any and all instruments and return them to me at your earliest convenience.

I would like to take this opportunity to familiarize you with the process that occurs upon my receiving your completed application and any supplementary information that you may provide. Copies will be made and distributed to the members of the Ypsilanti School District Research Committee for their reaction. Before a decision is reached, you may be requested to meet with them to answer additional questions that have arisen. A letter will then follow indicating whether or not your application has been approved.

Obviously, the approval of research applications is time consuming and you should allow approximately a month for the process.

If there are any questions, feel free to call me at 482-2970.

Sincerely,

Paul Kacanek
Administrative Coordinator
of Research and Evaluation

PK:bc
encl.
cc

Date_____

I. Applicant's Name & Title_____

  Agency or Institute Affiliation_____

  Address_____

  Phone_____

II. Funding Agency_____

III. Purpose:_____
      (Research Grant, Dissertation, Class Project, etc.)

IV. Name of supervisor to whom you are responsible:_____

V. Has the above-named person granted approval for conducting
    this project:_____

VI. If class project, cite course name:_____

VII. Title of project:_____

  Proposed beginning date:_____

  Proposed termination date:_____

VIII. General Objectives:

IX. Statement & Description of Problem: (Include brief review of
    previous research and theoretical basis for project, as well as
    theoretical and practical implication.)

X. Hypotheses:

XI. Instruments: (Name of instrument, administration methods & time
                required.) Please attach a sample of all instru-
                ments proposed for use with complete directions or
                adequate description of procedure.

XII. Methodology: Describe in detail research design, data collection methods, time schedule, number of subjects, method or criterion for selection of subjects, data analysis, procedure and form of presenting data. (Attach sheets, if needed.)

XIII. Treatment: If treatment or service is rendered to students or staff, describe in detail all procedures as well as time schedule.

XIV. Describe in detail the proposed involvement of local school personnel, students and facilities.

XV. Presentation of findings to school system: Approximate data of submitting written report, number of copies which will be made available, form of final report. Also, please indicate if you would be willing to give an oral presentation of your findings to the staff members involved.

XVI. Cite how the project's findings will be of practical use to the school system.

301 Erickson Hall
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48824
March 15, 1977

Mr. Paul Kacanek
Administrative Coordinator
  of Research and Evaluation
Ypsilanti Public Schools
1885 Packard Road
Ypsilanti, MI 48197

Dear Mr. Kacanek:

Enclosed is the <u>Application to Conduct Research in the School District of Ypsilanti</u> as I am requesting permission to interview teachers in Ypsilanti for my dissertation.

For the past two years, I have been assisting Dr. Laura Roehler with the reading in-service workshops. My duties have been to observe, interview and assist the workshop participants concerning implementing the reading continuum. Because of my role in the reading workshops, I have become acquainted with many of the Ypsilanti teachers.

In my proposed study, I want to interview ten of the reading workshop participants at their convenience. The interviews will be an outgrowth of my previous work with Dr. Roehler and the reading workshop participants.

I want to thank you for processing my application. I will call you on March 29, 1977 to find out the decision of the research committee.

Sincerely,

Michelle Johnston

Michelle Johnston

MJ:av

Enc.

March 8, 1977

Mr. Dwayne Brunn
Assistant Superintendent
Administrative Services Building
Warren Woods Public Schools
27100 Schoenherr Road
Warren, MI 48093

Dear Mr. Brunn:

The purpose of my proposed study is to describe teachers' conceptions
of reading using a sorting procedure called The Rep Test (Role Concept
Repertory Test) as an interview guide. After interviewing the
teachers, I'll attempt to categorize their responses to look for pat-
terns and match their responses to explanations of reading advanced by
some reading "experts." The teachers' responses will not be compared
or evaluated in anyway as I am only doing a descriptive study. Also,
the teachers must know that I'll code their responses to maintain
their anonymity.

During the interviews, the teachers will be asked to sort their students
into triads and answer questions about the students' reading. The
teachers should bring a class list to the interview or send a copy of
their lists in advance because their students' names will have to be
copied on 3 x 5 cards.

I'll be free to interview the 10 teachers on the following days:

> March 14 - March 18 (all day)
> March 22 - March 24 (all day)
> March 28, 29, and April 1 (all day)

Starting April 4th, I'll be free every Monday at 10:00 a.m. Because
of the distance, it would be helpful if I could see more than one
teacher per trip.

My study is a very small component of the Institute for Research on
Teaching at Michigan State University, and it is also a response to a
call for ethnographic research by the International Reading Associa-
tion. If you want information about either the IRT or IRA, please let
me know.

Mr. Dwayne Brunn
March 8, 1977
Page 2

Because of the mail procedures, it would be faster if you wrote me at
home. My home address is:

> 1928 Autumn Lane
> Lansing, MI 48912

Thank you for your help.

Cordially,

Michelle A. Johnston

Michelle A. Johnston
Instructor
Elementary and Special Education
301 Erickson Hall
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48824

MAJ/lr