DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 428 886 PS 027 470

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TITLE Early Childhood Research & Practice, An Internet Journal on

the Development, Care and Education of Young Children,

Spring 1999.

INSTITUTION ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood

Education, Champaign, IL.

SPONS AGENCY Office of Educational Research and Improvement (ED),

Washington, DC.

ISSN ISSN-1524-5039

PUB DATE 1999-02-27

NOTE 178p.; Individual papers have been separately analyzed, see

ED 418 771 and PS 027 471-977. Published biannually.

CONTRACT ED-99-CO-0020

AVAILABLE FROM http://ecrp.uiuc.edu/vlnl/index.html

PUB TYPE Collected Works - Serials (022) -- ERIC Publications (071)

JOURNAL CIT Early Childhood Research & Practice; v1 n1 Spr 1999

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC08 Plus Postage.

DESCRIPTORS Child Development; Cultural Context; Distance Education;

*Early Childhood Education; Fditing; *Educational Practices; *Educational Research; *Electronic Journals; Internet; Mixed Age Grouping; Parent Teacher Cooperation; Professional Development Schools; Scholarly Journals; Student Projects;

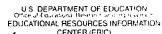
Teaching Methods; Theory Practice Relationship; Writing for

Publication

IDENTIFIERS Project Approach (Katz and Chard)

ABSTRACT

Early Childhood Research and Practice (ECRP), a peer-reviewed, Internet-only journal sponsored by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education (ERIC/EECE), covers topics related to the development, care, and education of children from birth to approximately age 8. ECRP emphasizes articles reporting on practice-related research and on issues related to practice, parent participation, and policy. ECRP also includes articles and essays that present opinions and reflections. This inaugural issue of ECRP includes a brief introductory editorial (Katz and Rothenberg). The following major articles: (1) "Children's Social Behavior in Relation to Participation in Mixed-Age or Same-Age Classrooms" (28 pages) (McClellan and Kinsey); (2) "Collaborative Course Development in Early Childhood Special Education through Distance Learning" (21 pages) (Hains, Conceicao-Runlee, Caro, and Marchel); (3) "The Restructuring of an Urban Elementary School: Lessons Learned as a Professional Development School Liaison" (9 pages) (Davis); (4) "A Neophyte Early Childhood Teacher's Developing Relationships with Parents: An Ecological Perspective" (15 pages) (Sumsion); (5) "Editing: Permission to Start Wrong" (9 pages) (Clemens); and (6) "International Perspectives on Early Childhood Education: Lessons from My Travels" (12 pages) (Katz); (7) "Writing for Electronic Journals" (12 pages) (Cesarone); (8) "From Themes to Projects" (15 pages) (Chard); and (9) "ERIC Database Citations on Topics Discussed in This Issue" (48 pages). A description of new products available from ERIC/EECE is included, along with general information and links related to the journal. (EV)



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Current Issue: Volume 1 Number 1 (Spring 1999)

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Early Childhood Research & Practice (ECRP), a peer-reviewed electronic journal sponsored by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education (ERIC/EECE) at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, covers topics related to the development, care, and education of children from birth to approximately age 8. ECRP emphasizes articles reporting on practice-related research and development, and on issues related to practice, parent participation, and policy. ECRP also includes articles and essays that present opinions and reflections, and letters to the editor.

Published biannually by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Children's Research Center, 51 Gerty Drive, Champaign, IL 61820-7469. This publication was funded by the Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education, under contract no. ED-99-CO-0020. Opinions expressed in this journal do not necessarily reflect the positions or policies of the Department of Education. ISSN 1524-5039.

Production Editors: Emily S. Van Hyning & Laurel Preece

大大大人,并以上的一个大人,一个多个人,我就是我们的人的人的人的人,我们们是我们的人

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April 05, 1999

ECRP established February 27, 1999.



an Internet journal on the development, care, and education of young children

Lilian G. Katz Editor Dianne Rothenberg Associate Editor

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Editorial

Lilian G. Katz & Dianne Rothenberg

This inaugural issue of *Early Childhood Research & Practice (ECRP)*, the first online refereed journal in the field of early childhood education, marks the 33rd year of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education (ERIC/EECE) at the University of Illinois at Urbana–Champaign.

We offer this biannual online journal as part of ERIC/EECE's mission to bring to the early childhood community articles, commentaries, reviews, information, and important announcements that address the whole range of current issues in all aspects of practice in the field. The journal will emphasize articles on research and development related to children and parents, and on such topics as the early childhood curriculum, parent participation, teacher and caregiver development and education, policy, and the entire spectrum of emerging ideas, issues, and problems related to practice in the field.

While the number of journals and other regular publications in the field has grown dramatically in the last three decades, we are especially pleased that with this new journal we are able to capitalize on the variety of resources available through the new information technologies. We are continuing to seek submissions that will build on the possibilities for using video, sound, hypertext links, searching capabilities, re-analyzable data sets, and the interactivity of the Internet—as well as text and graphics. *Early Childhood Research & Practice* is designed to combine the quality ensured by peer review with the flexibility and enhancements made possible by an electronic format, as described by Bernard Cesarone in this issue.

The journal will have three regular sections. The first, titled "Research and Practice," offers research papers on current practice-related issues and topics in the field of early childhood education. The second section, "Observations and Reflections," includes a

variety of formats designed to provoke readers' responses and reactions. Third, the "Features" section presents brief reports and announcements on current developments that we believe to be of interest to readers. We invite submissions for each of these three sections.

The first article presented in the "Research and Practice" section, by McClellan and Kinsey, offers welcome empirical data on the benefits of mixed-age grouping for children's social behavior. Hains, Conceição-Runlee, Caro, and Marchel describe the current status of distance education and the development of early childhood special education personnel, illustrating the central design issues and the processes involved in course development. Davis's article shares many insights into the complexities of collaboration between a university school of education and an inner-city elementary school under the rubric of a Professional Development School. Teaching in Australia presents many of the same challenges as elsewhere, as we learn from Sumsion's account of the development of a teacher's relationships with parents during her first 2 years of teaching. Sumsion draws implications for further research and development in this very important area of early childhood practice.

In the "Observations and Reflections" section, Clemens discusses the potential value to young children of engaging in the processes of re-visiting and editing their own work, and Katz shares some reflections on her work with early childhood education colleagues in many countries around the globe.

The "Features" section includes an article by Bernard Cesarone, Webmaster of ERIC/EECE, that considers possibilities for presenting information in electronic journals using Internet technologies, especially in the context of this journal. The article on projects presented here was contributed by Sylvia Chard and includes photographs that help us appreciate the kind of learning that good project work can provide. "New at ERIC/EECE" is also planned as a regular feature of *ECRP*, and we encourage you to examine its listing of new resources.

ECRP will publish two issues (available at no cost to users) in 1999. In 2000, we plan to make ECRP a quarterly publication. We are currently exploring possibilities for funding a quarterly journal. Author guidelines are available at ECRP's Web site at: http://ecrp.uiuc.edu/. Questions for ECRP editors can be emailed to ecrp.@uiuc.edu/.

We look forward to hearing your ideas and suggestions as we develop this new resource for the field of early childhood education.





Volume 1, Number 1

Children's Social Behavior in Relation to Participation in Mixed-Age or Same-Age Classrooms

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Diane E. McClellan & Susan J. Kinsey

Abstract

Research on the social and cognitive effects of grouping children in mixed-age (where there is an age span of at least 2 years among children) versus same-age classrooms is gaining increasing interest among practitioners and researchers. The present investigation used a teacher rating scale, based on research into the correlates of children's social skillfulness and acceptance by other children to assess children's social behavior in mixed- and same-age classrooms. Confounding variables such as the child's age and sex, the teacher's educational level, and classroom practices were statistically controlled. Further, a pretest of teacher ratings of kindergarten children who were later assigned to either a mixed- or same-age first-grade classroom showed no preexisting behavioral differences. Findings suggested a significant positive effect on children's prosocial behavior as a result of participation in a mixed-age classroom context. In addition, fewer children appeared to experience social isolation in mixed-age classrooms than in same-age classrooms. Aggressive behaviors were significantly less likely to be noted by teachers in mixed-age than in same-age classrooms. Follow-up ratings were taken of third-grade children, all of whom were by then enrolled in same-age classrooms. Children who had previously participated in mixed-age classrooms continued to be rated as significantly less aggressive and significantly more prosocial by their third-grade teachers. No differences were found in friendship patterns between children previously enrolled in same-age versus mixed-age classrooms.

Introduction

The United States has become increasingly concerned about the effectiveness of its primary and secondary educational system (Kagan, 1990). Societal trends that have impacted education include growing numbers of women entering the work force, decreasing nuclear and extended family size, and increased family mobility (Coleman, 1987). Such changes have contributed to a reduction from times past in children's

informal access to children of differing ages. In contrast to a historical pattern of children developing within an age-varied social system, many children today spend a majority of their time in an age-segregated milieu (Bronfenbrenner, 1970; Katz. Evangelou, & Hartman, 1990, McClellan, 1994). The results of this pattern of segregation are thought to contribute to a declining social support system and compromised development of children's social skills.

Coleman (1987) suggests the need for a significant institutional and societal response to support functions traditionally filled by the family, such as the development of feelings of belonging and community, emotional and social bonding, and nurturance. In easingly, the school has been viewed as one of the most effective and efficient contexts to address children's academic, affective, and social needs before these needs reach crisis proportions (Bronfenbrenner, 1970; Coleman, 1987; Parker & Asher, 1987). A growing body of research explores the influence of educational contexts on children's development. While interest has focused on the impact of the classroom environment on children's attitude toward school, cognitive growth, and academic development, less direct attention has been given to the relationship between classroom context (including the structure and content of children's peer relationships) and social development during the elementary years.

One approach explored by theoreticians and researchers for encouraging children's social skill development is mixed-age education. In mixed-age education, chil aren of at least a 2-year age span and diverse ability levels are grouped in a single classroom and are encouraged to share experiences involving intellectual, academic, and social skills (Goodlad & Anderson, 1987; Katz, Evangelou, & Hartman, 1990; McClellan, 1994). Consistency over time in relationships among teachers, children, and parents is viewed as one of the most significant strengths of the mixed-age approach because it encourages greater depth in children's social, academic, and intellectual development. The concept of the classroom as a "family" is encouraged, leading to expansion of the roles of nurturing and commitment on the part of both students and teacher (Feng. 1994; Hallion, 1994; Marshak, 1994).

The potential *social* implications of the mixed-age concept of education are strongly supported by Parker and Asher's (1987) review of the literature demonstrating the importance of peers in children's social development, and by Maccoby's (1992) study of reciprocity theory, which demonstrates the positive effect on child behavior of sustained close relationships between children and caregivers. Furthermore, research that has followed children over a 15-year period (Schweinhart, Weikart, & Launer, 1986) suggests that high-quality early childhood programs that foster children's social development in low-income communities contribute to a reduction in remedial education, depression, unemployment, illegitimate pregnancies, and criminal behavior as children grow into adulthood.

The adequate implementation of a mixed-age approach to education extends beyond simply mixing children of different ages together. A positive working model of a mixed-age classroom allows for the development of social skills as the teacher encourages cross-age interactions through tutoring and shared discovery. Social competence develops for older children out of their roles as teachers and nurturers, and for younger children out their opportunity to observe and model the behavior of their older classmates (Katz, Evangelou, & Hartman, 1990; Ridgway & Lawton, 1965).

We will look briefly at (1) the history of graded and mixed-age education; (2) the importance of children's social development to their overall development, including cognitive development; (3) particular domains of social functioning, including friendship, social, and aggressive behavior, in relationship to participation in mixed-age or same-age groups; (4) the potential mixed-age grouping may hold for educational reform; and (5) some of the issues and questions surrounding the validity of past research on mixed-age grouping.

Review of the Literature

A History and Contemporary Definition of Mixed-Age Education

Mixed-age education has its roots in the one-room schoolhouse of the 19th century (Goodlad & Anderson, 1987; Katz, Evangelou, & Hartman, 1990; Theilheimer, 1993). Like today's mixed-age classrooms, older children often tutored younger children. The classroom functioned much like a family in that close relationships developed, and children were both protected and nurtured. Classmates worked together with a blend of cooperation and competition, and students experienced a degree of flexibility in learning progression (Leight & Rinehart, 1992).

The establishment of graded education, where children of the same age were grouped homogeneously by classrooms, developed simultaneously with America's industrial revolution during the middle to end of the 19th century (Konner, 1975). Horace Mann, secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, introduced the concept following a trip to Prussia where he saw such a system in operation (Hallion, 1994). Using the organizational structure of the factory as a model, children were grouped by age to make the delivery of information cost-and time-efficient. To heighten schools' efficiency, children were tracked and labeled by finer and finer delineations of ability. The development of graded textbooks also contributed to the institution of graded education.

Although there was an early cry from a variety of disciplines around the turn of the century regarding the ineffectiveness of the stereotyped pattern of the graded school in dealing with the needs of the individual as a learner, return to the concept of mixed-age grouping of children for educational purposes did not receive much notice until the 1959 publication of Goodlad and Anderson's (1987), *The Nongraded Elementary School* (Gaustad, 1992; Katz, Evangelou, & Hartman, 1990). The intent of this model was to move education beyond the lock-step standardized curriculum methods previously employed by shifting the goal of instructional planning from the needs of the group to the needs of the individual child.

Stimulated by the outcomes of nongraded instruction as reported by Goodlad and Anderson, and in response to the political and social climate of the time that emphasized individuality as opposed to conformity and homogeneity, the 1960s and 1970s witnessed an open education movement that embraced modern principles of nongraded education (Devaney, 1974; Goodlad & Anderson, 1987). Many classrooms were modeled after the design of the British Infant Schools. However, this first wave of experimentation with mixed-age education lacked the support and understanding of both school administration and parents. Furthermore, early efforts at implementation lacked a consistent mixed-age model and were, therefore, hampered by inadequate curriculum

and staff development (Gaustad, 1992; Hallion, 1994).

The current classroom model for mixed-age education differs in definition from what was previously attempted. The mixed-age class is not a combination class where children of two grade levels are placed in one classroom but treated as two distinct subgroups (Surbeck, 1992). Rather, the contemporary model promotes integration of instruction across grade levels, with students having the opportunity to choose their own level of study. Children are encouraged to participate in cross-age interactions, taking on roles of leadership and peer tutoring. The teacher's role is to provide leadership, support, and scaffolding, rather than to adopt a laissez-faire approach, as was often the case in nongraded classrooms of the 1960s and 1970s (Greenberg, 1992; Theilheimer, 1993). The teacher is actively involved in helping each student follow an individual study plan, minimizing the possibility of a student receiving inappropriate instruction because of lack of attention.

Recognizing the need for consistent implementation of the mixed-age classroom for the purpose of studying the effects of the model, Nyc et al. (1995) provide the following definition:

... the practice of grouping children of more than one age and ability level (usually three age levels) together with a goal of maximizing teaching practices involving interaction, experiential learning, and fluid, flexible small group participation among children so that they experience a continuous progression of learning (cognitive and social) in keeping with their individual rate of knowledge and skill acquisition within an environment which prohibits artificial and arbitrary points which benchmark failure such as retention during the primary years. (p. 3)

The Importance of Social Development

Significant results in both the academic and affective domains favoring mixed-age classes have been demonstrated by a number of researchers (<u>Anderson & Payan, 1993</u>; <u>Marshak, 1994</u>; <u>McClellan, 1991</u>; <u>Miller, 1991</u>; <u>Nye et al., 1995</u>; <u>Pratt, 1986</u>). Particularly noteworthy is Anderson and Payan's review of 37 studies, which demonstrates improvement in test scores on standardized tests and improved attitudes toward school for students in mixed-age classes and especially for "blacks, boys, underachievers and students of low socioeconomic status" (<u>p. 50</u>). Of approximately 18 studies that looked specifically at low-income populations and mixed-age grouping, mixed-age emerges as a structure that, overall, promotes higher achievement scores, stronger social development, better self-concepts, and more positive attitudes toward school (<u>Anderson & Payan, 1993</u>). Results are more pronounced the longer students are involved in mixed-age programs.

Theoreticians and researchers suggest that there is evidence that the growing child's social interaction is important in the development of his or her cognitive abilities (Rogoff, 1990; Tizard, 1986; Vygotsky, 1978). In an extensive review of current research on brain development, Caine and Caine (1991) conclude that "emotions and cognition cannot be separated" (p. 66). Indeed, social cognition may lay the foundation

for cognition in general within both the development of the individual person and the genetic heritage of the species (Chance & Mead, 1953; Humphrey, 1976; Jolly, 1966; Tizard, 1986). If this is the case, we might look at mixed-age groups as providing the child with a rich and complex social environment that contributes to both greater social facility and greater cognitive competence.

Social behaviors of prominent interest to researchers because of their impact on developmental outcomes (<u>Parker & Asher, 1987</u>) include friendship patterns, prosocial behavior, and aggressive behavior. In the following section, we will discuss the role that each of these behavioral subsets plays in children's development. We will also discuss research exploring the relationship of mixed- and same-age grouping to friendship, prosocial, and aggressive behaviors.

Friendship, Prosocial, and Aggressive Behaviors

Research by Bloom (Goodlad & Anderson, 1987) suggests that the quality of young children's social competence accurately predicts academic as well as social competence in later grades. Social rejection in childhood decreases children's opportunities to achieve social competence (Parker & Asher, 1987) and is increasingly considered a serious problem that adults often fail to acknowledge or correct (Olweus, 1989). A study by Asher, Hymel & Renshaw (1984) revealed that unpopular children are significantly more likely to report episodes of loneliness than popular children. Additional research suggests that children experience greater social isolation (Adams, 1953; Zerby, 1961) in same-age than in mixed-age classrooms. Classes that are highly unidimensional, a construct frequently associated with same-age grouping, are reported to have more social "stars" (Rosenholtz & Simpson, 1984) but also more rejected and/or neglected children.

How well a child is liked by other children, or the child's "sociometric status," has been identified as one of the most accurate ways of selecting children who might be at risk for a variety of serious problems later in their lives (<u>Parker & Asher, 1987</u>). Neglected or withdrawn children have been shown to display significantly greater increases in prosocial behavior when paired with younger peers than when paired with same-age peers (<u>Furman, Rahe, & Hartup, 1979</u>). With the added practice and confidence these children gain, their social skillfulness may increase and lead to greater acceptance by children of all ages.

Prosocial behaviors include helping, sharing, cooperating, and caring for or taking responsibility for another (Radke-Yarrow, Zahn-Waxler, & Chapman, 1983). The capacity for prosocial behavior has been shown to increase with age in cultures where children are given opportunities and expected to help in the care of younger children (Whiting & Whiting, 1975). The provision of opportunity for prosocial action makes mixed-age groups highly pertinent. While it is not suggested that same-age mates do not behave prosocially toward one another, there is some evidence that younger children are more likely to elicit prosocial behavior from children than are same-age mates. The physical appearance or "babyness" of young children may make them more likely to evoke caregiving behaviors from children older than themselves. Furthermore, children are more likely to direct their assistance seeking or dependent behavior toward older rather than same-age or younger children (Whiting & Whiting, 1975). These two conditions may make it likely that prosocial behavior will emerge more frequently in

mixed-age classrooms than in same-age classrooms. Finally, because of the classroom structure, teachers in mixed-age classes are more likely to ask children to help one another than teachers in same-age classrooms.

Children who are aggressive and disruptive are often disliked and avoided by other children (<u>Dodge, 1983</u>; <u>Hartup & Moore, 1990</u>). Over time, aggressive children tend to associate more frequently with other aggressive children, thus reinforcing and solidifying an aggressive behavioral pattern (<u>Ladd, 1983</u>). Because aggressiveness and social rejection in childhood are the most consistent predictors of later life difficulties (<u>Parker & Asher, 1987</u>), conditions that vary in the extent to which they foster or reduce aggressive and disruptive behavior bear careful examination. Indicators that same-age classrooms may be related to higher levels of physical and verbal aggression than mixed-age classrooms may be of particular importance.

Bronfenbrenner (1970) argues that the concentration of same-age peers is a major factor in the extremely high incidence of aggressive, antisocial, and destructive acts in United States society. On the other hand, individuals who are familiar with one another are more likely to avoid aggression and respond positively to one another than are individuals unfamiliar with one another (Marler, 1976; Sherman, 1980). Because children in mixed-age classrooms live together in the same classroom for 2 or more years, it is likely that mixed-age groups may promote prosocial behavior in children, and concomitantly reduce aggression. Thus, the mixed-age classroom may help children who are or who are aggressive and/or disruptive before formal intervention becomes necessary.

Furthermore, it may be that the mixed-age setting is more likely than a same-age setting to avoid the polarization of teacher and students by facilitating an atmosphere of shared responsibility for classroom order. Research supporting this hypothesis is provided by Lougee and Graziano (1985) who observed that children given the opportunity to provide leadership for younger children in rule enforcement not only assisted the teacher in reminding younger students of classroom procedures but also tended to improve in their own behavior.

Mixed-Age Education as a Vehicle for Educational Reform

According to William Miller (1995) of the Washtenaw Intermediate School District of Ann Arbor, Michigan, "Educators have merely accepted the age-graded organizational structure as a way of doing things within the system of public education. As our society has changed, so must our schools" (p. 3). In the face of the lack of success in widespread implementation of alternative educational contexts, the "factory" model of education remains the predominant educational model in America's schools (Cuban, 1989). However, there is increasing evidence that this model is inconsistent with a wealth of recent research on the developing human brain (Caine & Caine, 1991; Huttenlocher, 1990; Kandel & Hawkins, 1992; Squire, 1992) and the kinds of educational strategies that bring about optimal learning and development. Ample research (see Ames, 1992; Johnson, Johnson, Johnson-Holubee, & Roy, 1984; Johnson, 1991; McClellan, 1994) demonstrates that children think more, learn more, remember more, take greater pleasure in learning, spend more time on task, and are more productive in classes that emphasize learning in well-implemented cooperative groups rather than in individualistic or competitive structures. Recent empirical findings demonstrate

academic gains for students participating in mixed-age classrooms (Nye et al., 1995). This research supports the supposition that children's opportunities to interact with more advanced and less advanced peers strengthen their cognitive skills, including, it is likely, social cognition. Additional support for the benefits of the mixed-age classroom is generated by research demonstrating that behaviors elicited in younger children when relating to children older than themselves include more mature and cognitively complex play (Goldman, 1981; Mounts & Roopnarine, 1987; Howes & Farver, 1987). These younger children also exhibit less reliance on adults and greater reliance on their peers for help in caretaking and problem-solving situations (Goldman, 1981; Ridgway & Lawton, 1965; Reuter & Yunik, 1973).

In conclusion, it appears from previous research that mixed-age grouping may be one aspect of a classroom environment that enhances the development of social and cognitive abilities (<u>Piaget</u>, 1977; <u>Tizard</u>, 1986; <u>Vygotsky</u>, 1978).

Refining Our Knowledge of the Effects of Mixed-Age Grouping

Predominant social/emotional effects of educational contexts (including mixed- or same-age grouping) that have been considered by researchers are children's attitude toward school and self-concept development. While no adverse social effects have been demonstrated in previous research, conflicting or inconclusive results on the influence of mixed-age structure on classroom behavior (Sundell, 1994; Veenman, 1995) suggest the need for more refined and definitive investigations, particularly delineating what constitutes the "mixed-age classroom." Veenman (1995), for example, notes that of the 11 studies meeting his criteria for inclusion in a meta-analysis directed at the cognitive effects of mixed- age versus same-age grouping, only two studies presented evidence of initial comparability of the experimental and control groups. Further research is needed to more specifically determine both the nature and impact of the mixed-age classroom.

In the following sections, we explore the potential of mixed-age versus same-age grouping for predicting children's prosocial, friendship-making, and aggressive behaviors. Our intent is to establish greater control over the many variables that may confound attempts to investigate the apparent differences between classrooms that have a mixture of ages and classrooms that are grouped according to an age span no greater than 1 year. Our investigation should not, therefore, be considered an exploration of multiage or mixed-age grouping as a broad philosophy that includes such approaches as cooperative groups, interest centers, and opportunities for child-directed projects. Rather, our exploration of mixed-age grouping is along the more narrow lines of what precise contribution the mixing of ages itself makes to children's social development. We have taken several steps to tease out differences in the power of mixed-age versus same-age classrooms in predicting children's aggressive, prosocial, and friendship behaviors.

First, we performed a pretest on kindergarten children who were all enrolled in same-age groups to detect potential initial differences that might account for later differences in social behavior at first through fifth grade. Second, we took steps to insure that the schools participating in the study were similar in their philosophic and procedural approach to children's education, regardless of whether children were enrolled in mixed-age or same-age classrooms. Third, using multiple regression data analysis, we controlled statistically for the many child, teacher, and classroom variables

that might confound the validity of mixed-age versus same-age classroom in predicting children's social behavior. In so doing, we hoped to identity if, and to what extent, mixed-age grouping, versus child, teacher, and classroom characteristics, makes a unique contribution to the creation of a classroom milieu that supports children's social development.

Methods

Data were collected regarding children's prosocial, aggressive, and friendship behaviors, as predicted by a variety of classroom variables, using a teacher rating scale that included 27 items rated on a continuum of 1 to 4 (1 = never and 4 = usually). The most central concern of this investigation was children's prosocial, friendship, and aggressive behaviors as related to their participation in a same- or mixed-age classroom. Because the scale for all items runs in the same direction, results must be interpreted carefully. For example, item number 4, "Has friends in class," runs from Never (1) to Very Often (4). However, item 6, "Physically aggressive with other children," also runs in the same direction, from Never (1) to Very Often (4). Therefore, the direction of the effect size is critical to interpreting the results of the findings.

Subjects

First- through fifth-grade children were recruited from two suburban, middle-class elementary schools (Schools A and B) in the greater Chicago area, and from two schools (Schools C and D) serving the Milwaukee inner-city population. School A functions primarily as a mixed-age classroom model (grades 1-3 and grades 4 and 5) with self-contained kindergartens and a limited number of single-grade classes offered at each grade level. School B offers primarily single-grade classes (grades K-8), with three mixed-age classes offered for children in the first- and second-grade age range. School C is comprised primarily of mixed-age classes (with the exception of kindergarten). School D offers primarily same-age classes (grades K-5). Schools A and B are very similar in the demographic make-up of their population, which includes middle- to upper-middle-class households. Nonminority students in Schools C and D combined make up approximately 12% of the student population. Minority children comprised approximately 14% of the children in Schools A and B. Fifty-one percent of the children in the study were male, and 49% were female; 65% of the children were middle-class, and 35% were from low-income families as defined by their participation in the federal lunch program.

A total of 566 subjects remained when incomplete information on students was eliminated from 29 classrooms included in the study. The mixed-age condition included a total of 275 children. Same-age classes included 391 children. Not included in these numbers is a pretest we conducted with 159 kindergarten students (all enrolled in same-age classes) whose teachers rated them on their social behavior. In addition, 203 third-grade students (all of whom were then enrolled in same-age classes) were rated by their teachers in a posttest approximately 1 year after their participation for at least 1 year in a mixed-age or same-age classroom.

Instrument

Teacher Rating Scale. Ladd and Profilet (1996) note that investigators tend to gather

information about children's social behavior in several different ways, including measurement of children's sociometric status, observations, and teacher rating scales. Different approaches provide both methodological advantages and disadvantages in obtaining accurate information about children's social behavior. Teacher ratings, particularly of younger children, have been found to be reliable indicators of children's social skill development (Hartup, 1983). The teacher rating form used in the current research is an outgrowth of a teacher rating tool originally developed by Asher and Renshaw (S. R. Asher, personal communication, 1988) and refinements that grew out of research regarding children's social skill development and acceptance by peers (Coic & Dodge, 1983). The rating scale used in the current study broadened the areas of social skills p eviously rated. For example, a question that had not been addressed by either Asher and Renshaw or McClellan (1991) was the willingness of children to include less popular children in their play or friendship groups.

While there are disadvantages to the use of teacher ratings as a means of gaining information about children's social behavior, not the least of which is the lack of uniformity in judgment from one class to the next, there are also some advantages to this form of assessment (McClellan, 1991). For example, teacher ratings may be a particularly valuable approach to the assessment of children's aggressive behavior, because aggression occurs rarely in classrooms and is therefore difficult to substantiate using observational techniques (Hartup, 1983; Winsler, 1993). In addition, Coie and Dodge (1988) point out that teacher ratings may be more closely related to accurate assessment of qualitative aspects of children's behavior (how empathetic or helpful a child may generally be with other children, for example) than are peer or observer assessments.

Finally, while studies using experimental models offer ideal control of the conditions affecting the dependent variable of interest, ecological validity is often low. That is, it is conceivable that results may be statistically significant under experimental conditions but lacking in predictive value when examined in actual social or other environments where the impact and interplay of a multitude of variables are usually much more complex (McClellan, 1991).

Teacher rating scales were completed by 29 teachers, who rated 566 students enrolled in their mixed-age or same-age classroom. Consistent with the importance of creating instruments that do not lead teachers or other evaluators to pick up on a researcher's expectations and respond to questions in a patterned manner (<u>Ladd & Profilet, 1996</u>), not all of the items included in the teacher rating instrument were central to the issues explored in the current investigation. In addition, items of interest were distributed throughout the rating scale rather than grouped with areas of similar interest.

Of interest were children's friendship behavior, prosocial behavior, and aggressive behavior. Subscales were developed around the variables of interest from the 27-item teacher rating scale: (1) a prosocial subscale (standardized reliability alpha = .88) included seven questions about the teacher's observations of each child's willingness to include children who are often excluded in play groups, nurturing behavior toward other children, and cooperative behavior; (2) a friendship behavior scale (standardized alpha = .92) included four questions about the teacher's observations of each child's inclusion in play and work groups and how well the child is liked and accepted by other children; (3) a verbal and physical aggression behavior scale (standardized alpha = .86) included

three questions about the teacher's observation of each child's verbal and physical aggression toward other children, as well as the degree to which they are perceived by their teachers as disruptive to the play and work of other children.

Reliability. While the reliability of our teacher rating scale has not undergone the same rigorous testing as was done by Ladd and Profilet (1996), a number of steps to insure the reliability and validity of the teacher rating scale and similar to those suggested by Ladd and Profilet were conducted. Inter-rater reliability was measured in previous research (McClellan, 1991) and found to be generally in the .85 to .92 range.

The reliability of the subscales has been remarkably consistent over time, falling generally within one or two points of the following: (1) the prosocial subscale's internal standardized reliability alpha equaled .88; (2) the friendship behavior scale's standardized alpha equaled .92; and (3) the verbal and physical aggression standardized alpha equaled .86.

Consistent with past research (Maccoby, 1992), the child's sex was found to be significantly predictive of social behavior, with females rated as significantly more prosocial and boy's judged as more aggressive in their social behavior. These results support research by Tanner and Decoti₃ (1995), who found gender differences between boys and girls in attitudes toward school, with girls demonstrating more positive attitudes toward school and school subjects than boys. Although noting that there is some controversy about the predictive value of gender differences, Ladd and Profilet (1996) suggest that the consistency of their findings of differences between male and female social behavior argues for the validity of the teacher rating form they used to measure children's social behavior. Consistent with Ladd and Profilet, our research reveals the same strong gender differences (see Table 1) in prosocial and aggressive behavior and, thus, increases our confidence in the validity and reliability of our teacher rating scale.

In addition, because assignment to mixed- or same-age class configuration is most often offered as a choice to parents, a pilot study (Kinsey, 1996) was conducted to investigate possible biases in parent choice. On the basis of questionnaire data, volunteers were selected to participate in a 30-minute semi-structured interview session. Forty-six questionnaires were completed and eight 30-minute interviews were conducted. A two-tailed *t*-test was used to analyze questionnaire data. Results from both survey and interview data indicated that there were no significant differences between families who chose mixed-age or same-age classroom placement.

Finally, findings in a pilot study by a trained observer (Kinsey, 1998) were consistent with the teacher ratings of children within their classrooms. That is, levels of aggressive, prosocial, and friendships behaviors as rated by teachers were consistent with observations by a trained observer on the incidents of aggressive, prosocial, and friendship behaviors in selected classrooms.

Procedures

Sample Selection. Several common parameters were evident in mixed- and same-age classrooms in all four schools: (1) all classes used a whole language/integrated curricular approach to teaching reading, witting, language arts, science, and social

studies; (2) all classes used a hands-on approach to teaching mathematics; (3) with the exception of kindergarten and special needs classes, all classes within each school had approximately the same amount of time allotted for instruction by specialists in the areas of art, physical education, computers, music, and library science; (4) within each school, all classes in grades 1–5 had the same structure in length and time of the school day, lunch, and recess; (5) mixed- and same-age classes in Schools A and B are balanced with respect to sex, socioeconomic status, student achievement, and special needs students, while mixed-age classes in School C, and same-age classes in school D, draw students from the same geographic area and are similar in ethnic and socioeconomic composition. (School C has a 75% minority population, primarily African-American; School D has a 99% African-American population.)

Data Collection. Rating scales were distributed to classroom teachers in the spring of the school year. Teachers were asked to respond to each item from a "gut feeling" rather than to observe each child carefully before responding. The intent of these instructions was to provide consistency in each teacher's manner of responding and to capture teachers' uncensored and perhaps more global responses to each student.

Teacher assessments of student behavior were collected anonymously for all students within classrooms. In addition, each teacher completed a teacher information survey that provided information about teacher and classroom characteristics. These teacher surveys were also coded, guaranteeing teachers that their responses would remain anonymous and private. Care was also taken to address issues of concern regarding survey information (Edclbrock, 1983): (1) survey completion was requested during the spring of the school term, allowing ample opportunity for teachers to be familiar with their students; (2) no first-year teachers were included in the study; (3) teachers were provided anonymity in their responses; and (4) all teacher respondents were given similar instructions and time frames within which to complete the surveys.

Data Analysis and Control Variables. Multiple regression analysis was used to acknowledge both the complexity of "real world" classrooms and the difficulty of controlling for or pulling out potentially dozens of confounding variables in preexisting classrooms. These variables include the child's sex, race, and age; teacher age and years of experience; and classroom parameters such as the number of activities and materials offered on a weekly basis and the frequency of children's opportunity to work individually or in small groups. The variables we controlled for in our statistical analysis were those that research has shown to be related to children's social behavior, or variables that anecdotal evidence suggests might bear a significant relationship to children's social behavior. These variables are listed in Table 1.

Results

In an extensive review of the research, Veenman (1995) notes that most prior studies lack rigor in identifying preexisting similarities or differences in curricular and organizational structures of classrooms. For example, many prior studies do not attempt to account for how much the differences in mixed-age versus same-age classrooms are related to a mixture of ages and how much might be related to other factors often accompanying mixed-age classrooms such as an emphasis on group work or teacher characteristics. Care was therefore taken in the current investigation to identify schools that were similar in their general orientation. As discussed previously, many additional

precautions were taken to clarify the degree to which mixed-age groups contribute uniquely to positive social outcomes among children. These precautions include multiple regression analysis of data to control for other classroom influences such as the teacher's age or the amount of time children spend working in groups.

Control variables selected were based on variables that have been found to be related to classroom (Oden & Ramsey, 1993), teacher (Nyc et al., 1995), individual (Maccoby, 1992), and family characteristics that may be related to children's social behavior. Supporting the reliability of the current study, those predictive variables found in past research to be associated with child behaviors were, for the most part, consistent with current findings.

The strength of the differences in predictive power between boys and girls suggests that this is an area where it is particularly important to note potential interactive effects between the participation of girls and boys in mixed-age versus same-age groupings. No interaction effects were found, indicating that the mixed-age classroom is equally beneficial to boys and girls in terms of reduced aggression and increased prosocial and friendship/peer acceptance behaviors. No interaction effects were found between grouping condition and socioeconomic status, ethnicity, or class size.

The following results, using two-tailed criteria of significance, argue strongly for a real and substantial difference between the degree to which the mixed-age classroom versus the same-age classroom is associated with positive social behavior among children. In interpreting Table 1, it is important to note that mixed-age was coded 1, and same-age was coded 2. In addition, the dependent variables (child behaviors) rated by the teachers were coded from "Never = 1" to "Very Often = 4" using a Likert scale. Because the scale for all items runs in the same direction, results must be interpreted carefully. For example, item 4, "Has friends in class," runs from Never (1) to Very Often (4). However, item 6, "Physically aggressive with other children," also runs in the same direction, from Never (1) to Very Often (4). Therefore, the direction of the effect size for child behavior scales is critical when interpreting the results of the findings. Predictive variables were coded as noted in the <u>Appendix</u> and are also important when interpreting the relationship between predictive and dependent variables.

Kindergarten and First-through Fifth-Grade Results

To test for the possibility that preexisting differences in children's prosocial, aggressive, or friendship behaviors were already present when they entered school, 159 children were rated by kindergarten teachers. All 159 of these children participated exclusively in same-age kindergartens. At first grade, approximately half of the rated kindergartners went into mixed-age classrooms, and half into same-age classrooms. No preexisting differences were found at the kindergarten level in teacher ratings of children who subsequently participated in same-age or mixed-age classrooms.

Based on statistical differences between social behaviors in mixed-age versus same-age classrooms during grades 1 through 5, a strong argument can be made that mixed-age grouping predicts more positive prosocial and friendship behaviors and less aggressive behavior (see Table 1). Teachers rated children's behavior in mixed-age classes as significantly more prosocial (p < .000) and significantly less aggressive (p < .000). Children in mixed-age classrooms were also rated higher in friendship behavior (p < .000).

.01). The significance of classroom grouping approach (mixed-age versus same-age) is particularly notable when viewed as a variable that educators can influence, as opposed to a predetermined condition such as the child's gender or socioeconomic status. As <u>Figure 1</u> indicates, the means for same-age versus mixed-age grouping reveal consistent differences in the social behavior of children participating in same-age versus mixed-age classrooms.

Of the 13 variables noted in <u>Table 1</u>, the three predictive variables that are highly significant across all three dependent variables (friendship behavior, prosocial behavior, and aggressive behavior) are the child's gender, the class size, and the grouping condition (mixed-age or same-age). The effect sizes for these variables parallel the results of other social science investigations, where multiple, often very subtle, variables exist (see b and R^2 in <u>Table 1</u>). The effect sizes of each of the three predominant predictive variables in this study exceed the effect sizes in most of the other individual variables by a solid margin. In prosocial and aggressive behaviors, effect size related to the social behavior of children in mixed-age classrooms (as demonstrated by the change in R^2) comes close to equaling the five other classroom variables combined.

Third-Grade Results

In third grade, all classes at School B become same-age classes. This school was therefore used to follow up on 203 third-graders. As the third-grade data indicate, social differences related to children's previous participation in same-age versus mixed-age classes continued even after all children involved in the investigation had moved into same-age classrooms As noted in Figure 2, children who had formally participated in same-age classes were rated as significantly more aggressive when compared to children who had participated in mixed-age first- and second-grade classes (p < .05). Children who had participated in mixed-age classrooms also continued to be rated as significantly more prosocial by their third-grade teachers (p = 02). No significant carryover in differences in friendship behaviors was found at the third-grade level.

Discussion

Oden & Ramsey (1993) note that the usefulness of research into children's social competence is often compromised because researchers, in an attempt to design carefully controlled studies that eliminate confounding variables through contrived random assignment situations, lose ecological validity. Such research may prove significant and provide a sizable effect size but provide little information about 'he variable of interest when it is related to dozens of other variables that are at play in a typical classroom, community, and family. We cannot control for or change the numerous genetic and environmental social characteristics that a child brings to the classroom. But we can begin to identify those variables in the classroom—through investigations in real classrooms as well as experimental and observational studies—that have unique as well as cumulative effects on children's social behavior and development.

We have learned a great deal in the last dozen years about individual differences in children's social acceptance by peers, but we know far less about the classroom contexts that affect children's social behavior and acceptance. A large portion of the research that concerns itself with children's social development has focused on the role of the individual child's behavior as a major factor in his or her status as accepted, rejected, or

neglected by peers (<u>Oden & Ramsey</u>, 1993). Less attention has been paid to the possibility that the kinds of environments that are created for children may affect their social behavior with their peers and may influence levels of rejection or neglect by peers. It may be that environmental factors such as the inclusion of a relatively large number of children of the same age in one group, vying with one another for a place in the classroom community, exacerbates the very social deficits in children that we then attempt to measure and/or ameliorate through individual interventions with children deemed inadequate in social skills.

The presence (<u>Kagan, Reznick, & Gibbons, 1989</u>) and tenacity (<u>Coie & Kupersmidt, 1983</u>) of individual differences in social skills and acceptance, and subsequent effectiveness of social skills training, have been documented and are not disputed. Rather, the issue of interest in this study is what kinds of social environments encourage, *in our classroom communities*, the growth and, where necessary, remediation of children's social skills. Specifically, the question of interest in this study has been whether the way children are grouped (homogeneously or heterogeneously) potentially contributes to children's social behavior for better or worse.

Although there are clearly limitations to this study, we believe the data and questions raised warrant further study. Specifically, the data suggest that participation in a mixed-age classroom does predict that children's behavior will be more prosocial, more grounded in friendship and acceptance by peers, and less fraught with aggression than does participation in a same-age classroom.

Although parent and child pretests at kindergarten indicated no significant differences in social behavior, children who participated in first through fifth grades in same-age versus mixed-age groups were not assigned randomly to these groupings; nor were teachers. Various teacher and classroom variables were controlled for statistically to minimize these differences, but the complexity of all that goes into determining whether a teacher will choose to teach in a mixed- or same-age classroom is, in all likelihood, more complex than those variables we were able to control for. Future research might explore the random assignment of teachers (trained in both approaches) to a mixed- or same-age context.

Many other questions have yet to be explored. For example, are there age spans (2, 3, 4 years?) that are most beneficial to the social development of children in a mixed-age classroom (Katz, Evangelou, & Hartman, 1990)? Do children in mixed-age groups need to be taught particular skills for functioning in this kind of environment? Fuchs et al. (1996) offer evidence that children who are specifically trained in facilitating the learning of others (rather than lecturing their younger peers, for example) are more effective in bringing about cognitive growth in the process of helping children solve an intellectual (or presumably social) problem. Many other questions remain to be explored as we attempt to maximize the benefits of the mixed-age classroom among a constellation of complementary approaches to children's learning.

The carryover of reduced aggression in children who moved from a mixed-age to a same-age experience is interesting because of research that demonstrates that increased aggression is one of the most stable and predictive variables for later life difficulties (Parker & Asher, 1987). In addition to possible long-term consequences, the importance of short-term benefits in classroom variables should not be considered inconsequential.

As Forman notes (Reggio Emilia electronic discussion group, September 7, 1996), [information on REGGIO-L can be found in the Reggio Emilia section of the ERIC/EECE Web site] long-term effects are not necessarily a reliable measure of the merits of a particular teaching method: "If we refine our attention to the form of improved performance, then we can support methods that render these forms. Every child has a right to be competent within and in terms of the current month. If we pay close attention to the months, the years will take care of themselves."

Mixed-age grouping is not a magic bullet, nor is it a technique we recommend that teachers use without consideration of complementary teaching and learning strategies. Rather, it is an approach that teachers interested in innovation may come to see as part of an evolving sense of the many characteristics (cooperative learning, the Project Approach, learning centers, and a decentralized classroom, for examples) that contribute to educational environments they believe are most beneficial for children's intellectual, academic, physical, dispositional, social, and emotional development.

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Table 1. First- through Fifth-Grade Students: Summary Table of Standardized Regression Coefficients across Dependent Variables.

		Dependent Variables		
<u>Predictive</u> <u>Variables</u>		<i>b</i> Prosocial Behavior	b Friendship Behavior	b Aggressive Behavior
Child- and Family- Related Variables	Child's Sex	.26****	.09*	28****
	SES	11	08	23**
	Ethnicity	.13**	.11*	11*
	Child's Age	.14*	.08	.16**
Total Adjusted Child and Family R ²		14.9%	2.2%	17%
Teacher-Related Variables	Teacher's Experience	.01	.13	10
	Teacher's Age	.08	.05	03
	Teacher's Education Level	.01	04	01
Teacher-Related Change in Adjusted R^2		4.7%	.8%	1%
Classroom-Related Variables	Class Size	.24***	.14	19**
	Staff Number in Class	.14**	11	.08
	Time Spent in Groups	22****	24***	.05
	Opportunities for Choice of Activity	.05	.21**	15*
	Number of Activities Available in Class	.01	14*	02
Classroom Change in Adjusted R ²	,	5.3%	4.6%	3.0%
Grouping	Grouping Mixed (Code 1) Same (Code 2)	21****	15**	.20****
Grouping Change in Adjusted R ²		2.5%	1.2%	2.5%

http://ecrp.uiuc.edu/v1n1/mctable1.html

Two-tailed *p* used.

Total n = 566Same-age n = 291Mixed-age n = 275 * p < .05

10. > q**

***p < .001

 $000. > q^{****}$

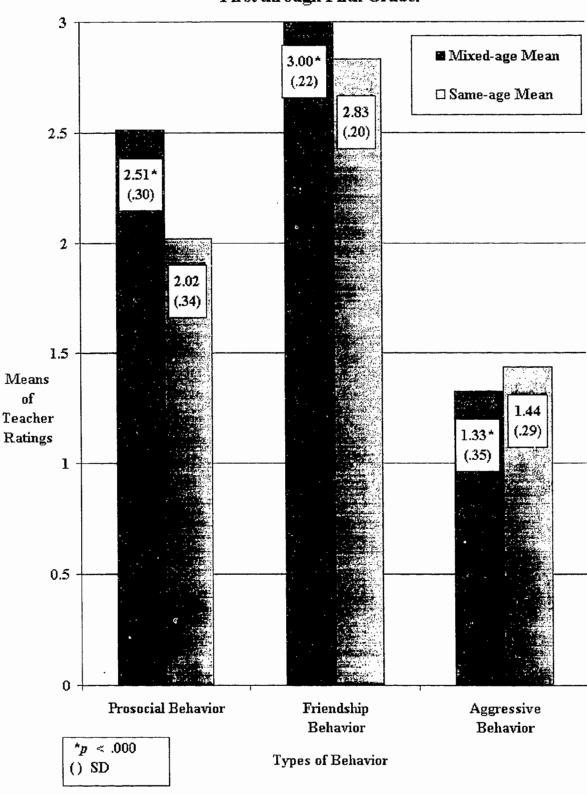


Figure 1. Means of Classroom Behavior: First through Fifth Grade.

3.5 ■ Mixed-age Mean 3 3.21 (.81)(.82)(.82)2.5 (.71)2 Means \mathbf{of} Teacher Ratings 1.5 1.60* (.60)1 0.5 0 Friendship Behavior **Prosocial Behavior** Aggressive Behavior p < .05Types of Behavior $\star\star_p = .02$ ()SD

Figure 2. Means of Classroom Behavior by Grouping: Third Grade.

Appendix. Coding System for Predictive Variables.

Mixed- or same-age grouping			
1 mixed 2 same			
Child's ethnicity			
1 minority 2 white			
Socioeconomic status			
1 low-income 2 middle-income			
Child's sex			
1 male 2 female			
Child has choice in activity			
1 frequently 2 sometimes 3 not usually 4 no			
Number of children in class			
On a continuum of 20–29			
Activities available in class on a weekly basis			
1 1-4 2 5-8 3 9-12 4 12			
Frequency of opportunities to work in small groups per week			
1 frequently 2 often 3 sometimes 4 never			
Grade			
1 first			

- 2 second
- 3 third
- 4 fourth
- 5 fifth

Staff number per class

- 1 1
- 22

Number of years teacher has taught

On a continuum

Teacher's degree

- 1 BA
- 2 BA+
- 3 MA
- 4 MA+

Teacher's age

- 1 22-30
- 2 31-45
- 3 46-55
- 4 56+

Aggression subscale

- 1 never
- 2 sometimes
- 3 often
- 4 very often

Prosocial subscale

- 1 never
- 2 sometimes
- 3 often
- 4 very often

Friendship subscale

- 1 never
- 2 sometimes
- 3 often
- 4 very often



Volume 1, Number 1

Collaborative Course Development in Early Childhood Special Education through Distance Learning

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Ann Higgins Hains, Simone Conceição-Runlee, Patricia Caro & Mary Ann Marchel

Abstract

Technology is rapidly expanding and changing higher education in multifaceted ways. Although the creation of new models of higher education is revolutionizing the way colleges compete for students, distance education has a long history, with correspondence courses as the earliest examples. Presently, distance learning through multimedia technology and the Internet is the newest solution for delivering instruction to personnel who are unable to travel to on-campus training sites. This article describes the current status of distance education methods for personnel preparation programs in early childhood special education (ECSE). A case study illustrates key design issues and presents the process and resources that assisted in development of a course in Wisconsin. Topics discussed in the case study include course development and content; the course delivery and design process; and the environment, instructional team, format and strategies, support, and evaluation. The article includes a glossary of terms in distance education, information on other ECSE distance education programs, and a list of online resources.

Introduction

Recent articles in the *Chronicle of Higher Education* document the transformation of higher education as it embraces the electronic world of the virtual university, virtual campus, virtual classroom, and virtual library (<u>Blumenstyk</u>, 1998; <u>Young</u>, 1998). Rapid technological growth brings changes because "the traditional world of higher education must either embrace this new virtual world or become less relevant in the value it adds to society" (<u>Van Dusen</u>, 1997, p. 2). Experts suggest that the last 27 months have seen more changes in technology than the last 97 years (<u>Brown</u>, 1997), and analysts predict that the rate of change in technology cycles will continue to increase (<u>Brown</u>, 1997). Institutions of higher education are becoming aware that to remain competitive, they

must respond to and adopt advanced techniques more rapidly than in the past. Teaching, learning, and doing business through various technologies are likely "to change the structure of our traditional institutions and profoundly impact everyone, but their effects will be more greatly felt by those who are directly involved in the education profession" (Saba, 1998, p. 5).

Although the creation of new models of higher education is revolutionizing the way colleges compete for students, distance education has a long history; it is more than 100 years old (Moore & Kearsley, 1996). For example, correspondence study [definition] is considered the first generation of distance education courses in academia. The first programs were established in the late 1800s (Moore & Kearsley, 1996; Verduin & Clark, 1991); in addition, instructional audio (originating at the University of Wisconsin in 1919) and instructional television (originating at the University of Iowa in the 1930s) brought new media to higher education (Chamberlain, 1980; Verduin & Clark, 1991). Presently, distance learning through multimedia technology and the Internet is the newest solution for delivering instruction to personnel who are unable to travel to on-campus training sites. Most notably, Western Governors' University, which links 17 western states and territories, and Florida Gulf Coast University, which links 15 southern states, are university consortia that deliver programs and degrees electronically (Blumenstyk, 1998; Shoun, 1998).

In early childhood special education (ECSE), distance learning programs grew more from the need to prepare personnel in rural and remote regions than from the need to etitive through technology (Hughes & Forest, 1997; Ludlow, 1994; Rule & stay c1 Stow. schek, 1991; Starlings, Wheeler, & Porterfield, 1992). Hughes and Forest (1997) found that 14 ECSE programs used distance learning methods. This information was gathered in 1995 by calling the early intervention coordinators in all states and reviewing national directories for information on distance learning initiatives (Hughes & Forest, 1997). Distance education methods ranged from "low tech," as in the case of weekend on-campus study where students travel to the university, to "high tech" interactive video teleconferencing [definition]. In general, the primary media for delivery of courses were live telecourse [definition], interactive television [definition], compressed video [definition], and taped video, with some programs using audio conferencing [definition] and mail correspondence; none of the 14 programs reported using computer conferencing [definition] or the Internet (see Table 1 for definitions of terminology).

<u>Table 2</u> shows the current status of ECSE programs using distance learning modes. The authors contacted the original 14 ECSE programs identified by Hughes and Forest (1997) and reviewed the status of their delivery systems. Three programs no longer offered a distance education course; two new programs were identified. Because programs and courses are dependent on several variables such as faculty, funding, and support, the information contained in <u>Table 2</u> will likely become quickly outdated as new programs develop and existing programs change.

As <u>Table 2</u> shows, compared to the results of Hughes and Forest (<u>1997</u>), computer-based methods increased substantially—which is not surprising given the rapid growth in the use of the Internet and Web-based technology between 1995 and the present. Additionally, faculty use a variety of distance education modalities.

Other trends include the movement toward interdisciplinary collaboration and multiple-site participation. Most of the distance education courses found in <u>Table 2</u> are taught by ECSE faculty for personnel in ECSE. Two exceptions are the cross-disciplinary master's of education program at the University of Minnesota–Duluth and a service coordination course at the University of Wisconsin–Madison, both of which are interdisciplinary in their faculty and student populations. While most courses originate from a single campus and are available to various sites, a unique collaboration exists between the University of Iowa, Iowa State University, and Northern Iowa University, which offer a collaborative ECSE master's degree, with courses originating from different campuses on a rotating schedule.

This article describes a unique statewide collaborative effort to deliver an ECSE course through a combination of traditional and distance education strategies. The process and the resources that assisted in planning this effort will be presented.

Capitalizing on Faculty Expertise through Distance Education: A Case Study in Statewide Collaboration

In Wisconsin, ECSE focuses on children ages birth to 8 with special needs and their families. Presently, eight institutions of higher education have faculty who provide undergraduate and graduate training to students seeking ECSE certification, including six University of Wisconsin (UW) campuses at Eau Claire, Oshkosh, Madison, Milwaukee, Stevens Point, and Whitewater, and two private colleges, Edgewood College and Silver Lake College. On each campus, there is typically one faculty member responsible for training and program development. With support (e.g., travel costs, compressed video [definition] costs) from the ECSE consultant at the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, faculty periodically meet to learn about new state initiatives and to discuss various personnel preparation issues. Two years ago, faculty identified the need for a collaborative course that would capitalize on the collective expertise of all ECSE faculty in Wisconsin, with the idea that distance education technologies might be the way to deliver such a course.

Course Development and Content

Several key factors contributed to the faculty's commitment to this endeavor. First, the interpersonal relationships among the ECSE faculty are strong. Faculty members know each other from various statewide work groups, and four of the eight faculty have served as president of the Wisconsin Division for Early Childhood, an active state professional organization. The Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction supports further faculty networking by facilitating meetings on important state initiatives. For example, faculty attended a meeting to learn about the new definition of "significant developmental delay" as an eligibility category. While faculty have retired or moved, and new faculty have joined the group, the relationships and group dynamics have been positive and collaborative over the 25 years that ECSE has existed in the state (Jenny Lange, personal communication, June 30, 1998).

A second key factor in establishing faculty commitment to this endeavor is funding. Given the research, teaching, and service activities already undertaken by faculty, the "nice idea" could not become a reality without some support for the extra effort. A small grant from the Wisconsin Comprehensive System of Personnel Development (CSPD)

discretionary funds supported initial planning (e.g., travel to meetings, conference calls, compressed video conferences), which encouraged the faculty to submit another grant to support course development. In 1998, the University of Wisconsin system funded an Undergraduate Teaching Improvement Grant to support the six University of Wisconsin campuses. This systemwide competition required proposals in which each campus had to provide matching funds for faculty release time; in addition to department approval, school/college and campus administration approvals were necessary to forward the application to the UW system.

In order to be inclusive of all ECSE faculty, the grant identified the faculty from private colleges (Edgewood College and Silver Lake College) as project consultants in developing and implementing the evaluation component of the grant. Thus, all ECSE faculty from the state's public and private institutions were included in the proposal. In addition to university faculty, the planning team included a parent of a child with a disability from the Wisconsin Personnel Development Project (responsible for Part C of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act [IDEA, Public Law 105-17], amended in 1997 to address early intervention services, birth to age 3, for young children with disabilities and their families), as well as the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction's early childhood special education consultant (responsible for Part B, Section 619, of IDEA, addressing preschool services for young children ages 3 to 6 with disabilities).

The goal of this cooperative endeavor was to develop an undergraduate/graduate course entitled *Current Issues and Practices in Early Childhood Special Education*. The focus was on increasing the quality of instruction to students and personnel throughout the state by utilizing the collective expertise of ECSE faculty. The target audience was preservice students, including undergraduate and initial certification students (students who have a degree in another field and who may or may not be seeking a master's degree). This course required students to attend one of the participating campuses for on-site instruction with a faculty member. On some campuses, faculty used existing courses; on other campuses, faculty established new or special courses. Enrollments varied from 2 to 28 students per campus (98 students total).

There were four objectives related to this course: (1) to develop a core curriculum and set of competencies to be acquired by all students, including undergraduate students, educators, related services personnel, paraprofessionals, parents, child care personnel, and program administrators; (b) to work collaboratively in defining what topics and activities would be prepared by which faculty using what types of technologies for the modules; (c) to evaluate the students and faculty so that information is collected regarding satisfaction with the course content, delivery (including technologies), and collaborative structure, as well as the traditional documentation of student learning outcomes; and (d) to integrate the new course content into the existing curriculum on each campus.

The first step in the course development process was to identify the core topical areas. The course outline addressed the following topics: (a) legislation and policy; (b) eligibility, identification, and assessment; (c) Individualized Family Service Plans (IFSPs) and Individual Education Plans (IEPs); (d) recommended practices and curricula; (e) medical and technological advances in intervention; and (f) research techniques and the efficacy of instruction. The next step was to determine the faculty

teams responsible for each topic. The faculty teams then created modules in which the course readings, activities, and assignments were developed (to see examples visit http://www.uwm.edu/web.uwm/ and find Exceptional Education 360-589).

Course Delivery and Design Process

Not only were the course contents new—the course delivery methods were, as well. The design and development of a distance education course depends on the nature of the course, its learners, the environment, the instructional team, instructional format and strategies or activities, support, and evaluation. The statewide scope of this course included a variety of learners in rural and remote areas in the state; therefore, special attention was given to the needs, characteristics, and expectations of learners in those areas. For example, in early discussions, a faculty member recommended a field visit to a neonatal intensive care unit (NICU) as an assignment; however, another colleague informed her that students in some locations may be hundreds of miles away from an NICU. Similarly, faculty planned for students to conduct observations in local programs, and they extended the assignment with a "virtual classroom" visit to an urban public school. By linking all campus sites to the school through compressed video, all students observed a culturally and linguistically diverse classroom.

Environment

Faculty awareness of the multiple environments in which a distance education class takes place is a new dilemma that requires careful attention (Murphy, 1998). For example, this course used compressed video, electronic mail [definition], electronic discussion lists, threaded discussions, and the World Wide Web, and it used "Web Course in a Box" as the Web-based course management tool (http://www.madduck.com/).

In addition, electronic reserve [definition] provided the course readings for students across the state. Rather than providing the "hard copy" of books or articles at each campus library, the UW-Milwaukee campus collected the materials from faculty and provided its library with the readings for scanning into electronic reserve. After the library scanned the materials, the readings were available to all students and faculty throughout the state via the World Wide Web (access was restricted by user ID/password). In order to view the articles, students and faculty were provided Adobe Acrobat® as the reader; they then can view the articles and print them, if desired. Because of copyright laws, articles remained on the Web for only one semester.

The dual challenge for faculty lies in learning how to use technologies themselves while providing for student technical training and course content delivery (Murphy, 1998). For example, in a traditional course, the faculty member entertains questions during class. Teaching with compressed video and using the Web for instruction require different skills than the traditional classroom approaches (Lehman, 1997). The instructional design consultant provided information on new strategies for teaching via compressed video, World Wide Web, and face-to-face interaction. The faculty learned by doing various practice activities: developing their faculty home page, using the threaded discussion feature of Web Course in a Box on "How I spent my summer vacation," and presenting a mini module on compressed video, with practice using the document camera and computer applications such as PowerPoint®.

The faculty each brought different skill levels and expertise in using new delivery approaches. This dilemma was not readily solved, and team building and support became critical factors. <u>Table 3</u> lists the World Wide Web resources that faculty used for information on distance education and online course development and instruction.

Faculty Participant Vignette

When we met initially to plan the collaborative course, I remember feeling overwhelmed. I believe that these feelings were linked to my inexperience with distance education and the related technology. We held several collaborative course development meetings. I felt overcome by terminology related to distance education delivery models.

What the heck is asynchronous video?

What is a threaded discussion?

Because I am a junior faculty member and "new" to this group of teacher trainers, I felt uncomfortable asking too many "dumb" questions. As I got to know members of the group across additional planning meetings, my comfort level increased. The more questions that I asked, the more aware I became of other group member's similar struggles. This for me has been the most valuable lesson from the experience in joint course development and delivery. In my mind, this has direct application to working with students in the use and application of technology. Students need to be provided with a learning environment that encourages inquiry and problem solving.

Instructional Team

Many of the chattenges in team building that have been identified for early intervention service providers and families (<u>Tuchman, 1996</u>) also occur with faculty—all of whom, in this situation, were from the same discipline. Although the faculty members were highly informed about characteristics of effective teams and team dynamics, proximity was an additional complication. Faculty resided in different areas of the state. Team building means taking time to get to know each other and to develop trusting relationships among team players (<u>Tuchman, 1996</u>). In this case, a combination of methods, including electronic mail, phone calls, face-to-face meetings, and video conferencing [<u>definition</u>], promoted collaboration in establishing communication channels, determining the mutual goals for the design of the course, and sharing responsibilities for its implementation. This involvement allowed faculty to select appropriate teams and team-teaching models (<u>Collins, 1997</u>; <u>Collins, Hemmeter, Schuster, & Stevens, 1996</u>).

Format and Strategies

The overall course format consisted of the class meeting one night each week for 3 hours, with the first hour and 20 minutes linked via compressed video. During the

remaining time, each faculty member conducted activities at his or her own site. For this course, the faculty employed an instructional design consultant to assist with the selection of format and instructional strategies. The planning of each session involved collaborative decisions on the overall framework, scope and sequence of the course, course timeline, and program design. Each faculty member participated in designing two or three instructional modules, and each team decided on a leader for the module to coordinate its development.

The instructional designer was responsible for assisting with staff development activities and for providing information on the various technologies and their most effective use. For example, faculty members learned how to use Web Course in a Box through hands-on sessions. Because Web-based course activities were new to most faculty, demonstrations of how activities are integrated into the curriculum through the use of electronic mail, electronic reserve, and online discussion forums were useful. Faculty comfort with the technology increased when the demonstration included specific information on how these activities foster faculty-to-faculty, faculty-to-student, and student-to-student communication; facilitate students' construction of a knowledge base; and individualize learning to the students' needs (Conceição-Runlee & Daley, 1998).

Support

The instructional design consultant was one key source of support for this project. The consultant's participation occurred because of grant funding. The consultant's role in offering a combination of instruction in pedagogical methodology, hands-on training with instructional technology, course design and class preparation, and group support were invaluable to faculty development. Leadership was another source of support for the project. One faculty member assumed responsibility for the grant writing activities, and she coordinated the project. Another faculty member assumed responsibility for the instructional design consultant and technology initiatives. Finally, incentives for faculty supported the process. The level of effort to develop and deliver a distance education course far exceeded that for normal course development. In this case, the grant funding provided release time from one course and access to travel funds for meetings. Overall, comprehensive faculty development and support for instructors who teach at a distance are critical for the success of distance learning courses (Robbins, 1997).

Evaluation

The need for accountability and quality assurance appears frequently in discussions of distance education. In his article, "Is Distance Education Comparable to 'Traditional Education'?" Farhad Saba suggests that this comparison is not meaningful; rather, he suggests that "what is important is communication and construction of knowledge" (Saba, 1998, p. 5). The course described here used several means of evaluation to encourage change and to modify learning, roles, and the overall program. A student pretest—posttest evaluation documented content knowledge and technology skills. A faculty pretest—posttest identified changes in levels of technology skills, collaboration adeptness, and distance education teaching competency. An adaptation of Stephen Brookfield's (1990) Learning Journal provided feedback after each session for both students and instructors. This feedback was critical for monitoring the quality of instructional delivery and program effectiveness. Evaluation tools are available at the faculty Web site, and results will be posted when data collection and analysis are

completed (http://www.uwm.edu/Dept/early-childhood/Evaluation/eval.htm).

Conclusion

With the explosion of the World Wide Web and other multimedia tools, distance education is an increasingly popular instructional mode to reach preservice and inservice professionals who may lack access to more traditional forms of education. As colleges and universities face declining financial support, they are turning toward new markets for educational services. These two conditions have catapulted higher education into a new arena. Clearly, the old models of preservice instruction (e.g., lecture as the dominant form of teaching) and inservice instruction (e.g., the train-and-hope model of staff development) are changing (Brookfield, 1995; Halpern, 1994; Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993; Rowland, Rule, & Decker, 1996; Wagschal, 1998; Winton.

McCollum, & Catlett, 1997; Wolfe, 1998; Wolfe & Snyder, 1997). The challenges for faculty are the simultaneous efforts to incorporate state-of-the-art curriculum, use recommended practices for adult learning, and select some combination of distance education tools that provides the best instructional delivery. Given the irrevocable emergence of this new technological era, the exciting opportunity for ECSE is that we have colleagues to help us.

Acknowledgments

This project was funded in part by a Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction discretionary grant and a University of Wisconsin system undergraduate teaching improvement grant.

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ECRP

Spring 1999

Table 1. Definition of Terms for Distance Education Modalities.

Audio conferencing: Class conducted by telephone using public lines between two or more remote locations with live, audio transmission. Students and faculty interact at regularly scheduled times using special equipment consisting of a speaker and microphones.

CD-ROM (Compact Disk-Read Only Memory): An optical storage system for computers that only allows data to be read off the disk. New data cannot be stored, and the disk cannot be erased for reuse. The high-quality color images produced can be incorporated into an electronic presentation or computer-based instruction.

Chat rooms: Two or more people set a time to meet online and communicate with each other live, using the keyboard to send written messages.

Compressed video conferencing: A course method in which images are transmitted electronically to two or more interactive television sites.

Computer conferencing: Form of communication where two or more participants can communicate using a computer connected by networks or phone lines. Students and faculty can type information (asynchronously or in real time) and respond to assignments/tasks on the computer screens.

Correspondence study: Courses are packaged with reading materials and assignments. Instructional tools may include audiotapes and/or videotapes that cover specific topic areas.

Electronic mail (e-mail): Messages, usually text, sent from one person to another via computer are used in courses as a communication tool among faculty and students. In this system, messages are automatically passed from one computer user to another through computer networks.

Electronic reserve: Used in courses as a tool for remote access of class materials. With this system, students may view, print, or download course material such as lecture notes, exams, journal articles, and book chapters.

Listservs: Electronic mailing lists used to allow students to communicate with one another. Users send e-mail to one address, whereupon their message is copied and sent to all of the other subscribers to the mailing list.

Telecourses: Courses in video format that are delivered via television or videotape. Course can be delivered live or taped.

Videotape distribution: Courses offered on campus are videotaped and distributed to students. It is the students' responsibility to view videotapes and complete assignments, readings, and tasks.

Video teleconferencing (Interactive te' vision): A course broadcast between two or more remote locations, with live, animated image transmission and display. Faculty and students can interact with each other with no delay.

Web conferencing (Chat rooms): A course system that allows two or more logged-in users to set up a typed, real-time, online conversation across the World Wide Web.

WWW: Courses are distributed on the World Wide Web in a retrieval system in which documents formatted in HyperText Markup Language (HTML) are linked via Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP) to other documents, as well as audio, video, and graphics files. By using a Web browser and clicking on bot spots, students can connect across the Internet and access course materials.

Table 2. ECSE Distance Education Resources.

Programs/Courses	Contact Person(s)	Distance Education Modalities	Undergraduate/Gradua Continuing Educatio
Collaborative ECSE Program Center for Persons with Disabilities Utah State University	Cyndi Rowland and Sarah Rule Logan, UT 84322-6800 Phone: (435) 797-3381 Fax: (435) 797-3944 Email: cyndi@cpd2.usu.cdu Internet: http://www.cecsep.usu.edu/	Correspondence Interactive television Electronic mail Chat rooms Videotapes Electronic ireserve CD-ROM	Graduate Certification
Department of Special Education West Virginia University	Barbara Ludlow Research & Office Park 955 Hartman Run Rd. Morgantown, WV 26505 Phone: (304) 293-3450 F :: (314) 293-6834 Lmail: bludlow@wvu.edu	Live telecourse	Graduate
Special Education Program Department of Special Education University of Alaska at Anchorage	Jill Wheeler and Susan Ryan School of Education 3211 Providence Dr. Anchorage, AK 99508 Phone: (907) 786-4439 Fax: (907) 786-1749 Email: afnjw@uaa.alaska.edu	Telecourses Videotape distribution Summer campus study Audio conferencing	Graduate Continuing Education
Project Options Department of Special Education University of Kentucky	Jennifer Grisham-Brown 124a Taylor Education Bldg. Lexington, KY 40506 Phone: (606) 257-7909 Fax: (606) 257-1325	Live telecourse Compressed video conferencing Satellite	Graduate
Early Childhood Special Education Program University of Maine at Farmington	Merrill Hill and Phyllis Fischer College of Education Farmington, ME 04938 Phone: (207) 778-7000 Fax: (207) 778-7247 Email: pfischer@maine.maine.edu	Live telecourse	Undergraduate

Iowa Regents Universities ECSE Graduate Training University of Northern Iowa Iowa State University University of Iowa Iowa Department of Education	Donna Raschke University of Northern Iowa 153 SEC Cedar Falls, IA 50614 Phone: (319) 273-3258 Fax: (319) 273-6997 Email: donna.raschke@uni.edu	Interactive television	Graduate
of Education Program University of	Joan Karp Department of Education 120 Montague Hall Duluth, MN 55812 Phone: (218) 726-6538 Fax: (218) 726-7073 Email: jkarp@d.umn.edu Internet: http://www.d.umn.edu/~hcarlson/preparation/distanceeducation.html	Interactive television Electronic mail Chat rooms Web-based (TopClass, threaded discussions) Correspondence	
Rural Family Support Specialist Training Program Department of Psychology The University of Montana	Sue Forest PhP345 Missoula, MT 59812 Phone: (406) 243-5763 Fax: (406) 243-6366 Email: sucl@sclway.umt.edu	Audiotapes Correspondence WWW Electronic mail Listservs Chat rooms Web conferencing	Undergraduate/Graduate
College of Education and Human Development University of North Dakota	Peggy Shaeffer P.O. Box 7189 Grand Forks, ND 58202 Phone: (701) 777-3144 Fax: (701) 777-4393 Email: shaeffer@badlands.nodak.edu	Interactive television Electronic mail	Graduate
University Affiliated Program Research and Education Planning Center University of Nevada	Cathy Fischer College of Education/MS 278 Reno, NV 89557-0082 Phone: (702) 784-4921 Fax: (702) 784-4997 Email: cjf@unr.edu	Audio	Undergraduate

Pathways to Effective Service	Linda Tuchman University of Wisconsin–Madison		Undergraduate/Graduate
Coordination for	1500 Highland Ave.	! !	!
Families of Infants	Madison, WI 53705		i :
and Toddlers	Phone: (608) 263-6467	;	:
Correspondence	Fax: (608) 263-0529		•
Course	Email:	1	
Waisman Center	tuchman@waisman.wisc.edu	•	
Early	Internet:		
Intervention	http://www.waisman.wisc.edu/	;	r r
Program	earlyint/cocourse.htm	1	
University of			
Wisconsin at			
Madison	ì	1	,
Collaborative	Patty Caro	Compressed	Undergraduate/Graduate
Course in ECSE	University of Wisconsin-Stevens	video	
University of	Point	Web-based:	
Wisconsin-	School of Education	Web Course in	
Eau Claire,	Stevens Point, WI 54481	a Box	
Madison,	Phone: (715) 346-3248	Electronic mail	
Milwaukee,	Fax: (715) 346-4846	Listservs	
Oshkosh,	Email: pcaro@uwsp.edu	Electronic	•
Stevens Point,	Internet:	reserve	:
Whitewater;	http://www.uwm.edu/wcb.uwm/		:
Edgewood College,		1	
Silver		1	
Lake College	: 		

Table 3. Online Resources.

Distance Education

General Distance Education Information http://www.athena.edu/Links/Distance.html http://www.edir.tamu.edu/

Distance Education Clearinghouse http://www.uwex.edu/disted/

Lists of Distance Education Resources for the Study of Special Education http://141.218.70.183/SPEDdistedwww/introdistedsped.html

Resources on Distance Education and the Use of Technology in Instruction http://www.utmem.edu/disted/deresource.html

Annotated Distance Education Resources on the Web http://www.aed.org/ndl/disted/disted.html

Distance and Alternative Education Resources http://www.beaulib.dtx.net/study.html

University of Idaho Web Site's Short Guides for Distance Education http://www.uidaho.edu/evo/distglan.html

The Wellspring: A Virtual Community of Distance Educators on the Web http://wellspring.isinj.com/

American Association for Higher Education, Technology Projects http://www.aahe.org/

World Conference of the International Council for Open and Distance Education http://www.icde.org/

National Center on Education Statistics: Report on Distance Education http://nces.ed.gov/pubs98/distance/index.html

Instructional Technology Resources http://www.inform.umd.edu/TeachTech/itech.html

Web-Based Course Development Tools

CourseWeb http://www.courseweb.org/

DiscoverWare http://www.discoverware.com/

Lotus Learning Space http://www.lotus.com/home.nsf/welcome/learnspace/

TopClass http://www.wbtsystems.com/

Virtual-U http://virtual-u.cs.sfu.ca/vuweb/

Web Course in a Box (WCB) http://www.madduck.com/

WebCT http://homebrew1.es.ube.ea/webet/

Other Resources for Web-Based Instruction and Conferencing

Instructional Management Systems http://www.imsproject.org/

First Class http://www.softarc.com/

Web Board http://webboard.ora.com/

ClassPoint http://www.wpine.com/

Videoconferencing for Learning http://www.kn.pacbell.com/vidconf/

Commercial Web Conferencing Software http://thinkofit.com/webconf/#commercial/

Free Web Conferencing Software http://thinkofit.com/webconf/#freeware/

Web-Based Instruction Software http://starbase.monmouth.edu/~cgrzesik/webased.html http://vetter.cmsfac.unewil.edu/~vetter/online-course-talk/software.html

Course Management Software Comparison Sites (Review and analysis of Web-based instruction software listed above.)

http://www.ctt.bc.ca/landonline/

http://www.umanitoba.ca/ip/tools/courseware/

http://node.on.ca/tfl/integrated/eye/

Selected Examples of Internet-Based Programs from Institutions of Higher Education

Virtual Universities: An Overview. Chronicle of Higher Education, Information Technology http://chronicle.com/infotech/

Connecticut State University System: OnlineCSU http://www.csu.ctstacu.edu/onlinecsu/

Florida Gulf Coast University http://www.fgcu.edu/

Harvard University's Berkman Center for Internet and Society, Cyberschool http://cyber.harvard.edu/metaschool.html

State University of New York: SUNY Learning http://sln1.suny.edu/sln/

University of Southern California's Andreus Gerontology Center Graduate Program http://www.usc.edu/go/AgeWorks/

University of Texas System: The University of Texas Telecampus http://www.uol.com/telecampus/

Course Preparation Resources

Instructional Technology Resources http://www.inform.umd.edu/TeachTech/itech.html

National Teaching and Learning Forum Home Page http://www.ntlf.com/

World Lecture Hall http://www.utexas.edu/world/lecture/

The Directory of Scholarly and Professional E-Conferences http://nzh2.com/KOVACS/

The Education Resource List http://www.findrnail.com/listsaver/edresource/

Syllabus Web http://www.syllabus.com/

Association for the Advancement of Computing in Education http://www.aacc.org/

Student Support Resources

TeacherNet: The Student Teacher Resource Page http://www.infs.com/presenters/softlist.html

Online Educational Resources: Federal Government Educational Resources on the Internet http://www.ed.gov/EdRes/EdFed/index.html http://wellspring.isinj.com/

American Association for Higher Education, Technology Projects http://www.aahc.org/

World Conference of the International Council for Open and Distance Education http://www.icde.org/

National Center on Education Statistics: Report on Distance Education http://nces.ed.gov/pubs98/distance/index.html

Instructional Technology Resources http://www.inform.umd.edu/TeachTech/itech.html



Volume 1, Number 1

The Restructuring of an Urban Elementary School: Lessons Learned as a Professional Development School Liaison

Michael D. Davis

Abstract

Collaborations between universities and schools can yield many benefits for both partners, but even in the best collaborations, some problems cannot be resolved easily. This paper describes the experiences over several years of one university-school collaboration, exploring the nature of collaborations that attempt to both restructure schools and provide high-quality opportunities for teacher preparation through Professional Development School (PDS) activities. The paper begins with background information on the university and inner-city school involved in the collaboration and the origin, purposes, and evolution of the program. The paper then discusses the change process, describing the slow process of building trust between the university liaison and school staff. Positive, permanent changes that occurred through 6 years of the collaboration are described, including the hiring of a full-time school social worker and full-time parent coordinator, having a General Equivalency Diploma (GED) course moved to the school's new parent resource room, and changes in the school's instructional program to become more child-centered. The paper concludes with reflections on the collaboration and complex change process, offering nine lessons grouped into three categories (Necessary Knowledge, Teacher Needs, and Research Priority) that are critical to such collaborations.

Introduction

After 6 years of working in a successful university-school collaboration with an inner-city public school, first as part of a funded restructuring project and then as a Professional Development School (PDS) liaison, the reality set in that we were no longer newlyweds. After many new initiatives and steady improvement, we had evolved into an odd couple dedicated to the task of educating 465 children. Some of the issues and concerns that arose were the result of real differences between the university and the school; others were caused by conflicts between a restructuring school and existing

central office policies. We came to the realization that even in the best of collaborations, some problems cannot be resolved easily, neatly, or maybe at all.

The purpose of this paper is to explore the nature of university—school collaborations that attempt to both restructure schools and provide high-quality opportunities for teacher preparation activities.

Program Description

The School of Education (SOE) is a member of the Holmes Partnership and is accredited by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). While teacher preparation is a graduate undertaking leading to a Master of Teaching degree, students may enter a 5-year program as freshmen and complete two majors and two degrees, or they may enter as graduate students provided they have an undergraduate degree in the humanities and sciences. The program requires students to do some of their clinical work in inner-city, urban settings.

The funded project was a university-school collaboration based on the premise that an "academy" approach, one in which groups of individuals come together for training and return to train colleagues in their school community, is a viable vehicle for instituting reform in urban elementary schools. The academy model made use of intensive staff development opportunities to empower teachers, parents, administrators, and community members to become part of the decision-making process.

Restructuring was based, at least partially, on a model developed by James Comer (1980) and his associates at Yale University that supports the participation of teachers, parents, and community members in the management of the schools. Site-based management, shared decision making, community involvement, and developmentally appropriate practice were all project priorities. While restructuring initially focused on training leadership teams, individual schools were charged with providing appropriate professional educational experiences for faculty and staff. Each school had a Staff Development Committee that was responsible for planning and evaluating monthly, half-day programs. Topics were chosen by the school faculty and included three types of presentations: those designed for a school-wide audience, those designed for grade levels, and those of interest to individual teachers.

The school where I worked is in a neighborhood with a high incidence of violent crimes including murder, assault, and drug abuse. The school building houses programs for 4-year-olds through fifth-graders, and all of the children qualify for participation in the Chapter I program. The teachers are experienced, dedicated, and willing to go the extra mile to insure that children have every opportunity to succeed. Many describe their teaching assignment in missionary terms; they are concerned with saving the children. Turnover is relatively low, with two to three teachers replaced yearly. Retirements account for most staff changes.

During the fall of the second year of the project, we began to explore the possibilities of the school becoming the university's first Professional Development School site. The discussion began with members of the School Planning Management Team (SPMT) and continued through late spring. At the end of the year, the superintendent and the dean of the SOE signed a memorandum of understanding establishing the school as a PDS.

The third year of the partnership began a combination PDS-restructuring process, with both operating as one initiative. The training focus of the project at that point was on competitive mini-grants for which each school developed a school improvement plan. My school's proposal tied cooperating teacher training to instructional improvement by stressing ways in which student teaching and practicum placements would benefit both the children and university students.

As we sought to advance the joint program, both sides—the school and the university—worked carefully to ensure that toes were not trampled and that everyone understood the expectations for each new activity; our unwritten theme was "no surprises." It was not long before we were forced to acknowledge that if the collaboration was going to grow, there were some critical issues that needed attention.

As in most schools, the teachers possessed a range of abilities; some were excellent, some competent, and some in the process of improving their skills as part of intensive staff-development opportunities. Generally, teacher educators want their students exposed to only the best models available. However, the school's teachers were protective of their own and resented any suggestions that some of their colleagues' teaching skills were less than desired. At the same time, the classroom teachers had no trouble refusing the professional development services of a university professor who they felt was overly critical of their school system.

When we discussed the fairness of a process in which the teachers could refuse the services of a professor, but I could not make judgments about the suitability of some teachers, they understood the dilemma. The teachers simply felt that colleagues were family, and you made allowances for family members. Over time, this issue was resolved by instituting a requirement for 25 hours of training before a teacher could accept a student teacher. As it turned out, none of the questionable teachers ever applied for the training, and the collaboration dodged a potentially lethal bullet.

The Change Process

Throughout my assignment, the university connection was able to provide services and opportunities to the school that were not previously available. For example, I was able to obtain free basketball tickets from the university so that hundreds of children could attend games as part of school-sponsored field trips. We visited a PDS that was sponsored by another university, conducted a seminar at a Governor's Conference on Education, and presented a session at an American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) conference. Together we wrote year-end reports, analyzed the building for safety concerns, and improved the climate with paint, color, plants, and new lighting. While all of these are legitimate activities that made the teachers and students feel good and cemented my relationship with the school, they were all relatively safe because none addressed the crux of restructuring: improved teaching and learning. Improving instruction proved to be a long, slow process.

From my many years of experience as a consultant, I recognized that some teachers would be reluctant to ask for assistance because they would not want to be seen as being incompetent. In order to alleviate these concerns, the teachers and principal agreed on a policy that I would not enter a classroom unless I was invited (except in rooms where

there was a student teacher), and any requests that teachers made for assistance were not to be recorded or shared in any way with the principal or anyone else unless the teacher decided to do so. Within the first semester, about 80% of the teachers invited me into their classrooms and provided an opportunity to discuss the children, goals, content, instruction, assessment, and/or behavioral problems. Some teachers asked for advice; others let me work with a small group. Still others wanted to talk about the restructuring process, the intent of the grant, or why I was willing to spend long hours in their school. "Are you writing a book?," "Is this a research study?," and "What are you getting out of this?" were commonly asked questions. For the most part, they were asked without malice in a legitimate, professional way, and frankly they were questions that I would have asked if placed in their position.

It was early in the third year of the project that a teacher with a combined second- and third-grade class asked me to work on a long-term project. She had mentioned to one of the practicum students that the classroom organization model she had used for years was not working. Children seemed to be on top of each other. The room was generally crowded and noisy and felt out of control. The student told her about some organization ideas that she had learned in my class the previous semester, and subsequently the teacher decided to ask for my assistance. After a number of discussion sessions spent exploring possible reasons for the problems, we decided on a three-stage project. First, the room and storage closets would be cleaned out. Second, we would co-teach a 2-week unit on working together and group problem sclving. And third, the children would help to develop a new room arrangement.

The project took about 7 weeks from beginning to end. Teachers would stop to see what we were doing, and I probably earned as much respect for washing shelves and carrying out trash as I did for teaching the children. For the first few times we taught together, the teacher was a little anxious about teaching with a "professor," and I was a little anxious about teaching her children. During the third session, we were comfortable enough to laugh with the children and each other, and from then on it went fairly smoothly. The children arrived at some design ideas that were incorporated into the room arrangement (others really weren't workable). The culminating activity was a moving day when the children actually rearranged the room. Their responsiveness and the teacher's endorsement of the process opened the door for four additional teachers to request assistance that year.

Program Changes

Positive, permanent changes occurred throughout the 6 years. Many of them required lengthy deliberations to arrive at a consensus position that could be embraced by all of the constituent parties. While there were a great number of successful initiatives, some were particularly beneficial to both the university and the school.

The hiring of a full-time school social worker and full-time parent coordinator provided services to children, parents, and teachers that were not previously available. Before restructuring began, the social worker had divided his time among three schools. His efforts were given to eligibility hearings and to truancy and abuse cases that ended up in family court. When he became full-time, he was able to add staff development, classroom instruction, and prevention activities to his duties. In addition, he was available to consult with students and faculty, and he regularly made presentations to

university classes and student teaching seminars. His presence served to provide a buffer between teachers, emotionally charged parents, and children in crisis.

The parent coordinator was responsible for parent education, parent involvement, and community activities. Prior to restructuring, the school had a weak PTA with few members and even fewer participants. There were no parent education programs and no opportunities for parent involvement anywhere in the building. The parent coordinator began by establishing a parent resource center with materials, furniture, and a coffee pot in an unused classroom. Because many of the parents were young, unemployed high school dropouts who were available during the day, the center became a gathering place for a small number of parents who walked their children to school. In time, as their trust in the coordinator grew, this group became the first classroom volunteers. At the same time, the coordinator worked with the previous year's PTA officers to develop a slate of officers and begin a membership drive. And while the first year's membership was small, by the third year the PTA had grown to over 250 members.

One of the most important accomplishments of the parent coordinator was having a General Equivalency Diploma (GED) course switched from a local community center to the parent resource room. Many parents spent two mornings a week working on their diploma and the remainder of the day as classroom volunteers. A second initiative, one that was requested by parents, was the scheduling of on-site classes to help them learn new parenting techniques. At various times during the year, a series of 1-hour parent workshops were presented to small groups who were concerned with finding new ways to raise their children. Often those who attended were single parents who were frustrated with being responsible for three or more children. The classes provided a network of support as well as the opportunity to learn skills.

Most of the university students assigned to the school were early childhood education majors who were required to take a course in working with parents. The parent coordinator became a prized guest lecturer and the parent resource center a favorite place for the students to visit.

A third area of change has been in the instructional program. After years of a compensatory approach that emphasized skill drills, the teaching/learning situation has become more child-focused. While there is still an emphasis on reading and math, there is also an emphasis on hands-on manipulatives, story reading, story writing, children's language, and the discovery process. Computers are available in each room and are used primarily for writing and research. Lastly, a portfolio assessment initiative has been adopted by the teachers as a way to augment the existing requirements for standardized tests. The portfolios are used to support the test scores or as evidence that problem areas have been addressed by the teachers and learned by the children. These three initiatives have brought the school's program more closely in line with what university students have been learning in their courses and have made the school a better place for clinical placements.

Reflections

Last year, a colleague took my place and is establishing his own way of operating in the building. My experiences have helped me to better understand the complexity of school change and have reinforced a personal belief that the needs of the people involved are as

important as the vision for restructuring. After 72 months on the job, I left with nine personal realizations about the change process that can be grouped into three categories: Necessary Knowledge, Teacher Needs, and Research Priority. While this is not an exhaustive list, these realizations seem to be particularly critical to school change and school–university collaborations.

Necessary Knowledge

- 1. No change ever takes place in a vacuum. An understanding of the inner workings of schools including the realities of bus schedules, budgets, state-mandated curriculum requirements, physical space limitations, and the political realities of superintendent-school board interactions are necessary so that no one is slighted and no policies or procedures are ignored. The reality of most change initiatives is that real power remains in school boards, central office staffs, and state authority (Guskey & Peterson, 1996). The question often comes down to what can be done within the context of existing regulations, rather than how the regulations might be changed. In referring to a study of the Coalition of Essential Schools, Muncey and McQuillan (1993) commented that most Coalition supporters were naive about the degree to which school reform could be affected by academic concerns and about issues of power and politics within their schools.
- 2. Most of the individuals who are working on reforming schools have little experience with the change process. Moreover, many of the reforms are visions or ideals that have to be operationalized by those serving in the schools. For teachers who have been given curricular scope and sequence documents their entire career, curriculum development is a complex and time-consuming task. For university faculty who teach curriculum theory, pragmatic concerns about resources, time, and standardized tests are often troublesome. New learning will have to occur among parents, administrators, and school board members, in order for the restructuring process to be successful (Wilson, Peterson, Ball, & Cohen, 1996).
- 3. An adequate timeline that permits teachers to become comfortable with different expectations and provides opportunities for teachers to individually determine how they will initiate the change process in their classrooms is essential. In general, the more extensive the change, the more time that is needed (Michaletz, 1985; Guskey & Peterson, 1996). In fact, Poole and Okeafor (1989) suggested that a timeline of 3 to 5 years is not unreasonable, a conclusion substantiated by the experience of the author. Even within a single school, consideration must be given to different rates of change, depending on the needs and interests of individuals, or we are likely to get no change at all (Adelman & Panton

Walking-Eagle, 1997).

4. Teaching people how to participate in school-based decision making, consensus building, and teamwork does not prescribe which issues they should address in School Planning Management Team (SPMT) meetings. It is difficult for members to stay on task without clearly defined values for student learning as a guide (Guskey & Peterson, 1996). Time has to be spent on the development of a mission, vision, and goals so that participants understand both the purpose and the organizational structure of the change process.

Teacher Needs

5. Investing in change is a daunting prospect for many teachers. They need to feel personal and professional ownership of the change process (<u>Martin & Saif</u>, 1985). Everyone concerned, even those who are critics of the proposed change, must be informed on a regular basis.

Often teachers want assurances from the administration that their efforts will be accepted and valued before they invest in a new approach to teaching and learning. Marsh and Jordan-Marsh (1985) suggest teachers need to feel that (a) the organization values and has a high priority for the proposed change, (b) the organization will reward eventual users, (c) a network of support and teacher assistance will be available, (d) there will be collegial efforts to implement the change, (e) there is enthusiasm for the change, and (f) there will be protection against potential enemies.

Because teachers generally spend their days confined to their own classrooms, opportunities for collegial interaction tend to be limited. Organizational structures designed to enhance teacher—teacher interaction and provisions for developing collegial support need to be built into the change process (Poole & Okeafor, 1989). In addition, staff development must focus on the social and emotional needs of teachers and not just on providing them with additional skills to enhance their teaching. No matter how much staff development is delivered, it is not until teachers actually implement a new approach that they have the most specific concerns and doubts. In fact, according to Guskey (1986), a change in teacher beliefs and attitudes is only likely to occur after changes in student outcomes are evidenced.

7. Restructuring schools is difficult; restructuring schools while implementing PDS activities makes it more so. Teachers want university students to see them as competent professionals. The nature of the change process is such that people are often

involved in implementing new ideas and are operating on a learn-as-you-go basis. It seems unfair for teachers to be assigned interns at a time when they are operating almost as novices themselves.

8. At many schools, a core of faculty members becomes active in the reform process, but their efforts often end up dividing the faculty (Muncey & McQuillan, 1993). It seems we expend a great deal of effort to get those on the sidelines involved, but we often forget that faculty leaders need emotional support in their new role as change agents.

Research Priority

9. The needs of the school always come before the needs of the university. There is never a time when a research-writing agenda takes precedence over curricular/instructional concerns. Because working in schools is not predictable in terms of process or outcomes, university faculty must be ready to postpone projects in order to address school priorities (<u>Davis & Fox</u>, in press).

Conclusion

Restructuring urban elementary schools is a process that works best when there are adequate resources to provide participants with the skills, knowledge, and understanding necessary to facilitate the change process in their own building. Change is a uniquely human activity that places extraordinary personal and professional expectations on teachers. It cannot follow a top-down approach, nor can it be planned in linear fashion where new accomplishments are expected as an everyday occurrence. The lessons learned by the author ultimately can be reduced to the importance of treating each individual school as a special case with needs unlike any other.

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ECRP Volume 1 Number 1 Spring 1999



Volume 1, Number 1

A Neophyte Early Childhood Teacher's Developing Relationships with Parents: An Ecological Perspective

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Abstract

Research has shown that close ties between early childhood teachers and parents are helpful for children, but many teachers have mixed feelings about, or feel unprepared for, such relationships. This study, drawn from a larger study of preservice and beginning teachers, used narrative inquiry to trace the development of an early childhood teacher's relationships with parents during her first 2 years of teaching. Interviews and an audiotaped journal provided material for construction of the narrative, which illustrates the teacher's gradual shift from a focus on self-preservation toward responsiveness and collaboration. The findings highlight the ecological nature of teacher-parent relationships and the integral role of teachers' personal qualities such as a commitment to reflection on professional practice and the capacity for empathy. Implications for fostering parent—teacher relationships and directions for further inquiry are considered.

Introduction

Despite the consensus that close links between parents and early childhood eductors are highly beneficial (see for example, Blenkin & Kelly, 1997; Katz, 1982; Shimoni, 1991; Stonehouse, 1994), many teachers' relationships with parents are tinged with ambivalence and even antipathy (Bernhard et al., 1998; Craig, 1998; Langenbrunner & Thornburg, 1980; Sharpe, 1991; Swick & McNight, 1989). Likewise, many early childhood student teachers feel unprepared for, or underestimate, their roles and responsibilities in developing relationships with parents (Morris & Taylor, 1998; McBride, 1989; Sumsion, 1997b). The cross-sectional survey methods used in most previous studies (see also Jones, White, Abey, & Benson, 1997; Kontos, Raikes, &

<u>Woods. 1983</u>), however, preclude in-depth exploration of the nuances in the relationships between early childhood professionals and parents and how these relationships develop over time (<u>Shpancer, 1998</u>). In contrast, the longitudinal study reported in this article, which was drawn from a larger study of preservice and beginning teachers, traces one early childhood teacher's relationships with parents during her first 2 years of teaching.

Research Perspective

Rather than survey methods, the present study adopts narrative inquiry techniques because, as Richardson (1990) reminds us, narrative is a fundamentally human way of making sense of life experiences. Interpersonal relationships are a fundamental part of those life experiences. Essentially, relationships involve "patterns of interactions, expectations, beliefs and affects organized at a level more abstract than observable behaviors" (Pianta, 1997, p. 14). Narrative inquiry has the potential to convey the complexity, dramas, tensions, and richness of interpersonal relationships in everyday life in early childhood settings and to enable a nuanced understanding of these phenomena (McLean, 1991). Moreover, by focusing attention on early childhood practitioners and parents, rather than the researcher, narrative accounts can provide a useful basis for reflection (Blenkin & Kelly, 1997). The account presented below invites practitioners, parents, teacher educators, and researchers to reflect on influences contributing to, or constraining, the nurturing and sustaining of relationships between practitioners and parents and to consider possible implications for practice.

Context

Pia (pseuconyms re used throughout to preserve confidentiality), the neophyte teacher featured in this article, graduated from an Australian university shortly after celebrating her 21st birthday. Her 3-year Bachelor of Teaching (Early Childhood) degree qualified her to work with children from birth to 8 years of age. By her final year of study, Pia demonstrated many of the qualities and skills expected of early childhood graduates (Sunsion, 1997b). The emphasis she placed on establishing warm and supportive relationships with children, however, did not seem to extend explicitly to establishing similarly warm and supportive relationships with parents. In Pia's words: "There was a big emphasis [in the preservice program] on parents and the important role that they play. But I remember thinking, 'Yeah, yeah, okay, they're important, but they drop their kid off, and off they go.'" The study reported in this article provided an opportunity to investigate any changes in these initial perceptions during her first years of teaching.

Immediately after graduation, Pia accepted a permanent position as the teacher–director of a Department of School Education (now Department of Education and Training) preschool in Sydney, Australia. The appointment took effect in February at the beginning of the school year. Pia was to replace the previous incumbent, Mrs. Thomas, who, after 14 years at the preschool, had recently retired. Margaret, the other member of the preschool staff, was an untrained assistant and had been appointed a few months earlier.

The preschool was located in a far corner of the grounds of a local primary school. The school served a low to mid socioeconomic community not far from Pia's parental home where she had lived while attending university and continued to live during her first 2

years of teaching. The preschool catered to fifty 4-year-olds from a range of cultural backgrounds. Children attended daily, in two groups, for a 2.5-hour session.

There was little contact between the preschool and the school. Pia's supervisor, the assistant principal of the school, had no background in early childhood education and told Pia: "I won't really be able to help you, but I'm sure that you will do what needs to be done." Despite her supervisor's confidence, Pia felt "very aware of the limits set by the school," particularly the expectation (as interpreted by Pia from her supervisor's comments) that "parents aren't involved very much at all. There seems to be a feeling that some things are very definitely the teacher's job."

Constructing the Narrative

During her first 2 years of teaching, Pia participated in six in-depth, individual interviews about her experiences as a beginning teacher. Four of these interviews, which were approximately 1 hour in duration, were held after hours in the preschool, and two were held on the university campus. Pia also took part in three small group interviews with three other beginning teachers from her graduating cohort. These interviews were also conducted on the university campus and varied in duration from 90 to 150 minutes. In addition, Pia agreed to keep an audiotaped journal.

All of the interviews were unstructured and, like the audio journal, provided an opportunity for free-ranging reflection. Pia was not asked specifically about her relationships with parents but was invited to elaborate when the topic arose. Transcripts of the interviews and the audio journal, as well as a draft of the narrative account presented below, were returned to Pia for verification. These naturalistic methods and the extended period of data collection contributed to the authenticity of the data.

The narrative that follows was developed by identifying sections of the interview and audiotaped transcripts that made mention of parents, and cutting and pasting these onto cards for ease of manipulation. Data were analyzed for critical incidents (<u>Tripp, 1993</u>) and emergent themes. Narrative fragments (<u>Blenkin & Kelly, 1997</u>) that best reflected these incidents and themes were then arranged chronologically and in a way that attempted to capture the "complexity, specificity and interconnectedness" of the issues involved (<u>Goodfellow, 1998a, p. 176</u>). Some editing took place to preserve coherency and continuity, although most of what follows is verbatim. Pia's voice now takes over (with the exception of the subheadings, which are the constructions of the author). This change in voice is indicated by indented text. Parents' voices and those of other teachers, as interpreted by Pia, are represented by the use of italics.

February 1996: Establishing an Identity, Striving for Acceptance

Everyone else on the [school] staff is so much older than me. I get the feeling that the parents are wondering who I am. She's very young, they seem to be saying. Mrs. Thomas was a middle-aged woman, and she had everything down to a T! I know that I will have to prove myself, but being so young, I will have to be very careful. I find that I'm always thinking, "I hope I meet their expectations. I hope that they will think that

I'm a good teacher." Some parents, though, seem to think, Well, she's just finished studying, so she'll have good ideas, and that helps.

Many of the parents have older children who went through the preschool when Mrs. Thomas was the director. Everyday those parents ask me why we are no longer doing things the same way as Mrs. Thomas. I find that really irritating. While I want to please them, and have some continuity, at the same time, I'm trying to get them to understand that there will be changes, and that they won't necessarily be negative changes. And I've found that really hard.

March 1996: Struggling for Control

I'm finding one parent especially pushy. Sometimes I feel a bit overwhelmed by her. This week, for example, she offered to take library time. I've set up a library, and on Fridays the children can borrow books. I have a roster for parents to help out. And, of course, she offered to put her name down for the first week. I told her the time that I had allocated for the library, and she said, No. I can't do it at that time. But get the kids to select their books, and I'll come back later to record what they've borrowed. And I thought, "Well, I'm the person who is supposed to be making the decisions about the library and about what works best for the children," and here was this parent coming in and telling me to rearrange my routine. I didn't take a stand because I want to try to please the parents. Let's face it, they are the users of the service, and it's important that their needs are being met. But in this particular instance, I felt that I should have stood up to her more.

At this stage, I think that it's best for Margaret and me and the kids to get to know each other without the parents. But one parent invites herself in all the time. Once or twice she has reprimanded the children and she shouldn't do that! I know that I'm not firm enough with her, but I feel as if I'm not strong enough yet to talk with parents about what they should and shouldn't be doing.

One of the parents who has older kids at the school asked me if she could come into the preschool after she had dropped them off, instead of waiting around at the bus stop for 45 minutes. I couldn't say to her, "No, it doesn't suit me," so I said "If you want to stay until your bus comes, that's okay." But she didn't just stay until the bus came. She stayed all morning. And now she's spending more and more time in here. The other parents have seen her in here and quite understandably have been asking, When can we come in and help? Why is Susie's mum always here? So I'm getting a bit of unrest amongst the

parents, but I think that I can get on top of it.

I have to get a roster started. But I probably won't have more than one parent come in at a time. Susie is really unsettled on the days her mother stays. And I don't want to risk that happening with other kids because we are still all getting settled.

April 1996: Balancing Needs, Honoring Beliefs

I'm trying to organise one thing at a time. I need time to think about the things that I want to do. Sometimes I feel that every parent wants something different. And some parents want answers straight away. When I say that I need time to think about it, they don't seem to realise that I mean for more than a few hours. One parent must have picked up from my tone that I was feeling hassled and pressured, and I felt really bad about that.

This has been a bad week, actually. The parents want me to do Easter stencils and have an Easter concert like they used to have with Mrs. Thomas, but I don't want to do that. I don't like the idea of children having to perform. I appreciate that it's Easter and that the parents would like to see something, but I was going to collect some of the children's work and have them help me make it into books and give them to their parents. That was going to be the special Easter event. But it seems that the parents are expecting something more. So I'm filled with a lot of mixed feelings and concerns about living up to parents' expectations about what kind of Easter celebrations I should have. Should I have the children "performing," which is what the parents expect, or should I have something more relevant to the children?

May 1996: Developing Confidence

I decided to go with Easter celebrations that were meaningful to the children. And the real reward for me was when a parent whose daughter was at the preschool last year, too, came up to me and said, Thank you very much. It was so great to see Jessica involved. Last year it was so above her level that she just wasn't part of it at all. And another parent said the same thing about her daughter. So to get this sort of feedback from parents after only one term was really rewarding.

I guess it taught me to go with what I believe in. But at the same time, I realise now, you have to justify what you are doing, and there needs to be open communication with parents so that they know where you are coming from, because your aims and objectives might not always be perfectly clear. And

that's where problems might tend to arise.

July 1996: Becoming Responsive

Eve has finally settled, and there have been no more tears! She had found it really hard to separate from her dad. He refused to leave while she was crying, so often he would be there for 40 minutes—if he didn't decide to take her home again. The other teachers said to me, Just tell Dad to leave. But I couldn't find it in my heart to do that, even though the situation became really frustrating. This has been another example where I followed what I really believed in—that is, that when Eve was ready, she would let go of Dad, that she needed to wait until she felt safe and comfortable, and that that would eventually happen. And sure enough, it did. I'm pleased with the way that I handled that situation. Her dad wrote to me saying how grateful he was that I hadn't asked him to leave, even though he knew that was what I had been thinking.

So that has been a situation which has turned out well, except that when I am not here, Eve still gets very upset and her father takes her home again. I usually try to let the parents know when I won't be in, and when I do that, Eve doesn't show up. That concerns me because I feel that it will be very hard for her when she starts school if she hasn't built up any coping mechanisms. I'm wondering whether I should arrange a time to talk to her mum and dad or whether I should leave it for another term or so and deal with it when it's closer to the time when she will be starting school. I will need to think about that a bit more.

September 1996: Recognizing Complexities

Some of the parents have been asking me whether I think their children are ready for school next year. And in some cases it's really difficult—like Jim. He's developed well this year, but I don't think he is ready for kindergarten [the first year of school]. But his grandmother won't be able to keep looking after him as often as she is. And I don't think that Alex is ready to start school, either. It's really difficult for his mum, though, because she has three children under 5, and I know that a whole-day program would suit her much better.

February 1997: Valuing Relationships

I'm feeling a lot more confident, and I'm finding the parents much less stressful. Lots of parents have come in to ask for help. One parent has been having behavioural problems with her child at home. I was able to pass on some literature and to arrange for her to speak to the school counsellor. And I've arranged for another child to see an occupational therapist.

I see so many kids over in the school who seem to be almost written off as a lost cause. I can understand the teachers' point of view when they have tried to do so much for these kids in terms of providing alternative programs. They say that there is no point because it's reinforced at home. But I've found that most parents will go to almost any lengths to work together with the teacher to help their kids. And I've learned how important that is. I feel that there is now a lot more communication happening between the parents and myself, and I hope to continue that.

March 1997: Managing Tensions

An incident has happened that has really affected me. One child last year had a major speech problem. I sat down with his parents, and we worked out a program for him. I recommended that he wait another year before he started school, and I offered to take him for another year, but his parents didn't want that. So I gave them a report to take to the school [in a nearby suburb]. But I've just heard through a friend who teaches at that school that his kindergarten teacher has been saying, How is it possible that this child has attended preschool for a year and nothing has been documented or reported? Is this another case of a child having slipped through the system? That really got to me, so I phoned the school to ask how the kids from our preschool were going. And the kindergarten teacher said, Oh, I'm so glad you've called. I've been really worried about Anthony.

I explained that I had been very concerned about him, too, and that I had written reports for his parents to take to the school. She hadn't been given those. So I faxed her copies of my reports and of my observations, and of tests that had been done, and she was ever so grateful. If I'd sat back and not done anything for him, then I'd have to accept that. But we did so much for him!

At the end of last year, when his parents said that they would speak to his kindergarten teacher, I didn't feel that I then had a right to contact the school. Maybe the parents thought that if they didn't say anything to the teacher, then she wouldn't notice that anything was wrong. Perhaps, in their culture, it's not a good thing to have a child with special needs. But I guess that this year, I will have to explain to parents of kids with special needs that I would like to send the reports straight off to the schools rather than giving them the reports to take. Hopefully, that will avoid what happened with Anthony.

May 1997: Sharing Triumphs

I must tell you this! Do you remember Jacob? We had so many concerns about him. His parents are really grateful for all the work we did with him last year. And I've got his younger sister this year, so I'm still in close contact with them. We have a great relationship, which is nice, because they could easily have become a bit resentful. Like any parents, they could have thought, *There's nothing wrong with my child!*

Anyway, Jacob had been at school for a whole term now and still hadn't played with anyone. But his mum rushed in yesterday and said: Pia, I have to share something with you and Margaret because I don't feel as if I can share it with anyone else. I was walking though the playground today, and Jacob took another child's hand and came running up to me! And then she burst into tears. Oh, I'm silly to be crying, she said, but it's just so hard always seeing your child by himself. And now, suddenly, he's got a friend!

August 1997: Providing Reassurance

We've just had a Teddy Bear's picnic. The kids were so excited about it that we had to count down the "sleeps!" They were going to do some songs and dances with their teddies, and the parents were coming in to watch. I had this feeling all along about Jack. When we practised, he was fine. But on the day, as soon as he arrived, he said that he didn't want to take part. I said, "That's okay. Maybe you'll change your mind when the time comes, but if you still don't want to do it, that's fine." As it turned out, he didn't join in. He wouldn't even let go of his mum's leg.

She was really upset, but a few days later she said to me, I'm really glad Jack has a teacher like you because I had a lot of really negative experiences when I went to school. I was really shy—a lot like Jack. And my teachers always made me do things and I ended up being even more introverted as an adult than I was as a child. And I'm scared that's going to happen to Jack. And I'm really concerned that when he goes to kindergarten, he might have a teacher who says, "You have to do it." I was pleased that she had been able to confide in me, but I couldn't give her any guarantees about the next teacher he might have.

December 1997: Creating a Community

We've just had our end-of-year get-together. At lunch time, Margaret and I looked up, and the parents from the morning and afternoon groups were sitting together in small groups on the grass with the kids. They were talking about the kids and the issues they are all dealing with at the moment—things like: My child is doing this. Does your child react the same way? Is that normal? They seemed really relaxed and at ease. Then later, when we had the dancing, we invited the parents to join. I had been worried about that. We're quite limited in the amount of space we have, and the parents always bring so many Aunties and Uncles as well, and so many extra children! But Margaret encouraged me, and I'm so glad she did! It was the most successful and rewarding experience—a wonderful end to the year!

Interpreting the Narrative

Pia's narrative reveals a distinct shift in her relationships with parents during her first 2 years of teaching. Initially uncertain as to whether she would be accepted by parents, insecure about her professional identity, and overwhelmed by the many demands facing her as a neophyte teacher, Pia's major concern was her perceived vulnerability. She struggled to create a space in which she could establish a sense of professional identity and autonomy—a space that she believed could only be maintained by keeping as much distance between herself and parents as possible. When parents threatened to invade this space, she tried to tightly control their access.

Her commitment to the children and concern for their well-being, however, ultimately thwarted these defensive strategies of isolation and control. When children's needs for parental presence and support in the classroom as they made the transition from home to preschool conflicted with her self-protective need to distance parents, the children's needs took precedence. Moreover, Pia found that as parents established an initially uninvited presence in her classroom, it became harder to continue to restrict their access. Yet, the more parents became involved, the more she became attuned to their perspectives and concerns. Increasingly, she realized that she was able to assist and support parents, and, as she gained their confidence and trust, her professional confidence soared. Slowly, Pia dismantled the earlier barriers she had erected to distance herself from parents, and gradually a sense of relationship and community emerged.

This shift in focus from self-preservation toward responsiveness and collaboration was gradual. Her need for isolation and control resurfaced in moments of insecurity; as she struggled with ongoing tensions and professional dilemmas, her emphasis on control and her receptivity to collaboration fluctuated considerably. If visualized as a continuum, however, Pia's response to parents moved unmistakably from a previous preoccupation with self-protective power toward the establishment of mutually supportive relationships based on respect, trust, and open communication.

It is interesting to speculate about why Pia became increasingly responsive to parents, given what might be described as inauspicious circumstances. Her preservice program seemed not to have been particularly influential in fostering in her a strong commitment to parents. The culture of the school appeared not to value close relationships with parents. She had no colleagues able to provide positive role models in building relationships with parents. Nor did she take part in any professional development programs focusing on promoting parent participation.

Although Pia's growing responsiveness to parents coincided with an emerging sense of professional identity, the associated development in her personal and professional confidence, in itself, does not explain why she become increasingly attuned to parents. After all, most of the far more experienced teachers in the school, who presumably had a well-developed sense of professional identity, had not established particularly close relationships with parents. It seemed that in a professional context not especially conducive to fostering parent—teacher relationships, Pia's personal qualities were instrumental. Three of these qualities—her propensity to reflect on her practice (see also Sumsion, 1997a), her commitment to children, and her capacity for empathy—seemed particularly important and are discussed below.

Pia's emphasis on reflection was evident in her tendency to revisit her experiences, to continue to refine her professional beliefs, and to consider their implications for her practice (Boud, Keogh, & Walker, 1985). Indeed, her conversations with herself about her practice permeated much of her narrative. Even during the height of her self-perceived vulnerability, she recognized that the tensions and dilemmas that she encountered in her practice could be viewed from a range of perspectives. In a context of uncertainty and complexity, exacerbated by her lack of experience, she drew on insights generated by these different perspectives to guide her professional judgments.

Underpinning Pia's decision making was her commitment to ensuring that children were supported by strong, nurturing relationships. To Pia, promoting a close, caring relationship between child and teacher, and between child and parents, was integral to her professional role. Yet, although she respected the complementary contributions of teacher and parents, initially she envisaged that she could work largely in isolation from parents.

The mutual commitment to children that she shared with parents, however, seemed to act as a conduit that inexorably connected Pia to parents. This emerging sense of connectedness, to paraphrase Goodfellow (1996, p. 4), could also be attributed to Pia's attempts to understand the parents' perspectives and the meaning they gave to situations. Her capacity to recognize and appreciate different perspectives appeared to enhance her capacity for empathy or ability "to move outside oneself" (Goodfellow, 1997, p. 3) and into "the shoes of other[s]" (Holman, 1994, p. 72). As empathy, by its very nature, necessitates loosening the boundaries around oneself (Jordan, 1991), her initial preference for isolation and control as means of self-preservation soon became unsustainable. In short, the interconnections between Pia's propensity to reflect on her practice, her shared commitment to children's well-being, and her empathy for parents and children, appear to explain why Pia was able to transcend her initial ambivalence toward parents.

Implications of the Narrative

Pia's narrative supports calls for reconceptualizing interpersonal relationships in early childhood programs from an ecological perspective (e.g., Elicker, 1997; Mel.ean, 1991; Pianta, 1997). Essentially, an ecological perspective recognizes that "everything is connected to everything else" (Wideen, Mayer-Smith, & Moon, 1998, p. 168) and that these interconnections are fluid, not static. Ecosystems such as the relationships in early childhood settings are best understood, therefore, by exploring their dynamic nature

rather than by trying to tease out their constitutive components.

Most previous studies into teacher–parent relationships in early childhood settings, in contrast, have tended to see teachers and parents as separate entities (<u>Hascloff, 1990</u>; <u>Henry, 1996</u>; <u>Shpancer, 1998</u>). Critics argue that the studies' relatively narrow focus on elements perceived to be discrete contributing factors to parent–teacher relationships (e.g., rates of parent–teacher contact, teachers' perceptions of parents' competence as caregivers, or parents' satisfaction with the program provided by the child care setting) has tended to obscure the complexity of these relationships. As Shpancer (<u>1998</u>), for example, points out, it is not the day-to-day contact rates between parents and teachers that are important but the responsiveness of their relationships. In times of adverse changes in circumstances, for instance, do parents and teacher become closer, as happened in Pia's situation, or are they more inclined to withdraw?

To address questions such as these, we need to focus more on the complexity and dynamics of such relationships. Shpancer (1998) contends that there has been little consideration, for example, of how children might shape teacher-parent relationships, even though it is widely accepted that adults are influenced by children's behaviors. The pivotal role children played in Pia's developing relationships with parents supports his call to extend traditional conceptualizations of the "parent-teacher dyad" to at least encompass children as part of a broader ecological perspective. A greater emphasis on dynamic interconnections could also include more attention to the role of emotions and the part they play in relationships in early childhood settings. As Hargreaves (1997) points out, and as Pia's narrative illustrates, emotions are fundamental to teaching, to making sense of one's work as teacher, and to developing (or constraining) relationships between parents and teachers.

The importance of empathy, for example, underpins Pia's narrative and reinforces calls to recognize the centrality of caring relationships in early childhood settings. Caring relationships are characterized by mutual responsiveness and respectfulness rather than imbalances in status and power (Goodfellow, 1997, 1998b). Professional development programs (both preservice and inservice), then, may need to move beyond their traditional emphasis on teacher-initiated activities such as "drawing up rosters, getting parents to assist in special outings, or even making a home visit now and again" (Haseloff, 1990, p. 54), with parents seemingly assumed to be the passive recipients of teacher initiatives.

Mutually responsive relationships seem more likely to flourish if such programs focus more on the interconnectedness of parents and teachers through their mutual commitment to children and on exploring ways to enhance and celebrate this connectedness (Haseloff, 1990; Henry, 1996). This focus might involve providing opportunities for teachers (and student teachers) to participate in informal exchanges in which they are able to share stories of their experiences and explore concerns within a supportive environment. Such exchanges can generate new possibilities and expand professional horizons about how current practices might be enriched (Blenkin & Kelly, 1997). Opportunities for parents and teachers to exchange experiences would appear even more useful in promoting an understanding of different perspectives and in fostering empathy.

Pia's narrative suggests that, as well as her capacity for empathy, her ability to reflect on

her practice was instrumental in her emerging relationships with parents. This finding reinforces the need for preservice and inservice programs to promote a reflective orientation to professional practice. Narratives such as Pia's (and even better, those written by early childhood practitioners and parents themselves) could serve as "case stories" (Patterson & Fleet, 1998, p. 72) through which to highlight the complexity of teacher—parent relationships and to explore influences that might promote or constrain their development. They could also encourage teachers and student teachers to engage in ongoing reflection on their own practice and to undertake action research into their own relationships with parents. Indeed, given the importance of interpersonal dynamics to parent—teacher relationships, practitioner research—in which teachers investigate their own practice—seems highly appropriate (and long overdue) in efforts to enhance our understanding of parent—teacher relationships.

Conclusion

The above account of Pia's emerging interpersonal relationships with parents highlights the ecological nature of parent-teacher relationships. Considerably more exploration—from the perspective of both teachers and parents—will be needed, however, to more fully understand the dynamics of these relationships. The present study suggests that narrative inquiry can make a valuable contribution to this research by enabling fine-grained investigation of the nuances of such relationships and as a vehicle for encouraging reflection about how they might be enhanced.

Acknowledgments

The author wishes to thank Pia for her commitment to the project and for her willingness to share her experiences with others. Thanks also to Joy Goodfellow for her insightful comments on an earlier draft of this article. The study reported in the paper was funded by the <u>Australian Research Council</u> and <u>Macquarie University</u>.

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ECRP

Volume 1 Number 1
Spring 1999



Volume 1, Number 1

Editing: Permission to Start Wrong

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Sydney Gurewitz Clemens

Abstract

Young children and their teachers benefit when they learn a work style that includes successive approximations before reaching a final product. These successive attempts can be thought of as editing, and the Reggio Emilia approach offers patterns to help children achieve this style of work. A drawing done by a group of children offers an example of a task that can incorporate editing—through revisiting of what has been drawn, translation into other media or "languages," and development of consensus among the children on how to improve it. Teachers should strive to free children from the burden of instant perfectionism so that they can instead develop skills in investigation, communication, and creativity.

Making a Connection

As I watch teachers struggle to become teacher–researchers, and children struggle to represent their ideas in media, I see many possibilities for children to learn about editing. Documentation of teaching demands that teachers reflect upon their work. Here again, editing is a necessary part of that documentation.

A school-age child care project got me thinking about a connection between editing and Reggio Emilia theory. (Reggio Emilia, a city in northern Italy, is the home of what many people consider the best program in the world for young children ages birth to 6. More information can be found in the Reggio Emilia section of the ERIC/EECE Web site). The program's children, ages 5 to 9, made a glorious, sprightly, image-filled mural drawing of a rain forest. The idea came from one child who looked at a blank paper (about 30 inches by 70 inches) provided by the child care teacher and "saw" a rain forest. In this forest, more than a dozen children drew greenery, many creatures, and even a few people. Children returned to the drawing, adding to it, over a period of several weeks. Some images were begun by one child

and finished or improved by another. Very large trees filled the vertical space, and an equally big, ferocious, and highly detailed alligator towered in the vertical space as well, parallel to the trees.

One Right Answer?...

When the project was well along, Peter, age 8 or 9, approached the children who were drawing. He told them they were doing a stupid job because they included a raccoon and a cat, neither of which lives in a rain forest. Peter was disdainful because the kids who had done the mural had gotten it wrong. This story, told by the teacher to a group gathered to consider ideas from Reggio Emilia, raised a question.

What if his teacher asked him to gather children who would be interested in making a second rain forest mural? He could use his information to help them represent the rain forest with its actual denizens. They might even attempt to draw the creatures to scale. Meanwhile, perhaps, another group of children might want to make a third rain forest, a rain forest that allows free rein to fantasy.

Or Many?

Documentation of these different possibilities would reflect what happens in the classroom. As appropriate assessment and documentation become topics of great interest to teachers, such representations would show the children thinking critically and representing knowledge as well as fantasy. The different murals could be displayed side-by-side and clearly labeled:

The Fantasy Rain Forest or Animals We Wish Could Live in the Rain Forest.

The Factual Rain Forest or Animals Who Really Live in the Rain Forest.

Individuals might want to select particular images from the first mural and import them (excerpted and reinterpreted) into new drawings. The first rain forest mural could become a bank of images (community memory) to be used in new and interesting ways and combined with images yet to come.

The teacher could create a photographic panel showing the evolution of the first mural into the subsequent ones, quoting some of the discussions that gave the impetus for more. Children could add explanations of the differences between the murals.

Translating into Other Languages

The work could continue in the single medium, or it could move on to collage or clay, paper maché, or other three-dimensional media, perhaps in a box or on a platform, or on a dirt base, with trees carved of wood.

Revisiting

Some children might want to edit their own work and produce another more refined or more daring work. Others, literal-minded like Peter, might enjoy editing the work of others, showing them their own ideas through a new filter.

Professional writers edit their own work, and they also use the editing expertise of others; both are necessary for excellent writing. The idea of editing can be useful in every one of the Hundred Languages. (The Hundred Languages of Children is a construct developed by the late Loris Malaguzzi to indicate the direction in which he wanted teaching to grow—from honoring only a few of the ways people communicate and represent their experience to honoring them all.) In Reggio Emilia, drawings are often photocopied and variations made upon the original drawing. A giant photocopier, if available, would expedite this mural work.

When I discussed where these ideas were taking me with the child care teacher whose work had sparked them, she told me about a child who wanted to make the rain forest dark. We considered how one might proceed to help this child think about making her idea visible: How about offering her a sheaf of colored papers, inviting her to draw or paint another rain forest on dark paper? Or introducing her to techniques of making a dark paper from whatever is around—washing on a coat of dark color? What about casting a shadow upon the rain forest—how could this be done? The fixed nature of the images on the first mural makes it hard to think about rearranging them, but they could be redrawn. Perhaps the child could trace or cut them out into separate images? These images could be tried against a background until a satisfactory result added to their impact.

Social Context

Although children had full control of the project, there were no (pervasive) stereotypical "action figures" in the rain forest drawing. In considering continuing with this work, some of us thought about schools we know with concentrations of more angry children. Alienated anger might be more apt to mar a mural with some such character. (The rain forest topic, of course, offers children many possibilities to draw predators and express their anger appropriately in school.) In such a volatile setting, we might also protect a group effort by having children create their images on other paper, cutting out and pasting ones they were pleased with onto the larger paper.

In this alternative, the community could discuss the images offered and either welcome them or ask that they be used elsewhere. (What is right for one picture may seem wrong for another. Questions of proportion or style might arise in this context.) This variant could lead to a discussion with the children about alternative ways of arranging the images to complete the mural. How many images are needed? How close should they be? What about overlapping? Is something needed to unify the collaborative drawing? Let's try it this way. OK, but let's try it this way, also. I have an idea. We need another one of these. Could we photocopy it? (The teacher interested in documentation will want to see Helms, Bencke, & Steinheimer, 1998; and Goldhaber, Smith, & Sortino, 1997.)

What Will the Teacher Choose to Do?

It is important to rise to Peter's challenge. His teacher says Peter is given to hit-and-run behavior. Why does he see this mural as a mistake? He knows what he knows about rain forests. His inclination is to censure the others, who are either less well informed or less given to literal interpretation of the theme, wanting to put their animals of choice with the other animals. We can see that he thinks the mural is presented as the only depiction of the rain forest and that it's wrong.

It is not Peter's accuracy we question, it is his treatment of those who see in a different way.

Opening his mind to others can become a research question, right there in the classroom: If we offer him many views of rain forests, will Peter come to see the possibilities of conveying his valuable information without criticizing less informed or more fanciful children?

I think Peter's perspective results from the disposition of many parents and teachers to offer information, which one learns so one can be right, at the start. (As if we knew what information would be useful to adults in the second decade of the 21st century!) We keep talking about learning to learn, but many of the same old approaches are being used in the name of education.

Editing Is a Particular Kind of Revisiting

If we do not teach children to edit, they end up attacking themselves and each other. They will expect us to be cruel to them, as well. We have all met children, as young as 3 or 4, who tear up their drawings and castigate themselves for their inadequacies and imperfections. We all know teachers who mark heavily in red, and parents who say, "You'll do it until you get it right!" Such practices burden children. We must work hard to avoid burdening children in this way, and we must work even harder to relieve the children already loaded with this constraint, overwhelmed by its weight.

There are a couple of directions in which we might go to free children of the burden of instant perfectionism, to help them edit. First, simply to reduce the waste of paper and the "trashing" of self, we could ask children to find ways to use their mistakes in their drawing. One teacher I know asks the children to turn their mistakes into flowers or insects. Another keeps scrap paper of all kinds in a box and has the children announce when they use scrap paper in their work—and then the class claps for that child. These techniques will work if the child is moving experimentally toward a finished product. Could the children draw the raccoon and cat into creatures who actually live in the forest? Would they have decided to do so, had the idea been raised?

On the other hand, if the error is caused by the drawing not living up to a standard in the child's head, if *translation* is the problem, then the flower-in-place-of-error or painting over or integrating the mistake are time-consuming side trips. The New Zealand author and teacher Sylvia Ashton-Warner knew about this problem. Appalled at the waste of paper by people learning to write—this was more than 50 years ago—she had the children use the chalkboard for drafts of drawings as well as stories and to take a sheet of paper when ready to make what the British (wherever we find them) call a "fair copy" (Clemens, 1996). Certainly, where spelling or detail counts, it is easier to fix on the chalkboard and get it just the way you want it before you commit yourself to paper or enter your work in your notebook. Many of us who use word processors are sure that we write better because we can correct and correct and never have to retype it all.

Getting It Right Is Important

I am reminded that there are situations where getting it right matters. One doesn't want to misread medicine labels or vote for the *other* guy. One wants to look for traffic in the direction it will come from. But most of what is important to learn is about the work we do in learning. The process teaches us more than the data we have at the end. My whole undergraduate life at the University of Chicago was governed by the institutional idea that an educated person wasn't required to know facts, but to know how to get to those facts. And it is a basic belief of

science that without a willingness to find oneself wrong, one is rarely able to discover something new. Peter is focused upon another of science's foundation rules: that we must habitually check our facts.

So most of what children are constructing in school can be approximated, and when we remember that idea, we assist the children in their building of concepts, dispositions, and skills. But we mustn't miss the chance to help them construct investigation and communication skills as the opportunities arise in such a project.

Editing Makes Things Better—But What's "Better?"

Peter thought he had the facts. He was wrong about cats, which do wander into even the tropical rain forest, and probably about raccoons in the *temperate* rain forest around Seattle. Do they live there? Does he know about rain forests closer to home? But they were facts, right or wrong, that could be checked.

If editing is to be a process of *improvement* and not just capricious change, there has to be some sort of consensus about what is better and what is worse. This consensus does not have to be absolute; in one context, good might mean "it rhymes," in another "the facts are true," in another "gender neutral." In art, it can mean "fulfills the author's intention" or "satisfies the eye/ear/sense of delight."

Investigation is needed here—and consultation. Good teaching helps children explore the creative space between the idea of objective, observer-independent excellence (needless here, even destructive) and relativism to the point of "whatever you do is right for you," which subverts all striving and all sense of accomplishment.

The "until you get it right" model presumes that "right" exists, and that children construct a matching "right" in their minds by being punished for missing it, rewarded for hitting it, until they can recognize it. That model is very depressing, but it has internal completeness.

The learn-to-edit model is far richer, and it asks the question of how "right" is to be constructed in the minds of the children. (Children in the plural, because the idea of consensus does seem involved here—in group projects like the rain forest picture or in a poem that is to be seen by more than just the poet.) Addressing this question helps children learn the tools of *finding out*: they can interview for consensus, and they can look up facts, learning to investigate first-hand (the difficulty of investigating rain forests first-hand may make them an inappropriate topic for such a project)—rather than staying with the intellectual flabbiness of "whatever."

"Right" needn't be an idea decided in advance, of course. Editing is partly a building of it. The Reggio shadows book (Malaguzzi et al., 1990) and the table measurement story (Castagnetti & Vecchi, 1997) are both at least as much about "How do we decide/agree what works?" as they are about "What is the answer?"

Editing Is What Writers Do

I learned to write in my late thirties (see <u>Clemens. 1983, 1996</u>). The most important and hardest thing to grasp about writing is that *you write it wrong at the start*. Then you change it a lot. Then you throw away most or all of it. If you repeat the process enough times, others will want to read what you have written and may even understand it. Few children of any age know

that writers may write a hundred pages and keep just eight or ten. The lesson so often in school is to get it right the first time.

John Holt (1989) wrote about this process in *Learning All the Time*:

Adults must use the skills they have where children can see them. . . . They should invite children to join them in using these skills. In this way the children can be slowly drawn, at higher and higher levels of energy, commitment, and skill, into more and more serious and worthwhile adult activities.

When parents point out to me that their work is not as impressive in its progress as, say, that of a boat builder, I use my own work as an example. While writing is less easy to understand than the work of a carpenter or farmer, it is not necessarily opaque or meaningless to a child. Writing is a process that takes place in time. I begin with raw materials and scraps of notes, write rough drafts, correct them, change them, finally produce a smooth draft, turn this over to someone else for further editing, and see it go into galleys or some kind of proof sheets and eventually find its way into the finished newspaper, magazine, or book. Even if what I write about might not make much sense to children, they will surely be interested in many of the things I actually do. At every stage of the process outlined above, parents who are writers might show their child what they have done and talk a little (as much as the child wants) about what they are going to do next, and why. In the end, they could show the child their articles when they finally appear in print. They might even keep all their notes and rough drafts for a particular article, and on a big piece of cardboard paste up an exhibit showing everything from the first steps to the final product. This would also be an easy and interesting thing to do in schools; it would show students what none of them now know or could imagine—the amount of work that goes into serious writing. The books in the school are made things, made by people.

It is this sense of *process over time* that children want and need to learn about, and much of this is visible in most kinds of work. Even if parents can't show children their actual workplace, they can show them similar places. For instance, for the child of a journalist, any small offset press would be fascinating: the noise, all those things going round and round, the paper flying out with stuff printed on it. A mystery! But children would see that a grownup understands it and controls it, and think that maybe someday, if they wanted, they could too. They would also learn that their parents did not think of them as too small and stupid to be included in a central part of their own lives.

Holt wrote before the Writers Workshop idea had entered American schools. Although a good idea, and one which meets some of my concerns about editing, it is unfortunately not nearly widespread enough.

"Affordances of the Medium"

Editing extends the flexibility of mind of those who struggle to get the thing said well, no matter what the medium. It is a way of learning by successive approximations. In his elegant analysis of the differential uses of media by children in forming and testing their theories, George Forman (1996) reminds us that building a structure in clay tests the possibility of that structure in a way that drawing it in markers, or even building it in cardboard, don't. He speaks about the "affordances of the medium," the capacity of each medium to represent with greater or lesser accuracy (see also Vecchi's article "Equilibrium and Stability" in *The Hundred Languages of Children*, 1996).

All creative processes include some form of editing. The creative process has its own

requirements; school routines can be costly to it. Interrupting the flow can sometimes be deadly to a project. Keeping the work area tidy while making something is often unthinkable, but artists can usually cope with the idea of cleaning up after the project is done, or when it is at a plateau or stopping place. The teacher who tries to support creative work will be well advised to tolerate some sorts of disorder, and to be flexible about some schedule boundaries. Amidst all this editing must be readiness to edit the work plan.

If one is accustomed to editing, to painstakingly revisiting a draft to improve it by adding, deleting, transposing, decorating, simplifying, or translating it into the active voice, one has a method of examining one's life and work that can transfer into many areas. Just as using the next medium can bring insight, using the medium again—using a different perspective, attempting a different version of a task, trying to show a different audience—all can make the work more transparent to both the artist and the observer.

Kites and Poetry

After a wonderful excursion to the beach to fly a kite (for the first time in Daryl's life, about the fifth time in Grandma Sydney's), I showed him a poem, all printed nicely on my computer in large type and with graphics:

Kite Days

A kite, a sky, and a good firm breeze, Acres of ground away from trees, One hundred yards of clean, strong string -O boy, o boy! I call that Spring!

Daryl, just 5 a week before, wasn't happy with the letters in the word "Days"—too close to his own precious name, invasive. We discussed this briefly, and I said something grownup about how the letters get used over and over in different words.

We read and joked and learned the poem and then I saw the need to clarify—"But Daryl, we weren't on acres of ground, you know, we were on . . . "

"Sand," chirped my good boy.

Let's change the peem, then, to say "Acres of sand."

He agreed, so I get a pen and crossed out ground and wrote in sand. Then he said,

"Grandma, let's change this." And he pointed to Days.

"How shall we change it?"

"Lets make it say, 'Kite Spring."

So we did. And then we went to the computer and fixed the whole thing up. And that's how Daryl learned to edit!

Kite Spring

A kite, a sky, and a good firm breeze, Acres of sand away from trees, One hundred yards of clean, strong string -O boy, o boy! I call that Spring!

Editing the World

I think an editing curriculum would be just about the opposite of the spelling curriculum we all know, the one that begins Monday with 10 or 20 "new" words, imposes a series of rituals through the week, and ends Friday with a test that, averaged with all the test scores from all the other weeks, will determine one's spelling grade for the semester. Process writing, as taught in Writers Workshop, assumes editing. But limiting the notion of editing to writing only is mistaken.

Learning to make successive attempts at one's task is useful for more than writing. Most of us edit our lives repeatedly, keeping the bits that accomplish what we're after and trying to introduce other bits that will work better than those that have failed us (see Freire & Macedo, 1987; Rodari, 1996). Letting children grow up thinking they must get things right the first time is cruel and deceptive. Even teaching them that they can get things right the first time is unfair. If getting things right were easily done, we would hand the children a world in beautiful, highly functional condition. Given the work that lies ahead of them, we must give the children our support and the freedom to do it wrong at first.

Acknowledgments

Thanks to Tim Poston for vigorous feedback and thoughts about the struggle to define quality, to Tim Poston and Lynn Manfredi/Petitt for good editing, to Rane Sessions for my starting point, and to the valuable comments of the referees.

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Volume 1, Number 1

International Perspectives on Early Childhood Education: Lessons from My Travels



Lilian G. Katz

A version of this paper was originally presented at the President's Seminar: International perspectives on young children, their families, and early care and education at the Annual Conference of the National Association for the Education of Young Children; Toronto, Canada; November, 1998.

To hear this essay in its intended spoken form, you can download a recording of the author.

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Abstract

Noting that working with early childhood colleagues in other countries can be enlightening and enriching, this paper offers seven insights gained from the experience: (1) "What It Feels Like To Be a Teacher" discusses observations of student and teacher behavior and attitudes in classrooms in China, a Caribbean island, and India; (2) "Similarities across Countries" notes that teachers' roles may be more powerful determinants of their ideas, ideals, ideologies, concerns, and beliefs than are the larger political, social, and cultural contexts in which they work; (3) "Problems with Comparative Studies" discusses the difficulties inherent in comparing educational provisions and effectiveness across countries; (4) "The Spread of Ideas across Borders" discusses the influence of the British Infant School approach in the 1960s and 1970s, the influence of the innovative province-wide reform work of British Columbia. Canada, in the 1980s, and most recently the influence of the Reggio Emilia approach; (5) "Issues Unique to the U.S." explores interests that appear of concern only in the United States, such as the development of self-esteem in children; (6) "Self-criticism in the U.S." discusses one American habit — self-deprecation; and (7) "U.S. Leadership in Anti-bias and Multicultural Awareness" notes that the United States deserves a great

deal of credit for leadership in addressing anti-bias and multicultural issues.

Introduction

My first overseas assignment in early childhood education was in 1974 when UNESCO asked me to conduct preschool training seminars in Barbados in the West Indies. At that time, I was too young and too inexperienced to be nervous about such an assignment. I reckoned that since it would take about 13 hours to get there, I would be able to think of what to do on the way! If I were asked to conduct a similar mission today, in a place about which I was so woefully ignorant, I would be deeply apprehensive—and rightly so! Since then, it has been my privilege to work with colleagues in Barbados many times, and I have also worked with our colleagues in more than 40 other countries—in some, many times over.

I find that the experience of traveling and working with colleagues in other lands is enlightening, instructive, and enriching—not so much because of what we see, but because what we see makes us think about things that we have not thought about before. Or perhaps it is simply that travel makes us think about something differently from the way we've thought about it before. In this article, I want to share seven hunches or hypotheses that have occurred to me in the course of these international experiences.

1. What It Feels Like To Be a Teacher

During my first visit to the People's Republic of China in 1978, I remember seeing some 40 three-year-old children sitting patiently and attentively on little chairs for a good 40 minutes, watching a small group of their peers performing a dance about the "bitter years" of life before Mao's revolution.

Observing this scene provoked several questions. Let me add that I am not here passing judgment on the desirability of what I observed, but on the reflections the scene provoked. Could something like this be seen in the United States? How is it possible, I wondered, for such young children to sit so attentively for so long? One possible hypothesis is that, compared to other aspects of their total environments, this event was highly stimulating. In other words, the stimulus value of a given event for a given individual is a function of the range of other events in his or her daily life. For these children, by comparison, the rest of their lives so lacks stimulation that this event was absorbing, if not entertaining. However, teachers of young children in North America have to compete with environments full of highly stimulating and exciting events, such as dozens and dozens of toys, video games, movies, television shows, colorful books, Barbie dolls, and much more.

During that same visit, I asked a teacher how she was able to get the children to be so attentive and compliant for such long periods of time. My question seemed strange to her! Her response was something like "of course they respond to my requests!" It was as though noncompliance was unthinkable! This observation provoked the hunch that an adult who expects compliance—indeed, takes it for granted—addresses children in such a way as to obtain it (i.e., with calm confidence and free of hostility). And because they obtain compliance so readily, they address the children with the full expectation that it will be forthcoming. Thus, there is a positive recursive cycle: the more confidently and

optimistically we address children, the more likely they are to respond in a desirable way, which in turn strengthens the adult's confidence. According to this hypothesis, the negative recursive cycle can also be predicted: the more tentatively the adult addresses the child, the less likely he or she will respond in the way desired, leading to less confidence in the adult, and so forth.

I raise this issue not to press for authoritarianism or for greater or stricter adult control over children. It is of interest because I am constantly stymied by how many teachers in the United States *feel* powerless before very young children. They argue with me that they must use time-out procedures, "stickies," and other forms of bribery to get children to "behave." A U.S. teacher of 5-year-olds recently reported that when her pupils become rowdy, she reminds them that if they don't settle down, the class mascot tiger, whose smiling face graces the main blackboard in the room, "will get angry with them!" Wouldn't such forms of manipulation signal to children that the adult lacks authority, cannot be trusted to know what to do, or to know what is right? I often wonder about an adult's willingness to depend on an imaginary creature in that way.

A few years ago, I visited a school on one of the Caribbean islands. Fifty-three 6- and 7-year-olds were working on the tasks of the morning, which were to punctuate half-a-dozen simple sentences and to complete a few simple addition problems. Every child was working—some more proficiently than others, of course. There were no children under desks, at the pencil sharpener, pinching or annoying others, or in any other way being rowdy or inattentive, as might be expected in such a crowded classroom at home.

How is that possible, I wondered? I don't want to imply in any way that what I saw was an ideal way to educate the young; the classroom was also considered much too crowded by educators within the country. Nevertheless, at least two hypotheses concerning how to account for the scene came to mind. One is that, based on what I knew about their country, teachers are never criticized in the presence of children. On the contrary, if one of these children were to complain at home about something in school, or about the teacher, family members—most likely all of them in unison—would urge the child to "mind the teacher" and get on with the work. I am not suggesting that there is no criticism of teachers; it is just not done in front of the children.

I am often amazed at what I hear adults say about teachers and schools in the presence of children in the United States. I do not want to imply that such criticism is never warranted; that is not the point of relevance here. While such indiscretion on the part of adults in front of children does not solve the problem at issue in the criticism, it may put children in the difficult position of having divided loyalties. Even more seriously, it may in some cases also empower children to be defiant. In these cases, the teacher's behavior is likely to result in further criticism.

Another hypothesis occurred to me as I watched the teacher explain the tasks, respond to occasional questions, and fairly successfully encourage children to proceed. It seemed to me that she was deeply convinced (rightly or wrongly) that what she was doing was right and was in the children's best interests. Feeling reasonably sure of the rightness of what he or she is doing surely helps a teacher to give children clear signals about what is expected and valued. My hunch is that such certainty and clarity encourages the children to carry on with the tasks in spite of their lack of relevance or interest, and deters

resistance or defiance.

I am not aware of any research on how convinced U.S. teachers feel about the rightness of what they are asking of children. However, the abundance of curriculum approaches competing for adoption and presented to teachers through various media must surely raise doubts among many of them about the appropriateness of their own practices.

During a recent visit to India, I was taken to see a new state-supported school of which the local residents were very proud. In the first-grade classroom, there were 60 children—all boys. Only the teacher was provided with a desk and chair; all the children were sitting on the floor. The instructional materials were permanently attached to the walls. The teacher pointed to items on the wall displays with a long stick and asked questions. Many of the boys eagerly raised their hands to offer answers. All seemed to be attending to the ongoing instructional exchanges. How is it possible that no child was throwing bits of paper, talking to another, or otherwise off task or behaving disruptively?

One hypothesis is that already, at this early age, these boys are motivated by the belief (rightly or wrongly) that this experience offers them their only hope of a better life. It is difficult to imagine such a belief among most American 6-year-olds!

2. Similarities across Countries

When I am invited to speak to our colleagues outside of the United States, I always begin with the caveat that the ideas and information I present are based largely on U.S. experience and research and therefore might not be applicable to the listeners whose traditions, constraints, and contexts may be very different. That having been said, however, I am always amazed at the similarities across countries. One hypothesis is that people who do the same kind of work across countries understand each other better than those who occupy different roles—even in the same fields—within a country. Get a group of teachers of 4-year-olds, or of teacher educators, or administrators, or government officials from various countries together, and they are likely to understand each other in many significant ways more readily than they will understand or be understood by those in other groups, even from their own countries. In other words, my hunch is that our roles may be more powerful determinants of our ideas, ideals, ideologies, concerns, and beliefs, etc., than is the larger political, social, and cultural context in which we work.

Another aspect of similarities across countries—at least in the field of early childhood education, is the similar low status, low pay, and poor or insufficient training that is commonly found. In many countries, those responsible for regulating staff requirements in the early childhood field point out that for any female, the care of young children "comes naturally"—it is "instinctive"—and caregiving and working with very small children does not require training and expensive qualifications! Of course, if we continue to talk to decision makers about how much children learn through play, and how they "construct their own knowledge," we may be confirming their idea that children do not need well-qualified and well-paid adults.

3. Problems with Comparative Studies

I recently came across a reference to early comparative research attributed to the 4th century, BC, to the effect that "Xenophon analyzed what he described as Persian education, thereby enabling the Greek reader to compare it with Spartan schooling" (Spaulding, 1989). But comparing educational provisions and effectiveness across countries—as in the case of the International Association for the Evaluation of Education (IEA) work reported on briefly by David Weikart in his presentation at the 1998 National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) annual conference in Toronto—raises enormously complex questions. What are good and reliable indices of educational effectiveness across countries and languages?

To compare reading and spelling achievement across countries, particularly in the early years of schooling, is quite different from comparing achievement in addition and subtraction. To do the former would be fair only if accompanied by an index of grapheme-to-phoneme efficiency of each of the languages involved. Similarly, young children's understanding of the calendar may vary; in Chinese, for example, the names of the days of the week are linked to their number, unlike in English and other European languages.

Many of us have been stimulated by Tobin, Wu, and Davidson's work (1989) comparing preschools in three countries. But how did they select the three preschools? How representative of each of their countries are they? How much of what we learn about each of them is attributable to their host countries or cultures, rather than to the individuals responsible for the classrooms featured or to the populations they serve? These questions are often difficult to answer reliably. Basing practice on international comparative achievement scores is very risky.

4. The Spread of Ideas across Borders

A frequent observation from working in a variety of countries is the extent to which practices in our field are adopted across borders. In the 1960s and early 1970s, there was great interest in the United States in adopting the British Infant School approach to early primary education characteristic of much of England during the so-called Plowden years (which owed quite a bit to Dewey and Progressive Education). However, since the late 1980s, there has been great readiness in the United Kingdom to adopt (indiscriminately, I might add) many U.S. practices purported to raise standards of achievement, for example, extensive testing of children in the form of what the English call "attainment targets." More recently, the United Kingdom has adopted practices such as the "literacy hour" and the "numeracy hour" in efforts to raise levels of achievement nationwide. These "innovations" would have been unthinkable during the Plowden years.

In the mid-1980s, many of us were eager to learn from the innovative province-wide reform work of British Columbia, Canada. It is my recollection that in the United States, the rethinking of state curriculum guidelines, age grouping practices, and student-parent-teacher conferencing in Nebraska, Iowa, Kentucky, and elsewhere was based in considerable part on what we were learning from north of the U.S. border.

In the United States in the 1990s, one of the strongest movements across borders has been intense interest in the magnificent and stunning preprimary schools of the small northern Italian city of Reggio Emilia. Thousands of us have visited Reggio Emilia; numerous conferences, an electronic discussion list [REGGIO-L], the impressive

national newsletter *Innovations* (sponsored by the Merrill-Palmer Institute in Detroit), and several books are all examples of the extent to which many of us continue to be inspired by the impressive achievements of Reggio Emilia.

But I note here that in the course of the lively discussions and enthusiastic support for Reggio Emilia practices and, in particular, through efforts to adopt their ideas in the United States (as in the Model Early Learning Center in Washington, DC), I have heard no shrill or strident criticism or rejection of this movement on cultural grounds. Why haven't Reggiophiles been accused of cultural irrelevance or hegemony or imperialism with respect to ethnic and culturally diverse groups? Why have the questions raised by scholars like Jipson (1991) and Delpit (1988) about appropriate practice, for example, not been raised in discussion of adopting the Reggio Emilia approach in various parts of our country? Could it have something to do with the fact that the ideas come from Europe rather than from the usual bastions of mainstream American thought? I am puzzled by this situation!

5. Issues Unique to the United States

I often wonder about problems that seem unique to the United States; issues that I am not asked to talk about in other countries. For example, outside of the United States, rarely am I asked to talk about the development of self-esteem or about classroom management issues. Of course, self-esteem is unlikely to be an issue in a country that is struggling with high infant mortality, starvation, or safe water supplies. It might be called an issue of luxury!

Furthermore, I can't remember ever seeing a teacher outside of the United States say something to a group of young children like "I like the way X is sitting!" I have seen teachers in other countries say things like "Please turn around and sit quietly" without hostility or apology, seemingly with the full expectation of compliance. Furthermore, in other countries, I see almost no "Disneyfication" in classrooms! I did see some smiling animals on the walls in Greece a few years ago and a Mickey Mouse cut-out posted on a wall in a day nursery in India last year, but these occurrences are relatively rare outside of the United States.

Are these differences simply related to the larger cultures in which they occur? Do they say anything about the assumptions we make about the nature of children or, as the Reggio Emiliani put it, about differences in the "image of the child" in these countries? Do these differences matter?

The preoccupation with self-esteem so marked in the United States (and so misconstrued, I might add) is of special interest to me (see Katz, 1995). What are some hypotheses to account for it? One may be that still today, with all its faults, the United States offers a remarkably open society. In the United States, status (or esteem) is not ascribed at birth as in many other societies; it has to be achieved. One of the expressions I was taught long ago as an English child was "Bless the squire and his relations and always know your proper stations!" But deep down in the U.S. psyche, it is believed (or fantasized) that anyone can be anything he or she wants to be; a sort of "Where there's a will there's a way!" philosophy. So we use questionable expressions like "success for all," "realizing the child's full potential," and "schools for success," rendering these terms meaningless. The meaning of an open society is not that everyone can be in first

place (if only he or she would try hard enough) but that all are equally worthy of the good life. Indeed, the goals of schools should not be to make every child into a scientist, engineer, doctor, CEO, or lawyer, but to make sure that whatever occupations they ultimately enter into are not predet rmined by gender, race, ethnicity, socioeconomic background, class, or other characteristics ascribed at birth. This means that education has to include high on its list of goals the ability to lead a satisfying life (which, in my view, would have to include a lot of emphasis on aesthetic values and all the arts).

Americans are, I think, unique in believing that every problem has a solution without acknowledging that every solution creates new problems, some of which may be worse than the old ones!

6. Self-Criticism in the United States

But now you see one of the most typical of American habits—that of self-deprecation! We Americans are always ready to say things like "the trouble with our culture is" or "in our culture" something is wrong, implying that others are better. We rarely acknowledge that most of our problems can be found or matched elsewhere. Surely, much is wrong in the United States, and there will always be great need to improve the quality of life of all members of our society. But are there better societies that you can point to with real confidence? Indeed, all cultures have biases, prejudices, and some social classes or social hierarchies. For some reason, such social divisions are difficult to remove or to change.

People never wish to disinherit themselves: whatever they feel contributed to their success, they also want for their children; whatever they believe prevented their success, they don't want for their children. Furthermore, it may be that identification of and wariness or suspicion of "outsiders" serves as an important basis for feeling like "insiders," and therefrom an important and perhaps necessary sense of belonging is generated. These phenomena are not unique to the United States.

A discussion not long ago with some colleagues started off with appreciation for the way that in some cultures—particularly the southern European and Latin American cultures—adults readily respond warmly and openly to unknown small children, and decrying its absence at home. In these other cultures, we noted, adults approach small children in the streets and buses, smile at them, inquire about their ages, names, and so forth, and easily express warmth and affection toward them. Such spontaneous expressions of warmth toward small children would be highly unlikely in North America (and in some European countries as well). But note that all of these expressive and affectionate countries are also marked by strong "macho" traditions! Are these two cultural patterns related? Is machoism and idolization of motherhood related in some way? Is it reasonable to hypothesize that the greater the equality (of opportunity, of education, of legal rights, etc.) of the two sexes, the less children are seen as manifestations of precious innocence and objects of spontaneous affection?

Surely Americans are the experts in frequent open criticism of their own schools, as I have already suggested above. This trend has certainly emerged in other countries, perhaps spontaneously, rather than learned from us. Such criticism, however, does not solve any educational problem that I can think of. There is no evidence that constant criticism of schools and teachers raises any school achievement level or any teacher's

competence. On the contrary, my hunch is that it is demoralizing to schools and teachers, which in turn may further depress effectiveness, and in turn bring on further sharp public criticism.

One of my hunches about all this self-disparagement is that other countries, particularly European countries, are more successful at hiding their failures than are Americans. I remind you also that in international comparative studies of science and math achievement, it has often happened that the former U.S.S.R. has been ahead of the United States. What shall we make of their great competence and educational successes? Compare the current average quality of life in the former U.S.S.R. and in the United States, and we might ask ourselves what these comparative scores really mean.

The United States is the only country that I know of that has had a long and deep historical commitment to the common school: free community-supported schooling for every one of its children. This common this increasingly under threat for a variety of understandable reasons. It is sad to wall a this trend, and I hope we can pull together as educators and communities and restore faith in what can be accomplished when communities invest in common schools for all their children.

7. U.S. Leadership in Antibias and Multicultural Awareness

Finally, as I work with our colleagues all around the world, I am proud of what I think we as a country, and the NAEYC as an organization, deserve a great deal of credit for: leadership in addressing antibias and multicultural issues. I have no doubt that the United States, through this organization among others, has already and continues to contribute greatly to increasing awareness of and action on behalf of discriminated groups. We still have a very long way to go—here and elsewhere. But never underestimate the power of ideas—bad ones as well as good ones!

Let's keep up the good work for the sake of the children. The best way to influence others is to do the best we can! It may very well be that what we do speaks more loudly than what we say.

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Volume 1, Number 1

Writing for Electronic Journals

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Abstract

Electronic journals in scholarly or professional settings continue a tradition of fostering the creation and transmission of scientific and other knowledge that was begun long ago through print journals. Electronic journals provide publishers and readers an opportunity for wider dissemination of knowledge than was previously possible through print publications—a factor that may largely account for the increasing success of electronic journals. Besides this overriding benefit, electronic journals can incorporate features that improve on or go beyond the features that have traditionally been available in print publications. Following some background information on electronic publications, this article discusses issues involved in writing for electronic journals, particularly *Early Childhood Research & Practice (ECRP)*. Topics discussed include hypertext links, graphics, audio and video, post-publication comments and discussions (for example, via Chat rooms), access to downloadable data files, electronic review, and correction of errors. The article also covers additional notable features of electronic journals—such as provision in other formats, full-text searching, and constant access—and ways to find electronic journals on topics of interest.

Introduction

Although it might seem that "everybody knows what an electronic journal is," editors and librarians have not reached consensus in their definitions or classification of electronic periodicals. An early definition (McMillan, 1991) described electronic journals as "any serials produced, published, and distributed. . . via electronic networks such as Bitnet and the Internet." Later descriptions distinguished between electronic journals available only electronically, and electronic editions of journals available both in print and electronically; and among types of electronic journals, such as online, CD-ROM, and networked journals.

Since the present journal, Early Childhood Research & Practice (ECRP), is published

by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education (ERIC/EECE), it seems fitting to provide an ERIC definition. According to the *Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors* (ERIC Processing and Reference Facility, 1996), electronic journals are "periodicals, usually topical and moderated, that are published and disseminated (sometimes on an irregular schedule) in the form of electronic text or hypertext on computer networks (such as the Internet) or other computerized media (e.g., CD-ROM)."

From these definitions, it is clear that "electronic journal" is still a broad term that encompasses serial publications in several media. We at ERIC/EECE have tried to focus our intentions by calling our new journal an Internet journal. We could have been even a bit more focused by describing it as a Web-based journal. *ECRP* is an Internet-only or a Web-only journal, without a print counterpart.

A Little Bit of History

Electronic journals in scholarly or professional settings continue a tradition of fostering the creation and transmission of scientific and other knowledge that was begun long ago through print journals. The first scholarly print journal, *Journal des Scavans*, appeared in 1665 (Harter & Kim, 1996). A little more than three centuries later, the first electronic journal appeared "online."

It is probably not possible to identify the exact appearance of the first truly electronic journal, partly because early experiments with electronic serial publications did not necessarily correspond to what we would today call an electronic journal. Nevertheless, some authors do supply us with dates. Lancaster (1995) suggests that the possibility of a scholarly journal published in electronic form may have been first conceived of (or at least written about) in 1973. He nominates a journal on mental workload, begun in 1979, as the first true electronic scholarly online journal.

The number of electronic journals grew throughout the 1980s, although many of them have already ceased publication. For example, in a review of electronic journals, Roes (1996) found that the oldest still-publishing electronic journal had begun publication in 1987. Lancaster and Roes cite three barriers to the success of early electronic journals: an insufficient number of readers with computer equipment, various technological problem, and the hesitancy of authors to publish in an electronic medium.

Obviously, these barriers have diminished in the last few years. In the United States at least, there are tens of millions of Internet users. Most technological problems (e.g., electronic storage issues) have been solved. And authors are willing to publish electronically as tenure committees have come to accept refereed electronic publications, and as corporate and university publishers have developed a strong Web presence.

As these barriers have been overcome, the number of electronic serials has increased throughout the 1990s. The *Directory of Electronic Journals, Newsletters, and Academic Discussion Lists*, published by the Association of Research Libraries (ARL), included in its first edition (1991) 27 entries in a section for electronic "journals, magazines, and zines." Subsequent yearly editions listed 36, 45, 181, and 306 entries. The 1996 edition highlighted 1,689 total serials (combining "newsletters and other serials" along with

"journals, magazines, and zines"); the seventh edition from 1997 (the latest print edition) included more than 3,400 entries in the combined sections. These figures are indicative of the increasing popularity of electronic serials.

Cost Issues

Early predictions of phenomenal cost savings for journal producers, partly based on the expected savings from the elimination of printing and mailing costs, are no longer considered realistic. The principal costs of producing a high-quality journal, regardless of medium, are editorial. Although some traditional costs are eliminated by using the electronic medium, other nontraditional costs are incurred for an electronic journal, such as costs related to Web page preparation and Web server maintenance. These factors have an impact on journal readers in that the cost of subscribing to an electronic journal may not decrease significantly.

Most commercial publishers continue to charge a subscription fee for their electronic journals. Academic publishers may or may not do so. The journals archived as part of Project Muse at Johns Hopkins University, for example, require a subscription fee. (See the <u>note about Project Muse</u> in the section below on Finding Electronic Journals.) *ECRP* issues will be free for at least the first year.

Writing for Electronic Journals

Leaving aside cost issues, electronic journals provide publishers and readers an opportunity for wider dissemination of knowledge than previously possible through print publications—a factor that may largely account for the increasing success of electronic journals. Besides this overriding benefit, electronic journals can incorporate features that improve on or go beyond the features that have traditionally been available in print publications.

It might be well to offer a few words of caution to writers before proceeding. Although they are writing for presentation in an online format, authors will want to keep in mind that they are still writing text. The same care to write clearly and concisely, assure grammatical correctness, and attend to the overall aesthetic of an article and to editors' comments, is needed for an electronic journal article as for one in a print publication. Electronic features such as hyperlinks, graphics, sound, etc., should be related to, and not be a distraction from, the points raised in the article.

Hypertext Links

Hypertext links can help readers move within a single document itself or through a collection of documents that comprise an article, and can help them find related resources on the Internet. Helpful links within a document may include those between in-text author—date citations and items in the reference list; between a table of contents and in-text headings; between reference items and related abstracts; and between text and appendices, glossaries, and other end matter. Links to Internet resources related to the topic of the article or to parts of the article might include links to the full text of referenced publications on the Internet; to referenced journal or publisher Web sites; to organizations mentioned in the text; or to fuller descriptions of programs introduced in the text; etc.

For articles appearing in *ECRP*, the journal editorial staff will add the types of links described above. *ECRP* editors will also search the ERIC database to determine whether any referenced item is in the database. For those items that are in the ERIC database, a copy of the ERIC record (with bibliographic information, abstract, and indexing terms) will be added to the article. A hypertext link will be added from the item in the reference list to the ERIC citation.

Authors are encouraged to suggest places in their articles where they believe a hyperlink to another Internet site would be useful. Journal editors will make a judgment about these suggested links. In addition to being clearly relevant to the point being made in the article, the word or words chosen as the hyperlinked text should provide a clear indication of where the link will go. (See several of the articles in this issue of *ECRP* for examples.) For *ECRP*, the editors may accept such a hyperlink but add a parenthetical explanation for clarity. Authors may include links that are not directly related to sections of the article by placing them in the end matter of the article, perhaps in an appendix or in a "For More Information" section.

Graphics

Pictures and figures can accompany print articles as well as electronic articles. But in the electronic medium, the possibility exists for a greater number of graphics and for color and animated graphics. Many articles can be enhanced by presenting a series of pictures illustrating a point—for example, to show preschool children's progress as they undertake a particular project using the Project Approach (see the <u>article by Chard</u> in this issue of *ECRP* for an example).

Authors can supply images to enhance the message of the text, or they may suggest places where images can be inserted. Again, authors should consider whether the pictures actually do add information for the reader rather than distract from the presentation. They should be aware that a large number of graphics on a page slows down the loading time of that page. Despite these cautions, there are some articles that may be greatly enhanced by the addition of a whole series of graphics.

Journal editors will normally accept pictures in a number of ways. This is true for *ECRP* editors, who accept actual photographs and drawings, or printed figures which are scanned into electronic images. Or they can accept electronic files of images. In keeping with the electronic medium of this journal, *ECRP* editors prefer to receive article submissions via email; in this case, electronic graphic files can be sent as email attachments. The graphic file formats that are used on the Web are .gif and .jpg, but *ECRP* staff can work with a number of other file formats, such as .tif, .bmp, .psd and others. Authors should consult the *ECRP* editors for more details on these formats.

It is the responsibility of authors to deal with copyright and other issues related to including pictures in electronic journal articles. The photographer or artist must, of course, agree to have the picture made available on the Web, and any identifiable individuals in the picture must agree to have their picture available on the Web. If children are included in a photograph, the permission of both the parent and child is necessary. Journal editors may require that article authors sign a release indicating that they (i.e., the authors) have received all appropriate permissions for posting

photographs.

Audio and Video

This feature is, of course, a unique feature of electronic, as compared to print, journals. Sometimes, the text of an article can be enhanced by providing the audio or video of a speech, musical performance, lecture, interview, discussion between teacher and child, demonstration, etc. The *Journal of Seventeenth-Century Music*, published by the Society for Seventeenth-Century Music, contains articles that discuss aspects of Baroque music. In an article that compares the musical genres Passacaglia and Ciaccona, actual samples are provided to make clear the author's points. To hear these samples as MIDI files (you will need a Midi player plug-in for your browser), see (or, rather, listen to):

http://www.sscm.harvard.edu/jscm/welcome.html

http://www.sscm.harvard.edu/jscm/v2/no1/Silbiger.html

http://www.sscm.harvard.edu/jscm/v2/no1/Silbiger.html#Section6

Or, you can hear the difference in the pronunciation of the Italian "mama mia" and the French "ma mère" presented in .au format files in another article that compares French and Italian singing. See:

http://www.ssem.harvard.edu/jscm/v1/no1/sanford.html

http://www.sscm.harvard.edu/jscm/v1/no1/sanford.html#Section1

When authors want to include audio or video segments along with their text, they can provide either taped material or electronic files. If an audio- or videotape is provided, the author will want to indicate to the editor what part of the tape is to be used. (For example, "Please start with the part when the teacher asks the children how they feel, and end after the little girl finishes playing the song she wrote for the piano.") If the segment is short (a few minutes or less), the audio or video could be presented as a clip in one of several file formats, such as .au, .wav, or .midi formats. If the segment is extensive, it could be presented in a streaming medium, such as through RealMedia. In the latter case, a RealPlayer plug-in for the reader's browser would be necessary. But, as with the Adobe Acrobat Reader that is required to view PDF files, this software is free and easily installable for use with a browser.

Post-Publication Comments

Some electronic journals (and Web sites in general) allow readers to send comments, either by email or through a Web-based form, in response to an article. The comments may be directed to the article's author or the journal's publisher. These comments, which might be either short notes and questions or extended discussion of points raised in the article, can be dealt with in several ways. They can be answered directly by the author or publisher; they can be automatically posted to the Web site with the author's or publisher's response; or they can be selectively edited and posted to the Web site.

Authors would be providing an additional service to their readers by responding to such

comments and questions on their articles. Of course, to do this, a commitment of time and effort is necessary. When editors and authors discuss the authors' articles during the prepublication stages, the topic of post-publication comments can be discussed. In those cases where readers' comments may be included in a public discussion on the journal Web site, it is a good idea to inform readers at the time they post a comment.

On the Web site for the Culturally and Linguistically Appropriate Services (CLAS) Institute, CLAS staff have posted a paper for each of the first several months of 1999. Readers are invited to offer comments and receive feedback from authors. Note that this Web site is not an electronic journal, although this comment feature is the same that would be used in commenting on a journal article. See:

http://clas.uiuc.edu/papers.html

On Scholastic's *Instructor Magazine* site, a monthly feature called "Teacher Forum" allows readers to post comments in response to a specific question. This feature is more like a survey, however, than a post-publication comment feature. See:

http://scholastic.com/instructor/ (choose the Teacher Forum for the month)

Post-Publication Discussions: Listserv Lists, Chat Rooms, Etc.

Just as Web-based feedback forms are used to post individual comments about an article, so might Listserv or other electronic discussion list formats—along with Chat rooms and other real-time discussion forums—be used to foster continued discussion about article topics. Listserv lists could be set up when articles evoke a particularly strong response in feedback, or a Listserv generally related to the journal topic could be set up in expectation of continuing discussion related to journal articles. In the latter case, article authors might serve as "guests" of the list during a week or other short period, during which time list members could pose questions to the author related to his or her article. As with responses to reader feedback mentioned above, this would be another service the author could provide to readers.

PARENTING-L is a Listserv list related to the National Parent Information Network (NPIN) and to NPIN's bimonthly electronic magazine, *Parent News*, which discusses topics of interest to parents and parent support personnel. See:

http://npin.org/

http://npin.org/parlist.html

Similar to Listservs, Chat rooms would provide opportunities for extended discussions, except that the discussions would be real-time rather than asynchronous (i.e., the posting and the reading of a message occur at different times). Scheduled chat sessions could be held for discussing article topics. At these sessions, the article author may be present to answer questions from readers.

Electronic School is an electronic journal in education that houses a Chat room. See:

http://www.elcctronic-school.com/

http://www.electronic-school.com/forum.html

The Web site also includes a message board, where teachers who have previously registered can post messages as part of a general discussion. This feature is more like the post-publication comments via a Web-based form that were discussed above, than it is like the extended discussion via Listserv lists or Chat rooms.

Access to Downloadable Data Files

Another new possibility for electronic journals, compared to traditional print journals, is to provide readers with the opportunity to further analyze the results of a research study. Researchers could include the data set upon which they performed their analyses. In some cases, data analysis software could also be provided at the journal Web site for users to execute on the data set to find new and different correlations from those of the original researchers.

Examples of data sets included with an article can be found in the *Journal of Statistics Education* at North Carolina State University. See:

http://www.stat.nesu.edu/info/jse/

Many issues of this Web journal have an article or two that includes raw data sets and documentation related to those data sets. At the end of the article, readers can click on "raw data" or "documentation" to download the items. They can then perform their own analyses on these data. Some of these data sets relate to articles such as "Move Over, Roger Maris: Breaking Baseball's Most Famous Record," "Investigating Home Court Advantage," and "Diamond Ring Pricing Using Linear Regression." See:

http://www.stat.ncsu.edu/info/jse/v6n3/datasets.simonoff.html

http://www.stat.ncsu.edu/info/jse/v6n2/datasets.nettleton.html

http://www.stat.nesu.edu/info/jse/v4n3/datasets.chu.html

While these topics may not be of immediate impact to early education, nevertheless, there is some relation; after all, many young children will surely have followed the famous home run race, and undoubtedly some early educators will either give or receive an engagement or a wedding ring in the near future! Besides allowing readers to access these data sets and corresponding documentation at the end of articles, there is also a section of the Web site where the data is archived. See:

http://www.stat.ncsu.edu/info/jse/datasets.index.html

Electronic Review

For an electronic journal, the editorial process can be carried on electronically. Ideally, authors will submit their articles via email. Editors can email edited copies back to authors for them to examine. Articles, either as plain text or partially formatted, can be uploaded to non-public Web sites for review by members of the journal review board.

These procedures should save some time in the editorial process. However, authors and editors should not expect the time saving to be exceptional, because most of the editorial time for an editorial journal, as for a print journal, is dedicated to the careful reading, editing, proofing, and reviewing of the articles.

Correction of Errors

The ability to correct errors quickly is, obviously, much greater for electronic journals than for print journals. As soon as an error comes to the editor's attention, it can be corrected. Moreover, corrections can be incorporated into the original text, rather than be listed as "errata" in a subsequent issue. Depending on the error in question and the applicable editorial policy, an Editor's Note may or may not be included with the correction. The practice of error correction in an electronic article does, however, raise some questions of the authenticity of an "original" publication.

Authors, of course, should be pleased that errors in their works can be so easily corrected in the electronic medium. Editors, however, may reserve the right to make minor corrections, or to remove or update broken hyperlinks, without consulting the author. However, no substantive changes should be made without an author's permission.

Other Notable Features of Electronic Journals

Presentation in Multiple Formats

Articles in electronic journals are sometimes presented in several formats, most typically HTML (HyperText Markup Language) and PDF (Portable Document Format). HTML is the typical format for Web pages. It is a good format for on-screen reading and for making use of hyperlinks. PDF is a format that basically presents a graphical image of a page. It is often used to provide a Web version of the pages of an article that was previously published in print. Thus, it more closely resembles a print publication and is more likely to be found in the electronic edition of a journal that also has a print edition than in an electronic-only journal. Some readers find a print-out of a PDF page to be more aesthetically pleasing than an HTML print-out. Others find the text less legible than the text on an HTML page. To view a PDF file on a Web site, special software is needed. This software, Adobe Acrobat, is available free from Adobe Systems Incorporated. Typically, when you arrive at a Web page that provides PDF files, that page will also provide a link to the Adobe Acrobat download site. The software is easily installed and set up to be automatically accessed by your Web browser when it needs to read a PDF file.

An example of dual-format presentation can be found at the *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks*, an education journal published by Vanderbilt University. Articles in this journal can be viewed either as HTML files or as PDF files. See:

http://www.aln.org/

http://www.aln.org/alnweb/journal/jaln_vol2issue2.htm

Likewise, dual presentations are offered by the Journal of Technology Education, from

the International Technology Education Association, and by the *Katharine Sharp Review*, published by the Graduate School of Library and Information Science at the University of Illinois at Urbana–Champaign. See:

http://borg.lib.vt.edu/ejournals/JTE/jte.html

http://edfu.lis.uiuc.edu/review/

When an electronic journal provides access to articles in both HTML and PDF formats, authors do not typically need to anything different when they submit articles. The journal editorial or Web staff will prepare both formats as needed.

Full Text Searching

Full text searching is another substantial advantage of electronic over print publications. There are, of course, search aids in print publications (tables of contents, abstracts, in-text headings, end-of-issue indexes, multiple-issue indexes), and some of these features may also be present in electronic journals. However, the type of searching that can be accomplished on a Web-based journal with a good search engine that allows multiple keyword searching with Boolean logic (i.e., combining terms with AND, OR, and NOT) is a drastic improvement over this print-based access.

The *Journal of Statistics Education*, for example, has a feature with which readers can search all the issues of the journal. This search feature allows keyword and phrase searching, as well as searching using Boolean logic. See:

http://www.stat.ncsu.edu/info/jse/

http://verity.nesu.edu/query_pages/jse.html

The Scholarly Communications Project at Virginia Tech maintains a collection of education-related electronic journals on its Web site. Readers can perform a keyword search of the entire collection or of individual journals. See:

http://scholar.lib.vt.edu/ejournals/ej-search.html

A multiple-issue index may be present for some print publications. An example of a similar feature, an author index covering all issues of an electronic journal, is available at the Web site for the journal, *Issues in Science and Technology Librarianship*. Of course, a difference between a multiple-issue index in a print publication and this similar Web-based multiple-issue author index is that on the Web, readers can jump immediately to the desired article. See:

http://www.library.ucsb.edu/istl/

Electronic Notification of Publication

Since issues of electronic journals do not arrive in the daily mail, potential readers need to either check the journal Web site around the expected time of the next issue, or have another method of being informed of the issue's publication. One such method is a

journal-related Listserv. Individuals who subscribe to an electronic journal may also be subscribed to a read-only Listserv or other electronic discussion list, or may simply have their email address added to a notification list. In this case, the journal publisher posts a notice to this list whenever new issues of the journal are uploaded, or when other new features are added to the journal Web site.

For example, on the Web site for the journal *Issues in Science and Technology Librarianship*, a box is provided in which readers can fill in their email address if they want to be informed when future issues of the journal are available. See:

http://www.library.ucsb.edu/istl/

ECRP will offer a similar option on its Web site.

Provision of Related Resources

For Web-based journals, the journal Web site can provide resources and information related to the topic of the journal or of individual issues. These resources may be presented as sections of the Web site separate from the actual issues of the journal. These resources will more closely resemble the types of resources one typically finds on Web sites rather than in traditional journals, including Internet links, topical bibliographies, related publications, etc. The *ECRP* Web site contains a section of links to other electronic journals in early childhood fields, and will over time add other resources.

Constant Access

A major benefit of electronic journals is that they are always available (at least ideally; sites are sometimes down, of course). Readers need not be concerned about getting to their library before closing time, nor about the occasional disconcerting discovery that the journal issue they want is missing or damaged due to theft or vandalism.

Finding Electronic Journals

There are directories and archives that one can use to find electronic journals on the Internet. A directory that has already been mentioned is the Association of Research Library's (ARL) Directory of Electronic Journals, Newsletters, and Academic Discussion Lists. This print publication contains an extensive list of electronic journals and electronic magazines, as well as other electronic resources. Information on this publication is available at the ARL Web site:

http://www.arl.org/

The Directory is also available as a searchable online directory, but a paid subscription is required to access it.

If you are looking for electronic journals on a particular topic, you can sometimes find information on Web sites that address that topic. For example, on the *ECRP* Web site (the one you're currently visiting!), you will find a section with links to other electronic journals that have some relation to early childhood education:

http://ecrp.uiuc.edu/epublink.html

There are a number of other Web sites that serve as general archives (i.e., lists) of electronic journals. Some of these provide a search feature to help you locate journals on particular topics. For example, you might type in the keywords "education" and "early" to see if any journals related to early childhood education are listed on the Web site. Note that these lists may include not only journals in the scholarly sense, but also magazines, newsletters, electronic discussion lists, etc. A nonexhaustive list of these archives is presented below.

Colorado Alliance of Research Libraries (CARL) http://www.coalliance.org/
http://www.coalliance.org/ejournal/

This Web site provides a title and subject organization of electronic serial publications (e.g., journals, newsletters, magazines, e'zines, webzines) on the Internet.

Committee on Institutional Cooperation (CIC) Electronic Journals Collection (CIC-EJC) http://ejournals.cic.net/

The CIC is the academic consortium of the members of the Big Ten athletic conference and the University of Chicago. The CIC-EJC is a collaborative initiative between the librarians of the CIC member universities. The CIC collection seeks to incorporate all freely distributed scholarly electronic journals available online. The CIC-EJC serves as the electronic journal collection for the CIC member university libraries.

NewJour http://gort.ucsd.edu/newjour/

This Web site is the archive for NewJour, an Internet discussion list for new journals and newsletters available on the Internet.

There are many more archives. Some of the ones listed above (such as CARL) have links to lists of other archives. There are also sites that are archives for journals published by individual publishers or sponsored by individual universities. Two of these are listed below.

Project Muse at Johns Hopkins University http://muse.jhu.edu/muse.html

Project Muse provides worldwide, networked subscription access to the full text of the Press's more than 40 scholarly journals in the humanities, social sciences, and mathematics. Access is by subscription. If your educational institution is a subscriber to Project Muse, you will have free access to these journals from computers accessing Project Muse via the institutional network. To see if your institution has access, you can check with your institutional library or visit:

http://muse.jhu.edu/proj_descrip/subscribed.html

Scholarly Communications Project http://scholar.lib.vt.edu/
http://scholar.lib.vt.edu/ejournals/

This Web site at Virginia Tech contains a selection of journals compiled as a part of the project.

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ECRP Volume 1 Number 1 Spring 1999



Volume 1, Number 1

From Themes to Projects

Sylvia C. Chard

Abstract

Many teachers who begin to implement the Project Approach are familiar with a learning center or theme approach to teaching. Often there are some important differences to become awar, of. Projects are especially valuable for children in undertaking in-depth study of real-world topics. This paper presents the reflections of several teachers on their experiences moving from the use of a theme approach in their classrooms to using the Project Approach. The paper is presented in two parts. First there is a description of how a project on shoes undertaken by a kindergarten class might unfold, based on a synthesis of several teachers' accounts of how they proceeded with such a project. The description serves as an example of the potential of a project for the in-depth study of a topic. The second part of the paper is a commentary, interwoven with the narrative description of the project, and draws on the work of different teachers who have also carried out projects on the topic of shoes. This commentary, which features the different possibilities that may occur for teachers in different locations and working with different ages of children, also discusses a few of the challenges commonly experienced by teachers beginning to do projects, particularly the distinctions between projects and themes.

Introduction

This paper presents the reflections of several teachers on their experiences moving from the use of a theme approach in their classrooms to using the Project Approach. Some of these teachers were doing their first projects, while others had been working this way for several years. The paper is presented in two parts. First there is a description of how a project on shoes undertaken by a kindergarten class might unfold. This description is a synthesis based on several teachers' accounts of how they proceeded with a project on the topic of shoes and is used as an example to show the potential of project for the in-depth study of a topic.

The second part is a commentary, drawing on the work of different teachers who have also carried out projects on the topic of shoes. This commentary is interwoven with the narrative of the project and features the different possibilities that may occur for teachers in different locations and working with different ages of children. As part of the commentary, a few of the challenges commonly experienced by teachers beginning to do projects are offered, especially their comments about the distinctions between projects and themes.

A Project on Shoes in Kindergarten

The topic of "shoes" arose in discussion with the children because it was the beginning of the school year and several of them were wearing new shoes. The shoes had many interesting features: some lit up, some made noises, some had laces with different patterns and colors. The teacher and her assistant thought of many possible directions in which the children's interests might develop through a study of shoes. They brainstormed ideas and represented where the study might lead in a topic web.



Second-grade children adding words to a collection of ideas for a topic web.

Commentary

The preliminary planning that accompanies much successful project work involves the preparation of the mind of the teacher for the possibilities that could arise from the children's study of the topic. It is not the kind of objectives-driven planning that characterizes much direct instruction, where the objectives can be operationalized and prespecified in considerable detail. Instead, planning for project work involves the imaginative anticipation of the prior experience and level of interest that might reasonably be expected from a given class of children. The teacher can make a personal topic web of ideas and information that an investigation of the topic might include. She can discuss possibilities for field work, investigations, and representations with co-workers. A teacher who has done these things before the work gets underway can be mentally ready to guage the children's experience and interest and is likely to be receptive to the many different possibilities that might arise in the course of the project.

Phase 1: Getting Started

The children in the class talked about their shoes and their experiences buying shoes.

They began to wonder about shoes and raise questions. A list of questions was begun and added to throughout the first week of the project. The children painted and drew pictures of shoes and of their experiences buying shoes. The children were encouraged to ask their parents, friends, and neighbors for any kinds of shoes they might contribute to the class shoe collection for the study. The teacher brought in some shoes from her 16-year-old daughter's closet and added these to the dramatic play corner.

The class set up a simple shoe store in the dramatic play area and tried on the different shoes there. The parents were informed of the topic of study and were invited to discuss shoes with their children. They were also invited to share with the class any special knowledge they might have about shoes. At the end of the first week, the teacher arranged for a child in the class to bring in his baby brother to show them his first pair of "walking" shoes.



A child examining a pair of bronzed baby shoes.

Commentary

The process of encouraging children to tell personal true stories about their experiences with shoes is not as simple as it sounds. Here is an account of the experience of one second-grade teacher, Margaret E., who had been teaching through traditional themes for many years until this first attempt at a project. Her first plan to have the children tell stories about their experiences might have led to very constrained efforts on the part of the children. Here is how she described what she was going to do:

I may hold my shoe in my hand and tell a story about the day I could not find my shoe. I may ask the students to hold up their shoe and tell a story about the day they lost their shoe. I may ask the students to get a partner and share a funny story about their shoes.

Instead, because this teacher was taking a course in the Project Approach at the time, her plans were discussed with the class and modified accordingly. Many "lost shoe" stories would limit the number of other kinds of shoe stories the children could tell. The word "funny" in the second sentence would again limit the freedom of the children to share their experiences, whatever these might be. Instead, Margaret E. wrote about her experience with the children as follows:

I started the project with a simple story about the time I lost my shoe. I took off my shoe and held it in my hand as I told my story. Before I finished my story, I could sense that students wanted to tell me a shoe story, so I asked, "Does anyone have a true shoe story to tell the class?" About half the class (13) put up their hands. I thought I would listen to as many as I could, without having the rest of the class getting bored. My first thought about this storytelling session was that the students would all tell a "lost shoe story." After about 20 minutes, my fears changed to excitement. My students told the most interesting, diverse, funny, sad, and totally awesome shoe stories. Here are a few of them:

- Erika told a shoe story about learning to tie her shoe. Her mother would show her every day how to tie her shoes, but she didn't get it. Then one day she went in the living room by herself. She tied her shoes. She had a big smile on her face when she told this story.
- David told a story about the kinds of shoes he wore in Chile. He described the leather. He said he might be able to bring a pair of these shoes to school for us to look at. We said "wonderful."
- Ryan told a story about the day he tried roller blading in the house. He was roller blading down the hall making black marks. He got in trouble with his mom.
- Joelle told a story about the day her house burned down last month. All her shoes were burned in the fire. She had a hard time telling this story, so I helped her.
- Shelby told a story about the time she got her new shoes. She wanted shoes like the ones that the Spice Girls wear. She got her wish.
- Stephanie told a story about the tap shoes that Spanish dancers wear. Her family is from Costa Rica. She may be able to show us the tap shoes.

Many teachers find the process of developing lists of questions with children very difficult, as well. Sometimes it helps to have a particular pair of shoes for the children to think about. It also helps to model the process of "wondering" prior to formulating a

question. In the case of the second-grade teacher quoted above, there was a pair of antique shoes from her collection that she was able to bring in to show the children. Here is list of questions from the same class of second- grade children, with the teacher's account of the process of eliciting them through modeling her own wondering:

I held up a pair of antique lady's and men's shoes. I told the students two things that I wondered about with respect to these shoes. I told them that I wondered who had worn these shoes, and I wondered who had made these shoes. Then I asked the students what they wondered about and recorded it on chart paper.

- Marcel wondered if they would fit him. .
- Kyla wondered if they would stink.
- *Iegan wondered what they would feel like.
- Ryan wondered if they have any gum stuck on the bottom.
- Kaylyn wondered how long it would take to make these shoes.
- Kaitie wondered how much they cost.
- Brandon wondered if they would fit me.
- Shelby wondered how long the shoelaces were.
- Martin wondered where I got them from.
- David wondered what they were made of.



The teacher records children's questions about shoes.

Some of these questions would be answered at the central location in the classroom where the shoes would be on display, available for the children to investigate for themselves.

Phase 2: Developing the Project

The teacher and the children talked about what they could do to get answers to their questions about shoes. The questions included: What are shoes made of? Where are shoes made? How much do they cost? How do you know what size you wear?

As the children began to discuss money, they talked about what the storekeepers did with the money people paid when they bought shoes. Some thought the salespersons gave it to poor people, others thought they took it home for their pay, and some thought the boss kept it all. The variety of predicted answers to questions heightened the children's curiosity and desire to find out more details about what went on in a shoe store. The teacher arranged a trip to a family shoe store in their city. The children worked for a whole week to prepare for the trip. They decided what parts of the store needed to be investigated, and who would take responsibility for drawing what parts of the store and for asking which questions of the boss and of the salespersons. The field work was planned to get the information needed to make a more elaborate shoe store in the classroom upon their return.

Five groups formed around the children's special interests. The children were interested in investigating:

- The cash register, how many shoes are sold in a day, and the amount of money collected each day.
- How the shoes are displayed in the shop windows and presented for customers' viewing in the store.
- The storeroom, and how the shoe boxes are arranged (e.g., men/women/children, sizes, dress/sport, etc.).
- The shoe salesperson's responsibilities and activities.
- The different kinds of shoes available.
- Sizes, colors, and numbers of shoes in stock.
- Where the shoes came from, where they are delivered, and the frequencies of deliveries.
- The shoe collection brought by children to the class in terms of their materials, their special functions, and style, model, and manufactures' names.

The teacher and her assistant worked in turn with each group to talk about the questions they wanted to ask and what they wanted to find out. The teachers helped the children develop ways to record the information to be gathered at the store.

The teacher contacted the personnel in the shoe store in advance to prepare them for the visit by explaining the expectations she had for the field experience. She outlined the questions the children wanted them to answer and described the drawings planned, the observations the children wanted to make of them at work, and the items the children wanted to examine closely.

When the big day arrived, the three people at the shoe store spent about 20 minutes with each group of children. The children returned to school with a great deal to think about! The teacher and her assistant led discussions in large and small groups to debrief the children about the visit.

Each group told the whole class about the information the group had acquired. Then the children set out to build a shoe store in their classroom. Groups and individual children found out what they needed to know to make what they wanted to add to the shoe store. Throughout the next 3 weeks, the teacher talked to each group about its progress, and the children listened to each other's ideas and made suggestions.

The children worked on making models of cars to get to the store. They made a bird in a cage and a television set like the ones they had seen in the store. They made catalogs for their store's shoes. They marked the shoe boxes so they would know which kinds of shoes were in the boxes. Some children made money for the little cash register the teacher provided. They made a shoe chart so that shoppers in their store could tell their shoe sizes. They worked on a book to tell new shop workers how to sell shoes. They made a wooden bench for children to sit on while waiting to be served. In some cases, several versions of these things were made because children wanted to be personally involved in particular contributions to the store. In particular, children made many shoe catalogs! A Turkish guest worker also helped two children from her country to use their own language in the context of the project by producing a Turkish version of a shoe catalog and posting advertising and directional signs in Turkish.

During this period of investigating and representing the items they wanted to put in their shoe store, the children invited several visitors to their classroom. Another teacher in the school was a dancer and showed her tap shoes and her special jazz dancing shoes. One parent visitor showed her special shoes for bicycle racing. A grandfather of one of the children had repaired shoes in his work and was able to tell the children about how shoes are made and what they are made of. With this knowledgeable man's help, the children were able to examine the parts of a shoe: the leather, thread, tacks, and glue used in shoe construction. Various other kinds of sports shoes were shown to the children by older siblings, and their special features were discussed: ice skates, roller blades, Doc Martens, ski boots, fishing waders, golf shoes with cleats, wooden shoes from the Netherlands, ballet slippers, cowboy boots from Texas, and soccer shoes.

During the field visit, the children had been able to watch the process of sclling a pair of shoes to a customer. They noted the steps in the process from the salesman's and the customer's points of view. The children were able to use these steps in the dramatization of the sale and purchase of shoes in their own shoe store. They took pride in showing several pairs of shoes to prospective buyers, measuring their feet, interviewing them as to the kind of shoe they wanted and the color and price they wanted to pay. Then children concluded the sale and put the unsold shoes back in their boxes and back on the storage shelves.

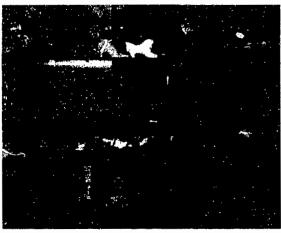
The children who made the dollar bills set up a bank so that their money could be used in the purchase of shoes in the store. A number line was provided to help those children who wished to use it to count out the money they wanted to spend. Prices were added to the information on the shoe boxes.

Commentary

In the second phase of a project, the work tends to become much more investigative and diversified than in the first phase. The directions the project takes often reflect the variety of sources of information the teacher finds among parents, family members, and people and businesses in the local community. In other shoe project descriptions, the following stories were told by teachers about the resources they discovered for their projects.

One teacher developed a project on shoes with her second-grade class. A teacher of an

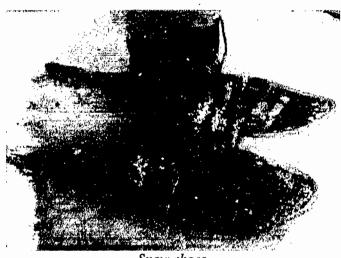
older class in the same school had written a children's book called *Sneakers: The Shoes We Choose*. This teacher, Robert Young, came as a visiting expert to the class and brought the largest professional basketball player's shoe (that of Shaquille O'Neal) and the smallest baby's shoe he could find, for contrast. The basketball player's shoe was a size 22, triple 3! Margaret E., the second-grade teacher queted earlier, had inherited some antique shoes and a shoe ornament collection containing 300 items. She had bone china shoes, glass shoes, bronze shoes, stained glass shoes, wooden shoes, miniature shoes, and hundreds of shoes from different countries: Holland, India, Germany, France, England, Scotland, Canada, the United States, and Japan.



A collection of antique shoes and shoe ornaments.

In one kindergarten class I visited, the father of one of the children was a lawyer. He helped the children understand the importance of shoe print evidence at the site of a crime in finding criminals. In another class, one of the parents had worked for some years in a shoe store and was able to tell the children about how a shoe store operates, as well as a good deal of information about different kinds of shoes. In Margaret E.'s classroom in northwestern Alberta, Canada, a group of children went out on snow shoes. Before they went, they drew what they remembered snow shoes looked like; later they were able to draw snow shoes from observation in the classroom. Elsewhere children learned about the shoes sled dogs wear to protect their foot pads from becoming rough and icy, and about how, until recently, women in the Yukon would gather with friends to sew hundreds of these little felt booties for the winter.

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Snow shoes.



A child doing a field sketch of snow shoes.

In the second phase of the project on shoes, the teacher, Margaret E., tried to increase the quality of the children's work and their commitment to their own choices and the development of their own interests and ideas:

When I teach using systematic instruction with the Thematic Approach, all the children do all the activities at the same time. They try to finish as many as I have presented for that class time. If they finish the art project or worksheet, I give them the next one. The students follow the instructions, and if everything goes as planned, I should have 26 similar art projects or worksheets. They think they have to do everything that I have presented even though I have stressed that I want quality, not quantity. Now, with the Project Approach, I am listing a lot of project choices to untrain my class and myself. I need to let my class experience that they have many alternatives to choose from. I would like them to try the ones that interest them and work on them to a high standard. I would like them to apply their own skills at their own independent

level.

Making choices does seem to help children feel competent and become more committed to completing their work to a standard that will be satisfying both to them and their teacher. For teachers beginning to work with projects, giving children choices can be a challenging step, and choice is something that children learn to exercise with increasing responsibility. Dot Schuler, an experienced teacher at implementing the Project Approach, writes:

Even now, I always feel apprehensive about what they will choose, but being allowed to make these choices with guidance from their teacher is one of the main reasons why children enjoy their project work so much. (Dct Schuler, <u>PROJECTS-L Listsery</u>, January 23, 1999)

Children themselves can also discuss the process and value of making choices in their work. Some benefits of making choices were expressed by a group of first-grade children to their teacher as follows:

Carrie: When you work on projects you choose what to do. So usually you choose something you can do, or maybe something that you think you can do, so you can get to work.

Teacher: But maybe you'll need help if it's something you only think you can do?

Diana: Well, not really. You chose to do that because you thought you could do it, so you must have some ideas of what to do.

Carrie: And if the first one doesn't work, the next idea might.

James: And if you make the choice, you try harder to make it work. (Leskiw, 1998, p. 127)

Phase 3: Concluding the Project

After several weeks, the children became interested in new kinds of play. They wanted to explore the bus travel that had begun during the shoe project as some customers came to town to buy shoes using the local transit system. At this time, the teacher arranged an opportunity for the parents to come to the school to visit the children's shoe store and see what had been learned in the process of developing the children's interests in shoe store construction and play. The parents had the opportunity to buy shoes in the store and be served by their children.

The parents were able to look at the children's drawings and paintings. They were able to read the documentation of the project, including the word labels and captions written by children and teachers on the representational work, and the photographs taken throughout the project to record the high points and various aspects of the children's learning. Among the skills applied by the children were counting; measuring; using

technical vocabulary; color, shape, and size recognition; and interviewing and other social skills. The knowledge children had gained concerned the processes of designing, manufacturing, and selling shoes, and much information about the variety of materials used in making various kinds of shoes and different parts of shoes. Children also appreciated the working of a store and the interdependence of the several different people involved in enabling people to wear something as basic as shoes. The parents who were able to take part in the final sharing of the work were left in no doubt that valuable in-depth learning had taken place over the 8 weeks of the life of the project.





Kaitie's drawing of snow shoes from observation is much more detailed than her drawing from memory.

Commentary

The third phase of a project often involves a review and evaluation of the work that has been done. It can also involve arranging a culminating event to share the highlights of the work with parents or another class of children. This phase also serves as a debriefing for the children on the detailed work accomplished. The children often show good recall and understanding in their presentations and deliver their explanations with considerable confidence.

One second-grade teacher was invited to talk about her shoe project at a "school-to-work" conference in the local city. She was to be one of a team of teachers from the school. She decided to take a child to tell the story of the school project. The 7-year-old showed overhead transparencies of the work and talked informatively and with confidence about the work the class had done. The teacher said she could not have given a more impressive account if she had done it herself.

Many teachers who begin to implement the Project Approach are familiar with a learning center or theme approach to teaching. Often there are some important differences to become aware of. Projects are especially valuable for the children in undertaking in-depth study of real-world topics. However, they are not the only approaches to teaching. The second-grade teacher, Margaret E., writes about such distinctions in her journal:

When I started a theme, for example on cats, my whole room would be transformed into a cat room. I would be the expert on

the topic, I would set up the room before the theme would start, I would get all the materials ready, I would plan every center, make every worksheet that I was going to use, find every art project that I was going to make with the children. My own knowledge would be the starting point for the study on cats. Everything would be preplanned. I would pull out my boxes on cats and use the same stuff year after year.

As I can see now, the thematic approach would be a good way to start a unit on something quite foreign to grade 2 students, for example Australian wildlife or the planets. I think another time for thematic work would be when you need to present a short study on a part of the curriculum or review on a unit, like money.

Teachers doing projects for the first time talked about the challenge of responsive and ongoing planning that includes frequent negotiations with the children. They also commented on the importance of being a model for the children of dispositions that enhance learning. For example, children become curious, interested, and committed to their investigations and representations as they see such interest and commitment modeled around them. The teacher has an important role as a model, and children in older classes who may come and work with the younger children as part of a project can also model desirable dispositions.

One first-grade teacher completed a case study of a project for her master's thesis. In it she wrote about her experience with this way of teaching, making special reference to her modeling role: "I knew, too, that it was essential for me to model questions, expectations and standards without prescribing or limiting the ideas the children might offer" (Leskiw, 1998, p. 20-21). This kind of modeling is also important to develop children's interest is important for its capacity to energize project work. Interest may already be present in children in relation to a topic of study, like "shoes," but for many children, interest will develop following lively discussion about the topic in the classroom.

The topic itself, "shoes," is only as interesting as the questions that can be investigated—as what it is possible to find out about shoes. The teacher's role is critical in formulating the questions. I once had a teacher tell me about how she had tried to interest a group of children in the topic of shoes, but that they had resisted any attempt to focus their attention on the topic. It might have been that the particular group of children was more interested in almost anything else, but their resistance also may have been due to the teacher's inexperience at developing interest among the children. One teacher, Margaret B., with many years of experience with projects, refers to her role as "spokesperson for reality." In this role, the teacher interprets reality in terms of the opportunities it offers for investigation. Children who have little experience with project work are not aware of how thoroughly topics can be investigated. They cannot become interested in what they know nothing of. Teachers who only have experience with preplanned themes likewise must discover the richness of the investigative potential of project work.

In this article, I have presented an account of a project on shoes with a kindergarten

class. Among the descriptions of the phases of development that this project took, I have included commentary based on teachers' accounts of their project work. There has been discussion of the distinctions between themes and projects and references to the challenges faced by teachers beginning to do this kind of work with children. Particularly, the relationship between teacher and children is likely to be changed through project work. Project work can provide a view of a child that most clearly reveals to the teacher what the child is capable of. As one teacher writes about her grade 1 children, "The way I perceive students has changed somewhat. My students are capable of completing any task they undertake. I spend more time developing their strengths, rather than on focusing on their deficiencies. This has meant a change in the way I report student progress to parents. I must still complete a report card, but I do so with many anecdotes directly relating to work completed rather than percentages or marks. As well, a monthly portfolio is sent home to parents" (Leskiw, 1998, p. 144-145).

As Dot Schuler writes, "Gradually, and continually, I am learning not to doubt the potential capabilities of children when they become involved in their project work" (personal communication, 1999).

Note: Pictures for this article were contributed by teacher Margaret Epoch and her second-grade students, but the activities shown could be undertaken in shoe projects with children from kindergarten to third grade.

Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge the following teachers for their contributions to the information here on the projects undertaken in classrooms and for the reflections and comments freely given in journals, personal communications, and phone interviews: Margaret Brooks, Margaret Epoch, Candy Ganzel, Lorraine Leskiw, Dianne Roth, and Dot Schuler, whose classrooms are located, respectively, in Alberta, Canada; Indiana; Oregon; and Illinois.

References

Leskiw, Lorraine. (1998). A study of the engagement of children's minds. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Alberta.

For More Information

Katz, Lilian G., & Chard, Sylvia C. (1989). Engaging children's minds: The Project Approach. Norton, NJ: Ablex. ED 407 074.

Project Approach Web Site (http://www.ualberta.ea/~schard/projects.htm)

PROJECTS-L Listserv (http://ericeece.org/listserv/projec-l.html)

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department of early childhood education and principal lecturer at the College of St. Paul and St. Mary in Cheltenham, England. Sylvia has taught at the preschool, elementary, and high school levels in England. She is coauthor with Lilian G. Katz of *Engaging Children's Minds: The Project Approach* (Ablex, 1989), and has written several articles and two *Practical Guides* to the Project Approach (Book 1 & Book 2, Scholastic, 1998). She has taught numerous courses and workshops on the Project Approach in Canada, the United States, Japan, Korea, and Europe; and she co-owns and manages an electronic discussion group (<u>PROJECTS-L</u>), is designing online courses, and continues to develop a Web site (http://www.ualberta.ca/~schard/projects.htm) to help teachers share their experiences of project work in classrooms. Sylvia's research is in teacher development and the implementation of the Project Approach in schools.

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ECRP

Volume 1 Number 1
Spring 1999



Volume 1, Number 1

ERIC Database Citations on Topics Discussed in This Issue

Mixed-Age Grouping
Project Approach
Distance Education
Professional Development Schools
Teacher-Parent Partnerships
Electronic Journals

Mixed-Age Grouping

ERIC Documents

ED416456 CS013066

Implementing Multiage Education: A Practical Guide.

Kasten, Wendy C.; Lolli, Elizabeth Monce

1998

328p.

ISBN: 0-926842-78-1

Available From: Christopher-Gordon Publishers, Inc., 1502 Providence Highway, Suite 12, Norwood, MA 02062 (\$25.95 plus 10% shipping/handling).

Document Not Available from EDRS.

Document Type: TEACHING GUIDE (052); NON-CLASSROOM MATERIAL (055)

Geographic Source: U.S.; Massachusetts

Target Audience: Practitioners

Noting that multiage education continues to receive a great deal of interest as educators, legislators, and parents seek to find ways to improve educational experiences for all children, this book takes readers by the hand and guides them as they move from exploring the concept of multiage to the actual stages of implementation. As is consistent with the philosophy of multiage, the book does not suggest that there is only one right way to put multiage into practice but presents many possible avenues to beginning multiage classes. "Clipboards" and "memos" at the end of each chapter provide summaries or discussion questions for the faculty to ponder as they decide if and how to implement multiaging in their school. After a foreword by Barbara Nelson Pavan and an introduction, chapters in the book are: (1) "Why Become Multiage"; (2) "Changing the Face of Education--Successfully"; (3) "Designing the Multiage School"; (4) "Schoolwide Considerations"; (5) "Setting the Stage: Curriculum and Instruction in a Context"; (6) "Designing the Multiage Curriculum"; (7) "Implementing Your Curriculum in the Multiage Classroom"; (8) "Math in the Multiage Classroom"; and (9) "Assessment in the Multiage Classroom." Contains approximately 220 references; 17 appendixes include survey instruments, class list forms, standards for various content areas, and a list of whole language beliefs; contains a 52-item glossary). (RS)

Descriptors: *Classroom Environment; Curriculum Development; *Educational Change; Elementary Secondary Education; Evaluation Methods; Language Arts; Mathematics Instruction; *Mixed Age Grouping; Program Implementation; *Student Evaluation

Identifiers: Educational Issues

ED415217 SP037726

Inside the One Room Schoolhouse: A Look at Nongraded Classrooms from the Inside Out.

Britt, Patricia M.

1997

18p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association (Memphis, TN, November 12-14, 1997).

EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.

Document Type: RESEARCH REPORT (143); CONFERENCE PAPER (150)

Geographic Source: U.S.; Mississippi

This study examined nongraded, multi-age elementary classrooms from the perspective of involved principals, teachers, and parents. Data came from field notes taken at on-site observations and from in-person structured and unstructured interviews with principals and teachers. The schools were all located in a small urban town in north central Mississippi. The study found that the schools set up and operated the nongraded classrooms in different ways. The classrooms operated according to the philosophy of the teachers in charge of the classes under the guidance of the principal; each classroom was different from the next. The schools that experienced the most success were those in which the teachers did not feel threatened and were given the freedom to operate as they deemed appropriate. Some parent concerns included mixing the sexes, having siblings in the same room, giving up traditional grading and assessment, and possibly short-changing math. Keeping parents continually informed and working together with the school, teacher, and students were important guiding principles to ensure success, according to one principal. Another principal stated that authentic assessment was the key to success. (Contains 8 references.) (SM)

Descriptors: Administrator Attitudes; Elementary Education; Elementary School Students; Elementary School Teachers; *Mixed Age Grouping; *Nongraded Instructional Grouping; Parent Attitudes; *Parent School Relationship; *Parent Teacher Cooperation; Portfolio Assessment; Principals; School Restructuring; Student Evaluation; Teacher Attitudes

Identifiers: Mississippi (North)

ED409604 EA028387

Building Support for Multiage Education. ERIC Digest, Number 114.

Gaustad, Joan

ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, Eugene, OR.

Jun 1997

3p.

Report No: EDO-EA-97-6

Available From: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, 5207, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR 97403-5207.

EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.

Document Type: ERIC PRODUCT (071); ERIC DIGESTS (SELECTED) (073)

Geographic Source: U.S.; Oregon

Multiage education involves placing children of different ages, abilities, and emotional maturity in the same classroom. Research indicates that heterogeneous grouping promotes cognitive and social growth, reduces antisocial behavior, and facilitates the use of research-based, developmentally appropriate instructional practices. Because multiage education is unfamiliar to most citizens, it is crucial for these programs to garner parent and community support. This digest summarizes research findings on how schools can create support for multiage education. Topics include the importance of parent and community support, the ways in which multiage practices can be effectively communicated, the ways in which parents and the community can be involved, the obstacles that can hinder meaningful parent involvement, and the ways in which parents and community members can participate in decision making. (LMI)

Descriptors: *Community Support; Elementary Secondary Education; *Information Dissemination; *Mixed Age Grouping; *Nongraded Instructional Grouping; *Parent Participation; Participative Decision Making; Public Support; School Community Relationship; *School Support; Volunteers

Identifiers: ERIC Digests

Journal Articles

EJ563115 PS527827

The Transition from Kindergarten to Ungraded Primary: Longitudinal Predictors of Popularity and Social Reputation.

Lemerise, Elizabeth A.; Harper, Bridgette D.; Howes, Heidi M.

Early Education and Development; v9 n2 p187-201 Apr 1998

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); RESEARCH REPORT (143)

Studied the longitudinal stability of measures of peer acceptance, social status, and social reputation and the role of children's ages relative to classmates during the transition from same-age kindergarten to mixed-age ungraded primary classes. Found that overall peer acceptance and aggressive social reputation were moderately stable. Half of the rejected kindergarten children maintained their rejected status in primary school. (Author)

Descriptors: Age Differences; Elementary School Students; *Kindergarten; Longitudinal Studies; Mixed Age Grouping; Multigraded Classes; *Nongraded Instructional Grouping; *Peer Acceptance; Peer Relationship; Popularity; Predictor Variables; Primary Education; Rejection (Psychology); Reliability; *Reputation; *Social Status; Sociometric Techniques; *Student Adjustment

Identifiers: *Relative Age

EJ550544 EA533786

Multiage Misconceptions: Suggestions from Practice.

Lolli, Elizabeth Monce

ERS Spectrum, v15 n3 p14-19 Sum 1997

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); EVALUATIVE REPORT (142)

A former principal of a nongraded elementary school discusses the nongraded, multiage philosophy, effects of multiage grouping, prevalent misconceptions, and suggestions from practice. Critics often mistakenly characterize multiage classrooms as homogeneous, unstructured, and team-taught; appropriate for kindergarten and primary children only; reflective of current age-grouping and grading practices; and easily implemented. (27 references) (MLH)

Descriptors: *Academic Achievement; Educational Philosophy; Elementary Education; *Grading; *Misconceptions; *Mixed Age Grouping; *Program Implementation; *Teaching Methods

Identifiers: *Developmentally Appropriate Programs

EJ549495 PS526777

Project Friends: A Multi-Age Learning Community.

Adams, Diane; And Others

Early Childhood Education Journal, v24 n4 p217-21 Sum 1997

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141)

Describes Project Friends, a mixed-age classroom of kindergartners, first graders, and second graders, including its beginnings, significant features (such as use of integrated thematic curriculum and ''clubs''), and outcomes. Asserts that the program has empowered children for learning and encouraged helping relationships among children. (EV)

Descriptors: Cooperative Learning; *Mixed Age Grouping; *Outcomes of Education; Primary Education; *Program Descriptions; Student Empowerment; Student Participation; Thematic Approach

Identifiers: Learning Communities

Project Approach

ERIC Documents

PS027048

The Project Approach Catalog 2.

Helm, Judy Harris, Ed.

1998

Available from: ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Children's Research Center, 51 Gerty Drive, Champaign, IL 61820-7469 (Catalog No. 219, \$10, plus \$1.50 shipping in U.S.; \$3 shipping elsewhere. Payment must be in U.S. funds, payable to the University of Illinois).

Document Type: NON-CLASSROOM MATERIAL (055); PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141)

Projects are in-depth studies of a topic undertaken by a class, a group, or an individual child. Projects are intended to strengthen children's dispositions to be interested, absorbed, and involved in in-depth observation, investigation, and representation of worthwhile phenomena in their own environments. This Catalog on the Project Approach, the second of its kind, describes and illustrates 13 projects done by children ir ly childhood and elementary classrooms on topics such as: trees, paper, play ounds, building, potatoes, balls, cars, the vet, the hospital, shoes, water, and baby blankets. In addition to the project descriptions, several articles address a variety of issues of common concern to teachers implementing the Project Approach. These include the phases of project work, project topic selection, the value of drawing in projects, introducing investigation skills with a mini-project, involving special needs students in projects, engaged learning and standards of work, and helping students at various levels of professional training to learn how to implement the Project Approach. Sections on research and implementation of the Project Approach in Canada, and on the Internet and the Project Approach (including listsery discussions), are also included. The Catalog's final section, "Resources for Implementing the Project Approach," includes four ERIC Digests, a glossary, a list of recommended books, an ERIC bibliography on the Project Approach, information on a Project Approach summer institute, and a list of contributors to the Catalog. (EV)

Descriptors: Student Projects; *Teaching Methods; Early Childhood Education; Elementary Education; Freehand Drawing; Teacher Education; Educational Research; Active Learning; *Discovery Learning; Cooperative Learning; Creative Development; Group Activities; Instructional Innovation; *Learning Activities; Problem Solving; Internet; Special Needs Students; Foreign Countries

Identifiers: Project Approach (Katz and Chard); Canada; University of Alberta (Canada)

PS027125

Rearview Mirror: Reflections on a Preschool Car Project.

Beneke, Sallee

1998

Available from: ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Children's Research Center, 51 Gerty Drive, Champaign, IL 61820-7469; phone: 800-583-4135, 217-333-1386; fax: 217-333-3767 (Catalog No. 220, \$10, plus \$1.50 shipping in U.S.; \$3 shipping outside U.S. Payment must be in U.S. funds. Make checks payable to 'University of Illinois').

Document Type: PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141)

This book documents the work of a master preschool teacher, her co-teachers, student teachers, and very young children as they explored the automotive laboratory adjacent to their early childhood classroom at a community college. In addition to introducing the project approach, the master teacher also introduced the staff and students to documentation practices, including systematic curriculum-based assessment through the use of the Work Sampling System. The book's introduction discusses the challenges and exportunities presented by the location of the early childhood classroom in the college's Automotive Mechanics Building. The first chapter, "Planning and Anticipating the Car Project," discusses reasons for choosing cars as a project topic, the generation of a topic web, and reasons for using the project approach and the Work Sampling System. The second chapter, "Phase 1: Beginning the Project," describes the early stages of the project and individual children's experiences starting their exploration of cars. The third chapter, "Phase 2: Building the Car," describes how individual children solved the problems that arose in the course of the project, in addition to discussing various topics, including the challenges presented by the irregular attendance patterns of the children at the center, when to include teacher-initiated activities in project work, and the value of demonstrating a new activity. The fourth chapter, "Phase 3: Sharing and Celebrating Accomplishments." discusses displaying documentation as a record of the project, documenting the project in portfolios, and the final display of the car. The publication concludes with four ERIC digests: (1) "The Project Approach"; (2) "Issues in Selecting Topics for Projects"; (3) "The Contribution of Documentation to the Quality of Early Childhood Education"; and (4) "Performance Assessment in Early Childhood Education: The Work Sampling System." Includes 91 illustrations. (LPP)

Descriptors: *Student Projects; *Class Activities; *Documentation; Learning Activities; Personal Narratives; Preschool Curriculum; Preschool Education; *Early Childhood Education; Experiential Learning; Integrated Curriculum; Teaching Methods; Classroom Techniques; Discovery Learning; Active Learning; Young Children; Teacher Role; Teacher Student Relationship; Problem Solving; Cooperative Learning; *Portfolio Assessment; Curriculum Based Assessment

Identifiers: *Project Approach (Katz and Chard); Project Based Instruction; *Work Sampling System (Meisels)

ED420362 PS025825

The Project Approach: Developing the Basic Framework. Practical Guide 1.

Chard, Sylvia C.

1998

64p.; For "Practical Guide 2" of this series, see PS 025 826.

Available from: Scholastic, Inc., 555 Broadway, New York, NY 10012; phone: 212-343-6100 (\$12.95).

Document Not Available from EDRS.

Document Type: TEACHING GUIDE (052)

Geographic Source: Canada, Alberta

This guide is designed to offer teachers and school administrators a rationale for the Project Approach, a description of the practical implications of its implementation, and ways of integrating parts of the approach with other ways of teaching. The guide is divided into two sections. Section 1, "Reviewing Today's Classroom Practices," examines issues as they relate to children and learning. Chapter 1, "The Learner," gives an account of children's learning that can form a useful basis for planning and evaluating progress. Chapter 2, "The Instruction," presents effective teaching and classroom management techniques, and Chapter 3, "The Learning Environment," examines the teacher's role in managing an environment where a variety of different activities are in progress. Chapter 4, "The Content," offers a detailed comparison between topics and themes, units and projects, and a step-by-step approach to creating a project topic with children. Section 2 details "Understanding the Project Approach." Chapter 5, "Phases of Project Work," provides a walk-through of the three phases (getting started, fieldwork, culminating event), with an outline of what each phase has to offer and how they differ from one another. Chapter 6, "Children's Work: Processes and Products," gives a detailed description of children at work on projects. Chapter 7, "Evaluation and Assessment," makes a distinction between the kinds of learning that can be assessed in the different parts of the programs, and chapter 8, "The Roles of Teachers, Students, and Parents," looks at how parents can be better informed about their children's learning and more involved in their progress both in school and at home. (EV)

Descriptors: Classroom Environment; Classroom Techniques; Elementary Education; Foreign Countries; Learning Processes; Parent Participation; Student Evaluation; *Student Projects; Teaching Guides; Teaching Methods

Identifiers: *Project Approach (Katz and Chard)

ED420363 PS025826

The Project Approach: Developing Curriculum with Children. Practical Guide 2.

Chard, Sylvia C.

1998

64p.; For "Practical Guide 1" of this series, see PS 025 825.

Available from: Scholastic, Inc., 555 Broadway, New York, NY 10012; phone: 212-343-6100 (\$12.95). Document Not Available from EDRS.

Document Type: TEACHING GUIDE (052)

Geographic Source: Canada; Alberta

This guide, a complement to "Project Approach: Developing the Basic Framework," was written to clarify particular structural features of good project work. The guide's introduction provides background information on the philosophy and methods of the Project Approach. The core of the book is divided into four parts. The first three parts each cover one of the phases of the Project Approach: getting started, fieldwork, and culminating event. Each of these parts is organized according to the five structural features of the approach (discussions, fieldwork, representation, investigation, display). Also common to all three parts is the incorporation of case study examples. The parts are: (1) "Getting Started (Phase 1)," which discusses preparation for the project and design and planning work; (2) "Developing the Project Work (Phase 2)," which discusses conducting fieldwork and implementation and development work; and (3) "Concluding the Project (Phase 3)," which discusses debriefing the learning and reviewing and sharing. The fourth part of the guide explores "Classroom Organization and Management." (EV)

Descriptors: Classroom Environment; Classroom Techniques; Curriculum Design; *Curriculum Development; Early Childhood Education; Elementary

Education; Foreign Countries; *Student Centered Curriculum; *Student Projects; Teaching Guides; Teaching Methods

Identifiers: *Project Approach (Katz and Chard)

ED413036 PS023951

Bringing Reggio Emilia Home: An Innovative Approach to Early Childhood Education.

Cadwell, Louise Boyd

1997

160p.; Foreword by Lella Gandini.

ISBN: 0-8077-3660-0; 0-8077-3661-9

Available From: Teacher's College Press, 1234 Amsterdam Avenue, New York, NY 10027; phone: 800-575-6566 (Cloth: ISBN-0-8077-3661-9, \$43; Paper:

ISBN-0-8077-3660-0, \$19.95).

Document Not Available from EDRS.

Document Type: POSITION PAPER (120); PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141)

Geographic Source: U.S.; New York

Journal Announcement: RIEMAR98

This book is a collection of stories describing the Reggio Emilia approach to early childhood education, based on the author's internship in the Italian preschools and a 4-year adaptation effort in one American school. The book's prologue describes the author's work before using the Reggio Emilia approach, the history of Reggio Emilia, the fundamentals of the approach, and the College School of Webster Groves, Missouri where the approach was adapted to a U.S. setting, Chapter 1, "The Journey," details the initial exposure to the Reggio approach, securing an internship, and typical days in the Diana School in Italy. Chapter 2, "The Pleasures and Power of Playing with Materials," discusses the variety of materials available to students and tells stories describing projects children use to build an expanding awareness and understanding of the natural world. Chapter 3, "The Children and the Trees," describes how Reggio Emilia educators define and develop projects, and conveys the story of the children's study of trees and plants. Chapter 4, "Returning Home to St. Louis," describes the move to St. Louis to adapt the Reggio Approach for use in the College School, the importance of spoken language and conversations with children, and the use of visual arts. Chapter 5, "Transforming Space, Time, and Relations," deals with structural and other changes in the preschool space and working with colleagues and parents. Chapter 6, "The Children and the Garden," describes a project on plants which extended from preschool through kindergarten, conversations around the project and grow table designs, children's journals, and sculptures. (Contains 46 references.) (KB)

Descriptors: Childrens Art; Childrens Writing; Classroom Design; *Early Childhood Education; Educational Environment; *Educational Innovation; Foreign Countries; Instructional Materials; Journal Writing; Language Skills; Learning Activities; Personal Narratives; Plants (Botany); Teacher Student Relationship; *Teaching Methods; Visual Arts; Young Children

Identifiers: Italy (Reggio Emilia); Project Approach (Katz and Chard); *Reggio Emilia Approach

ED393608 PS024196

The Contribution of Documentation to the Quality of Early Childhood Education. ERIC Digest.

Katz, Lilian G.; Chard, Sylvia C.

ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education, Urbana, Ill.

Apr 1996

3p.

Sponsoring Agency: Office of Educational Research and Improvement (ED), Washington, DC.

Contract No: RR93002007

Report No: EDO-PS-96-2

EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.

Document Type: ERIC PRODUCT (071); ERIC DIGESTS (SELECTED) (073)

Geographic Source: U.S.; Illinois

Journal Announcement: RIEAUG96

Documentation, in the forms of observation of children and record keeping, has long been practiced in many early childhood programs, particularly in the preschools of Reggio Emilia, Italy. Documentation typically includes samples of children's work at several stages of completion; photographs showing work in progress; comments by teachers working with the children; transcriptions of children's discussions; and parents' comments. High-quality documentation of children's work contributes to the quality of early childhood programs in at least six ways. First, documentation enhances children's learning. The processes of preparing and displaying documentaries of children's efforts provides a kind of re-visiting of experience during which new understandings are clarified and strengthened. Second, careful and attractive documentary displays convey to children that their efforts are taken seriously. Third, documentation encorrages continuous teacher planning and evaluation of work with children. When teachers and children plan together, activities are likely to be undertaken with greater interest and representational skill than when children plan alone or when teachers are unaware of challenges facing the children. Fourth, documentation fosters parent appreciation and participation. Through learning about the work in which their children are engaged, parents may contribute ideas for activities to teachers and their own time in the classroom. Fifth, teacher research and process awareness is fostered by documentation. As teachers examine and document children's work. their understanding of children's development is deepened in ways not likely to occur from inspecting test results. Sixth, children's learning is made visible through documentation, which provides information about children's progress that cannot be obtained from standardized tests. When children are engaged in absorbing and complex projects, documentation can make a contribution in these six ways. (BC)

Descriptors: Classroom Techniques; Early Childhood Education; Paretic Participation; *Portfolio Assessment; Preschool Children; *Student Projects; *Teacher Student Relationship

Identifiers: *Project Approach (Katz and Chard); Reggio Emilia Approach

Journal Articles

EJ554424 PS527241

The Project Approach in Inclusive Preschool Classrooms.

Greenwald, Carol; Hand, Jennifer

Dimensions of Early Childhood, v25 n4 p35-39 Fall 1997

ISSN: 1068-6177

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141)

Journal Announcement: CIJAPR98

Describes a program for a project approach in inclusive classrooms which balances the needs of children with and without developmental delays and provides effective and efficient learning. Provides guidance in choosing the project topic, introducing ideas, implementing project activities, completing the project, and evaluating the experience. (SD)

Descriptors: Child Development; *Class Activities; Developmental Delays; Developmental Disabilities; Disabilities; *Inclusive Schools; Mainstreaming; Normalization (Disabilities); *Preschool Education; *Regular and Special Education Relationship; Special Education; Special Needs Students; *Student Projects

Identifiers: *Project Approach (Katz and Chard)

EJ547961 PS526717

The Fiber Project: One Teacher's Adventure toward Emergent Curriculum.

Booth, Cleta

Young Children, v52 n5 p79-85 Jul 1997

ISSN: 0044-0728

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141)

Journal Announcement: CIJDEC97

Describes a preschool classroom project intended to explore cotton and wool production. Describes the planning process, project implementation and evaluation, collaboration with other teachers, additional fiber-related center activities, and how the project provided opportunities for work in many curriculum areas. The fabric project concluded with the creation of a class quilt. (KB)

Descriptors: Class Activities; Learning Activities; *Personal Narratives; Preschool Curriculum; Preschool Education

Identifiers: Cotton Production; *Emergent Curriculum; *Project Approach (Katz and Chard); Textile Fibers; Webbing (Thematic); Wool

EJ538098 PS525986

A Multicultural Family Project for Primary.

Gutwirth, Valerie

Young Children, v52 n2 p72-78 Jan 1997

ISSN: 0044-0728

Document Type: PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141); JOURNAL ARTICLE (080)

Journal Announcement: CIJJUN97

Suggests that teachers can work with children's families to study likenesses and differences in their respective cultures. Details a class project for 7- to 8-year-olds whereby children start with self-portraits and construct masks of their faces. Provides sample mask project timeline and steps for making masks out of paper molds and a shredded-paper-and-glue medium. (AMC)

Descriptors: *Art Activities; Art Expression; Art Materials; *Childrens Art; Classroom Techniques; *Cultural Awareness; *Cultural Differences; Early Childhood Education; Elementary School Students; Family Characteristics; *Multicultural Education; *Parent Teacher Cooperation; Teaching Methods

Identifiers: *Family Activities; Project Approach (Katz and Chard)

E.1533095 PS525779

To Build a House: Designing Curriculum for Primary-Grade Children.

Harris, Teresa T.; Fuqua, J. Diane

Young Children, v52 n1 p77-83 Nov 1996

ISSN: 0044-0728

Document Type: TEACHING GUIDE (052); JOURNAL ARTICLE (080)

Journal Announcement: CIJMAR97

Presents a social studies unit on house building for 5- to 7-year olds. Discusses rationale for the project approach and outlines unit components. Describes the three components of the curriculum planning strategy: (1) impression activities; (2) extension activities; and (3) expression activities. Discusses experiences during unit implementation and assessment through observation of children's behaviors and products. (KDFB)

Descriptors: Childrens Literature; Class Activities; Curriculum Development; Elementary School Curriculum; *Housing; Housing Industry; Observation; Primary Education; Program Evaluation; Self Expression; *Social Studies; Units of Study; *Young Children

Identifiers: Anecdotal Records; Project Approach (Katz and Chard); Representational Thinking; Symbolic Thinking

Distance Education

ERIC Documents

ED417880 RC021434

Coming Together: Preparing for Rural Special Education in the 21st Century. Conference Proceedings of the American Council on Rural Special Education (18th, Charleston, South Carolina, March 25-28, 1998).

Montgomery, Diane, Ed.

American Council on Rural Special Education.

1998

411p.; For selected individual papers, see RC 021 435-472.

EDRS Price - MF01/PC17 Plus Postage.

Document Type: CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS (021)

Geographic Source: U.S.; Oklahoma

This proceedings contains 64 papers on rural special education. Papers present promising practices in rural special education, discussions of theory and research, research findings, program descriptions, and topics of current concern. The papers are organized in order of presentation, and are categorized in a topical index

under the following subjects: at-risk students, collaborative education, deaf education, early childhood, leadership and policy issues, multicultural concerns (including Native American programs), parents and families, professional development (preservice and inservice), professional publication, technology, and transition. (SV)

Descriptors: Computer Assisted Instruction; *Disabilities; Distance Education; Early Childhood Education; Educational Cooperation; Educational Practices; *Educational Strategies; Elementary Secondary Education; Higher Education; Mainstreaming; Minority Groups; Parent Participation; Professional Development; Regular and Special Education Relationship; *Rural Education; Rural Schools; *Special Education; Special Education Teachers; *Teacher Collaboration; *Teacher Education; Transitional Programs

ED417702 IR018769

Information Technology in Education and Training (IT@EDU98). Proceedings of a Conference (Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam, January 15-16, 1998).

Hoang, Kiem, Ed.; Tran, Van Hao, Ed.; Luu, Tien Hiep, Ed.; Phan, Viet Hoang, Ed.; Owens, Thomas, Ed.; Nguyen, Son Thanh, Ed.; Vuong, Son Thanh, Ed.; Dong Thi, Bich Thuy, Ed.; Phan Thi, Tuoi, Ed.

Northwest Regional Educational Lab., Portland, OR.

1998

238p.; The six conference sessions, each involving 4-6 papers, have been separately analyzed; see IR 018 770-775.

EDRS Price - MF01/PC10 Plus Postage.

Document Type: CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS (021)

Geographic Source: U.S.; Oregon

This proceedings volume includes the following 29 papers: Session 1--(1) "Technology for Learning: The Present and Future in the United States" (Thomas Owens, Carolyn Cohen); (2) "Computer Systems Technology Programs at the British Columbia Institute of Technology (Canada). A Technology-Based Model for Information Technology" (Ken Takagaki); (3) "The University Level Training Program of the Information Technology" (Phan Dinh Dieu); (4) "Using the World Wide Web in Education and Training" (James Kow Kim Song); Session 2--(5) "Multimedia Education" (Tran Van Hao, Ngo Huy Hoang); (6) "Educational Multimedia in a Networked Technology" (Antony Bates); (7) "Production of Interactive Multimedia Packages" (Tran Minh Phuong); (8) "Digital Signal Processing Applied in Multimedia" (Tran Cong Toai, Tran Hoang Buu, Dang Xuan Hieu); Session 3--(9) "Courseware Engineering" (Nguyen Thanh Son, Ngo Ngoc Bao Tran, Quan Thanh Tho, Nguyen Hong Lam); (10) "Machine Discovery Theorems in Geometry: A Helpful Tool in Teaching Geometry" (Hoang Kiem, Vu

Thien Can); (11) "Model of Problems in Analytic Geometry and Automatically Solving" (Do Van Nhon); (12) "Heuristic Based Scheduling in High School" (Nguyen Duc Thang); (13) "A Model of Knowledge of Analytic Geometry" (Do Van Nhon); Session 4--(14) "Impacts of Information Technology in Education and Training" (Vuong Thanh Son); (15) "Management Changes in the Information Age" (Pattrick Tantribeau); (16) "Restructuring the University for Technology Change" (Antony Bates); (17) "Interactive Multimedia Technology Contributing in Solving the Problem of National Education" (Tran Ha Nam); (18) "Information Technology Will Transform the University" (Wm. A. Wulf); Session 5--(19) "Distance Education at University of Hawaii" (David Lassner); (20) "An Approach to Distance Education by Using Network Technology" (Dam Quang Hong Hai); (21) "About the Ways To Solve Shortage of IP Address" (Phan Cong Vinh); (22) "Introduction to a Very Large Database" (Do Hoang Cuong); Session 6--(23) "Knowledge Based Approach for English Vietnamese Machine Translation" (Hoang Kiem, Dinh Dien); (24) "A Learning Algorithm for Feature Selection Based on Genetic Algorithms Approach" (Nguyen Dinh Thuc, Le Hoai Bac); (25) "Artificial Neural Network for Color Classification" (Tran Cong Toai); (26) "Synthesizing and Recognizing Vietnamese Speech" (Hoang Kiem, Nguyen Minh Triet, Vo Tuan Kiet, Luu Duc Hien, Bui Tien Leu); (27) "On-line Character Recognition" (Nguyen Thanh Phuong); (28) "Data Mining and Knowledge Acquisition from a Database" (Hoang Kiem, Do Phuc); and (29) "Genetic Algorithm for Initiative of Neural Networks" (Nguyen Dinh Thuc, Tan Quang Sang, Le Ha Thanh, Nguyen Thanh Son). (SWC)

Descriptors: *Computer Networks; Computer Software; Courseware; Distance Education; *Educational Technology; Elementary Secondary Education; Foreign Countries; Higher Education; *Information Technology; Mathematics; Microcomputers; Multimedia Instruction; Training; World Wide Web

Identifiers: Vietnam

ED417690 HE031149

Completing Graduate School Long Distance. Graduate Survival Skills Series.

Hammon, Darrel L.; Albiston, Steven K.

1998

104p.

ISBN: 0-7619-0486-7

Available From: Sage Publications; 2455 Teller Road, Thousand Oaks, CA 91320; phone: 805-499-0721; fax: 805-499-0871; e-mail: order@sagepub.com (cloth: ISBN-0-7619-0485-9; paperback: ISBN-0-7619-0486-7, \$21).

Document Not Available from EDRS.

Document Type: BOOK (010); INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL (051)

Geographic Source: U.S.; California

Target Audience: Students

This book, intended for students planning, exploring, or currently completing graduate school via long distance, is written by two people who themselves completed a doctoral program via long distance. The book is based on personal experiences, an informal survey of people in this country and abroad, and responses from a listsery concerning distance education. After an introductory chapter which explains the reason for the book and provides a glossary, the major chapters address the following topics: (1) an overview of long distance learning graduate programs; (2) identifying an appropriate institution; (3) the application process; (4) arranging one's life and negotiating time; (5) selecting a graduate committee long distance; (6) developing support groups or cohort groups; (7) reviewing literature long distance without local resources; and (8) meeting requirements and graduation. The next chapter offers the perspectives of professors of distance learning who respond to questions concerning: preparation time for distance courses, characteristics of distance students, use of e-mail and the Internet, and the future of distance education. A final chapter offers conclusions, recommendations, and reflections. Appended are lists of graduate schools that offer distance education graduate programs in the United States and worldwide. (Contains 12 references.) (DB)

Descriptors: Access to Education; Degrees (Academic); *Distance Education; Extension Education; External Degree Programs; *Graduate Study; Higher Education; Home Study; Independent Study; Nontraditional Education; Self Management

ED417617 HE031046

Distance Education in Higher Education Institutions: Incidence, Audiences, and Plans To Expand. Issue Brief.

Greene, Bernard; Meek, Anne

National Center for Education Statistics (ED), Washington, DC.

1998

3p.

Report No: NCES-98-132

EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.

Document Type: STATISTICAL MATERIAL (110); RESEARCH REPORT (143)

Geographic Source: U.S.; District of Columbia

Government: Federal

A national survey of distance education courses offered by higher education institutions identified the incidence of distance education courses delivered to remote (off-campus) locations through audio, video, or computer technologies. The study found that a third of institutions offered distance education courses, another quarter planned to offer such courses in the next 3 years, and 42 percent did not offer, and did not plan to offer, such courses in the next 3 years. A much greater percentage of public than private institutions offered distance education courses. Distance education offerings varied by school size and location: fewer small institutions and fewer institutions in the Northeast offered distance education. In academic year 1994-95, an estimated 25,730 distance education courses with different catalog numbers were offered by higher education institutions, and there were about 758,640 students formally enrolled in distance education courses in that year. Additional findings reported cover: the percentage of public and private twoand four-year colleges offering distance education courses; number of institutions offering or planning to offer distance education by geographic region, enrollment size, and type of institution; and percentage of colleges using different types of technology. (SW)

Descriptors: *Audiovisual Communications; *Computer Oriented Programs; *Distance Education; *Educational Technology; Geographic Regions; Higher Education; Institutional Characteristics; *Interactive Video; Media Selection; *National Surveys; Private Colleges; State Colleges; Student Characteristics; Trend Analysis

ED417436 CS509774

Teaching from a Distance: "Hello, Is Anyone Out There?"

Mottet, Timothy P.

1998

25p.; Paper presented at the Annual Ethnography in Research Forum (19th, Philadelphia, PA, March 6, 1998).

EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.

Document Type: EVALUATIVE REPORT (142); CONFERENCE PAPER (150)

Geographic Source: U.S.; Texas

This small, qualitative study examined how interactive television educators go about teaching in electronically-mediated environments where students remain separated from them. Three interactive television instructors were interviewed, and 15 hours of field observation was conducted. Although the study's original goal was to yield prescriptions for how to teach in the interactive television classroom, three broad categories of limitations emerged. The first limitation was lack of spontaneity. Interactive television teaching tends to remain scripted and

"canned." Depending on the delivery system used to transmit the class, instructors interviewed for this study found it difficult to spontaneously interject without disrupting the communication process. The second limitation was lack of relationship satisfaction. Instructors found it difficult to cultivate the intimacy found in traditional face-to-face classrooms. It was suggested that technology prevents students from seeing teachers at their best. The third limitation was lack of interaction. All the instructors struggled with lack of student responsiveness and interaction. "Hello, is anyone out there" was a common expression of the three instructors observed for the study. To overcome these limitations, findings suggest that spontaneous interaction can be more easily obtained by use of computers; that some face-to-face meetings should be built into the class schedule; and that a tenured distance learner be assigned to each remote location to serve as interaction coordinator and spokesperson for that site. (Contains two references.) (Author/CR)

Descriptors: *Classroom Environment; Classroom Techniques; *Distance Education; Electronic Classrooms; Ethnography; Higher Education; *Interactive Television; Qualitative Research; *Teacher Student Relationship; *Telecourses; *Television Teachers

Identifiers: Teaching Research; Tech logy Integration; *Televised Interactive Education System

ED416933 JC980136

Policy for Delivering Degree Programs through Distance Education Technology.

Indiana State Commission for Higher Education, Indianapolis.

1998

12p.

EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.

Document Type: LEGAL MATERIAL (090)

Geographic Source: U.S.; Indiana

Government: State

This Commission for Higher Education document concerns the approval of the Policy for Delivering Degree Programs Through Distance Education Technology. It opens with the staff recommendation that the Commission approve the Policy, considering the recent technological developments altering distance education environments. The background information section details how both "producers" and "consumers" of instruction are affected by these changes. Campuses are now in positions to offer quality distance education in a cost-effective manner, and a growing number of institutions are providing such services. Students are, in turn, increasingly utilizing distance education because of its improved flexibility and

wider range of instructional offerings. The policy in consideration aims to encourage institutions to increase degree opportunities through distance education by streamlining the review process, while at the same time fulfilling the Commission's statutory responsibilities. Included in the document are a copy of the Policy and Guidelines for Distance Education taken from the North Central Association Commission on Institutions of Higher Education. (YKH)

Descriptors: Degrees (Academic); *Distance Education; *Educational Policy; Educational Technology; *External Degree Programs; Higher Education; Instructional Design; Nontraditional Education; Policy Analysis; School Policy; School Role; Special Degree Programs; Technological Advancement

Journal Articles

EJ559837 IR536660

Effective Distance Education Planning: Lessons Learned.

Willis, Barry, Ed.

Educational Technology, v38 n1 p57-59 Jan-Feb 1998

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141)

Presents guidelines for effective distance education planning that confront the issues of planning/organization, technology, and faculty development/academic policies. Concludes that understanding the unique characteristics and constraints of any particular program or target audience is the first step in selecting appropriate distance education practices. (AEF)

Descriptors: Computer Assisted Instruction; *Distance Education; Educational Development; *Educational Planning; Educational Practices; Educational Technology; Faculty Development; Guidelines; Instructional Design; Nontraditional Education; Program Development; *Strategic Planning

EJ559771 IR536594

Sociology: The Internet as an Extended Classroom.

Schneider, Andreas

Social Science Computer Review, v16 n1 p53-57 Spr 1998

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141)

The implementation of an electronic syllabus on the World Wide Web is described. Web pages serve as administrative tools, as powerful research instruments, and as a tool skill to prepare students for their careers. The empirical example of an electronic syllabus is used to illuminate potentials, problems, and the acceptance of the Internet as an extended sociology classroom by students. (Author/AEF)

Descriptors: Career Development; Computer Uses in Education; *Course Descriptions; Course Evaluation; Distance Education; Educational Technology; Higher Education; Instructional Innovation; Instructional Materials; *Internet; Online Systems; *Sociology; Student Research; Teaching Methods

Identifiers: Electronic Resources; *Web Pages

EJ559696 HE537822

Western Governors U. Takes Shape as a New Model for Higher Education.

Blumenstyk, Goldie

Chronicle of Higher Education, v44 n22 pA21-A24 Feb 6 1998

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141)

Backers of Western Governors University hope it will revolutionize the ways colleges compete for students, professors teach, and education is measured, and believe the virtual university can help contain the costs of educating growing numbers of students in the 16 participating states. However, the administration faces challenges in areas of accreditation, faculty, eligibility for student aid, and curriculum. (MSE)

Descriptors: *Accreditation (Institutions); Change Strategies; College Administration; College Curriculum; College Faculty; *Consortia; *Distance Education; Educational Change; Higher Education; Innovation; *Intercollegiate Cooperation; Program Descriptions; *Regional Planning; Student Financial Aid

Identifiers: *Virtual Universities; *Western Governors University

EJ559177 CE532242

Regional Extension In-Service Training via the Internet.

Lippert, Robert M.; Plank, Owen; Camberato, Jim; Chastain, John

Journal of Extension, v36 n1 Feb 1998

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); RESEARCH REPORT (143)

In South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama, 32 extension agents used inservice training materials on the World Wide Web and engaged in discussions via a listserv. Postprogram responses from 16 were strongly favorable of this type of training for certain topics. (SK)

Descriptors: *Distance Education; *Extension Agents; Extension Education; *Inservice Education; Regional Programs; World Wide Web

EJ559162 CE532227

Online Learning. Special Report.

Training, v35 n2 pOL1-OL22 Feb 1998

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080)

Special section includes "World Wide Weeds" (Ann M. Bauer), about trainers as webmasters; "Get the Picture?" (Frank Jossi)--the role of digital video in computer-based training; and "The Reluctant Executive" (Anne K. Fredrickson), how to get administrators into the information age. (JOW)

Descriptors: *Administrators; Adult Education; Distance Education; *Optical Data Disks; Program Effectiveness; *Technological Advancement; *Training Methods; Work Environment; *World Wide Web

EJ558360 HE537717

The Internet as a Virtual Learning Community.

McLellan, Hilary

Journal of Computing in Higher Education, v9 n2 p92-112 Spr 1998

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); EVALUATIVE REPORT (142)

Describes one Internet-based model for implementing university classes that uses listservs, electronic mail, and the World Wide Web. Compares Internet and conventional classes; looks at the potential of both asynchronous and synchronous virtual learning experiences and activities. Argues that an Internet-based virtual learning community, with its dynamic interactions between students and teachers, is a powerful approach to distance education. (Author/MSE)

Descriptors: Class Activities; College Students; Computer Uses in Education; *Distance Education; *Educational Environment; Electronic Mail; Group Dynamics; Higher Education; *Internet; Student Attitudes; Teacher Student Relationship; *World Wide Web

Identifiers: *Learning Communities; Listservs

Professional Development Schools

ERIC Documents

ED418077 SP037868

Action Research in Professional Development Schools: Effects on Student

Learning.

Devlin-Scherer, Wade; Spinelli, Ann Marie; Giammatteo, Dawn; Johnson, Craig; Mayo-Molina, Sylvia; McGinley, Paula; Michalski, Candice; Schmidek, Susan; Tomaiuolo, Linda; Zisk, Laurie

1998

32p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (50th, New Orleans, LA, February 25-28, 1998).

EDRS Price - MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.

Document Type: RESEARCH REPORT (143); CONFERENCE PAPER (150)

Geographic Source: U.S.; Connecticut

This report presents data from one elementary school's (Hartford, CT region) second year (1996-97) implementation of a mathematics reform action research project by the professional development team. Teachers from grades 2-5 systematically implemented an ancillary problem solving curriculum in their classrooms after receiving training by a university facilitator and attending a summer institute. The team met biweekly to support full implementation of the research plan and data collection. Implementation of the ancillary mathematics program began in fall 1996 and continued through June 1997. A matched pairs strategy was employed to allow for year-to-year control group comparisons. Intervention group students in grades 2-5 learned and practiced 10 problem solving strategies throughout the year. Teachers, in consultation with university faculty, increased the use of problem solving activities over 2 years using multiple strategies. Holistic and standardized assessment determined the overall effects of using action research to improve student mathematics learning. Treatment classes completed a pretest and posttest, a whole-class selected problem test, and student interviews. Students in control and treatment groups completed two sets of standardized measures in 1996 and 1 year later. Results indicated that during the second implementation year, most students successfully learned the selected strategies. However, when comparing them with matched controls on standardized measures, there was no difference between groups. (Contains 30 references and 4 tables.) (SM)

Descriptors: *Action Research; *College School Cooperation; Elementary Education; Elementary School Mathematics; Elementary School Students; Elementary School Teachers; Higher Education; Mathematics Achievement; *Mathematics Instruction; *Partnerships in Education; Preservice Teacher Education; Problem Solving; *Professional Development Schools; Teacher Researchers

Identifiers: Connecticut

ED417887 RC021441

Teacher Education Partnerships at Valley High School.

Rude, Harvey; Dickinson, Barbara; Weiser, Jerry

1998

9p.; In: Coming Together: Preparing for Rural Special Education in the 21st Century. Conference Proceedings of the American Council on Rural Special Education (18th, Charleston, SC, March 25-28, 1998); see RC 021 434.

EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.

Document Type: PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141); CONFERENCE PAPER (150)

Geographic Source: U.S.; Colorado

This paper examines the efforts of a university teacher preparation program working in collaboration with the faculty of a rural high school to provide a professional development model of preparing future teachers. The key elements of the partnership model are based on Goodlad's four functions of partner schools: preparing educators, providing professional development, conducting inquiry, and providing an exemplary education to all students. Valley High School (Colorado) is one of five partner high schools that have affiliated with the University of Northern Colorado's Secondary Teacher Education Program (STEP). This paper describes the following aspects of STEP: (1) formation and development of the university-school partnership, including planning and state support; (2) program design in four phases, ranging from exploration of teaching and foundational issues to full-time student teaching; (3) expectations for competence in special education in each of the four phases; (4) incentives for partnership participation, such as funds for teacher or substitute teacher compensation, service to the partner school by teacher candidates, and professional development opportunities; and (5) present challenges and future opportunities related to needs for shared vision. strong leadership, balance of bottom-up and top-down support, ongoing program development, and accountability measures and systems. (SV)

Descriptors: *College School Cooperation; High Schools; Higher Education; Incentives; *Professional Development Schools; *Program Design; *Program Development; Rural Schools; Special Education; *Teacher Education Programs

Identifiers: University of Northern Colorado

ED415226 SP037742

Professional Development Schools: Weighing the Evidence.

Abdal-Haqq, Ismat

American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Washington, DC.

1998

99p.

ISBN: 0-8039-6350-5

Available From: Corwin Press, Inc. A Sage Publications Company, 2455 Teller

Road, Thousand Oaks, CA 91320-2218.

EDRS Price - MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.

Document Type: REVIEW LITERATURE (070)

Geographic Source: U.S.; District of Columbia

This book examines U.S. progress in revitalizing teacher education and reforming K-12 education via Professional Development Schools (PDS's). The book discusses whether PDS's are: improving K-12 curriculum and instruction through faculty development; making substantive, positive differences in students' learning levels; addressing the needs of marginalized or vulnerable learners; merging with other reform initiatives; and meeting time and financing challenges. Data come from mainstream and fugitive sources, including student interviews and followup studies with teacher education graduates; surveys with preservice teachers on attitudes, beliefs, and self-efficacy; and reviews in student journals. Chapter 1 examines features and practices characterizing initial teacher preparation and professional development for teachers in PDS's, considering the impact of teacher development on participants. Chapter 2 examines activities, characteristics, and outcomes of PDS programming that target student achievement, discussing inquiry in PDS's and inquiry about PDS effectiveness. After summarizing major concepts that define teaching and learning in PDS's, the chapter describes programs that attempt to implement practices reflecting these concepts and themes. Chapter 3 examines problems of time and financing in PDS's, exploring additional fiscal and human resources necessary to start up and sustain them. Chapter 4 summarizes the benefits of parent involvement, integrated services, and technology infusion, examining the extent to which PDS programming incorporates them. Chapter 5 describes the extent to which equity of diversity-related programming and practices in PDS's reflects unequal power relationships between and within schools and universities and between historically dominated groups and schools, universities, and society. (Contains 149 references.) (SM)

Descriptors: Academic Achievement; *College School Cooperation; Computer Assisted Instruction; Diversity (Student); Educational Change; Educational Finance; Educational Technology; Elementary School Students; Elementary School Teachers; Elementary Secondary Education; Equal Education; Faculty Development; Higher Education; Inservice Teacher Education; Integrated Services; Parent Participation; Parent School Relationship; *Partnerships in Education; Preservice Teacher Education; *Professional Development Schools; Program Development; Secondary School Students; Secondary School Teachers; Teacher Improvement; Time

ED417154 SP037799

Resources on Professional Development Schools. An Annotated Bibliography and Resource Guide. Second Edition.

Abdal-Haqq, Ismat, Comp.

Adjunct ERIC Clearinghouse on Clinical Schools, Washington, DC.; ERIC Clearinghouse on Teaching and Teacher Education, Washington, DC.

1997

81p.; For the earlier edition, see ED 359 177.

ISBN: 0-89333-158-9

Available From: AACTE Publications, 1307 New York Ave., N.W., Suite 300, Washington, DC 20005-4701; phone: 202-293-2450; fax: 202-457-8095; World Wide Web: www.aacte.org (\$18 plus \$5 shipping and handling).

EDRS Price - MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.

Document Type: ERIC PRODUCT (071); BIBLIOGRAPHY (131)

Geographic Source: U.S.; District of Columbia

This second edition of an annotated bibliography and resource guide on professional development schools (PDS) provides information to facilitate the location of sources of information regarding professional development schools. The publication contains 153 annotations, only one of which was included in the first edition. Most of the resources were published or produced between the years 1993 and 1997. The three main sections present annotated listings that are alphabetized by their authors. There are six appendixes that offer information on the following: (1) Internet resources, (2) newsletters and other periodicals, (3) videotapes, (4) networks and information centers, (5) Clinical Schools Clearinghouse and Adjunct ERIC Clearinghouse on Clinical Schools, and (6) PDS publications from the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, ERIC Clearinghouse on Teaching and Teacher Education, Adjunct ERIC Clearinghouse on Clinical Schools. (Contains 9 references.) (SM)

Descriptors: *College School Cooperation; Elementary Secondary Education; Faculty Development; Higher Education; *Partnerships in Education; Preservice Teacher Education; *Professional Development Schools; Student Teachers; Student Teaching; Teacher Improvement

ED416176 SP037651

Contradictions in Collaboration: New Thinking on School/University Partnerships.

Johnston, Marilyn A.

1997

182p.; Prepared "with the Educators for Collaborative Change." Foreword by Maxine Greene.

ISBN: 0-8077-3656-2

Available From: Teachers College Press, 1234 Amsterdam Avenue, New York, NY 10027 (hardback: ISBN-0-8077-3657-0; paperback: ISBN-0-8077-3656-2).

Document Not Available from EDRS.

Document Type: BOOK (010); NON-CLASSROOM MATERIAL (055)

Geographic Source: U.S.; New York

Target Audience: Administrators; Practitioners; Teachers

This book is based on a 6-year longitudinal study of collaboration in a professional evelopment school (PDS) project involving 45 educators. Teachers and principals from the schools and faculty and doctoral students from the university work together to plan, implement, and evaluate a Master's of Education program. Part 1: "Issues and Challenges of Collaboration" includes seven chapters entitled: (1) "Keeping Differences in Tensions through Dialogue" (Marilyn Johnston and J. Michael Thomas); (2) "One Telling of Our History" (Marilyn Johnston); (3) "Our First Presentation: An Exhibitanting Success and a Lingering Tension" (Marilyn Johnston with PDS Participants); (4) "Rethinking Our Roles" (Richard M. Kerper and Marilyn Johnston); (5) "African American Perspectives on Collaboration" (Daa'iyah Saleem and Cynthia Tyson); (6) "School-Based Voices and Stories" (Kathleen Ibom); and (7) "Theorizing Collaboration: Some Theoretical and Methodological Issues" (Marilyn Johnston). Brief sections entitled "Interlude with Metaphor" are located in between these chapters. Part 2: "Case Studies" includes two chapters entitled: (8) "The Beginnings of Collaboration at Second Avenue Elementary" (Reba Bricher, Mary Christenson, Marilyn Hawk, and Jean Tingley, with Brenda Ambrose, Amy Campbell, Lisa Cline, and Bill Lohr); and (9) "A Case Study of Collaboration at Worthington Estates Elementary" (Tom Adams, Rosario Galarza, Kathy Nalle, and Lisa Westhoven, with Kathy Barkhurst, Kathy Davenport, and Sue Knuebel. (Contains an appendix with list of PDS Publications and Conference Presentations, an index, and 86 references.) (LH)

Descriptors: Blacks; Case Studies; College Faculty; *College School Cooperation; *Educational Cooperation; Elementary Secondary Education; Graduate Students; Higher Education; Individual Differences; *Partnerships in Education; Personal Narratives; Principals; Professional Development Schools; *Teacher Collaboration; Teachers; *Universities

ED415233 SP037750

Collaborative Agenda for Change: Examining the Impact of Urban Professional

Development Schools.

Fountain, Cheryl Ann

1997

81p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (Phoenix, AZ, February 27, 1997).

EDRS Price - MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.

Document Type: CONFERENCE PAPER (150)

Geographic Source: U.S.; Florida

This paper describes the evolution of a Professional Development School (PDS) continuum for urban teachers through 5 years of school-university collaboration. The paper reports the impact on education students completing internship experiences at urban PDS's, discusses the impact of the collaborative initiative on PDS faculty, and identifies implications at the district and university levels. For several years, the Duval County Schools and the University of North Florida College of Education have collaboratively engaged in reform initiatives targeting urban schooling and preparation of urban teachers. Two of the most recent initiatives are the AT&T Teachers for Tomorrow Project and the Jacksonville Urban Educational Partnership (JUEP). Creating urban PDS's served as the central focus of the projects. Surveys of AT&T and JUEP interns, non-interns, and experienced teachers examined planning, instruction, time management, student diversity, reflective thought, collegiality, beliefs about urban schools, efficacy, and accepting positions in different kinds of school settings. Results indicated that the PDS experience positively affected both groups of PDS interns' confidence levels for teaching in urban schools. The increased confidence led to large numbers of PDS interns actively seeking positions in urban schools. Most PDS interns considered the experience worthwhile. Five appendixes offer data from surveys of interns, teachers, and schools. (Contains approximately 70 references.) (SM)

Descriptors: *College School Cooperation; Elementary Secondary Education; Field Experience Programs; Higher Education; Partnerships in Education; Preservice Teacher Education; *Professional Development Schools; Student Teacher Attitudes; Student Teaching; *Urban Schools; *Urban Teaching

Identifiers: Florida

ED411211 SP037494

Professional Development Schools/School-University Partnerships: A Review of the Literature (1990-1996).

Moguel, David L.

1997

37p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Chicago, IL, March 24-28, 1997).

EDRS Price - MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.

Document Type: REVIEW LITERATURE (070); CONFERENCE PAPER (150)

Geographic Source: U.S.; California

This literature review discusses four aspects of professional development schools (PDSs) that either arose with great frequency in the literature or that seemed to be most relevant to the partnership between the Santa Monica-Malibu Unified School District and the University of California, Los Angeles. The four aspects are collaboration, teacher training, funding, and evaluation. Over 100 books and articles having PDSs as their main topic were examined. This paper is in six sections. The first section introduces the methodology and terminology. Section 2 examines collaboration, including the problems and pitfalls (priorities, status of PDS activities, calendars, and uses of time) and rewards and coping strategies (research and teaching, changing roles, and time and compensation). Section 3 explores teacher training, including mentoring, isolation and status, new teachers' contributions, diversity in selection and placement, and improving teacher training. Section 4 looks at funding; section 5 covers evaluation, including examples. Section 6 reports on upcoming publications. (Contains 100 references.) (ND)

Descriptors: *College School Cooperation; *Educational Finance; Elementary Secondary Education; Higher Education; Literature Reviews; *Partnerships in Education; *Preservice Teacher Education; *Professional Development Schools; Program Evaluation

Identifiers: *Research Teaching Relationship

Journal Articles

EJ557851 CE532152

Using Content Analysis to Evaluate the Success of a Professional Development School.

Schverak, Amy; Coltharp, Crystal; Cooner, Donna

Educational Forum, v62 n2 p172-77 Win 1998

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); RESEARCH REPORT (143)

Interviews with participants in a professional development school identified expectations of the partnership (student focus, better trained teachers), positive outcomes (real-world experience for student teachers, extra attention for students, professional growth for participating teachers), and problems (communication

between school and university and within the school). (SK)

Descriptors: *Content Analysis; Elementary Education; Higher Education; Preservice Teacher Education; *Professional Development Schools; Program Evaluation; *Student Teachers; *Teacher Researchers

EJ556316 SP526475

Can Professional Development Schools Help Us Achieve What Matters Most?

Levine, Marsha

Action in Teacher Education, v19 n2 p63-73 Sum 1997

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); POSITION PAPER (120)

After examining the beginning of the professional development school (PDS) movement, this paper describes the PDS model; discusses PDSs, teacher education, and school reform; and presents critical attributes of PDSs (nurturing a true learning community, stressing collaboration, and creating greater professional and public accountability). Threshold conditions for creating PDSs are noted. (SM)

Descriptors: Accountability; *College School Cooperation; Collegiality; Educational Change; Elementary Secondary Education; Experiential Learning; Higher Education; *Partnerships in Education; Preservice Teacher Education; *Professional Development Schools; Quality Control; Teacher Collaboration

EJ556315 SP526474

A New Institution: The Emerging Educational Community in an Effective Professional Development School.

Ebert, Christine

Action in Teacher Education, v19 n2 p55-62 Sum 1997

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); POSITION PAPER (120)

This paper describes the daily interactions between university liaison and K-12 faculty and administrators at a professional development school. It contrasts various levels of collaboration and interaction within professional development schools and student teaching environments, contending that educational community develops in effective professional development schools when all partners are perceived to be equally valued. (SM)

Descriptors: College Faculty; *College School Cooperation; Collegiality; Cooperating Teachers; Elementary Education; Elementary School Teachers; Experiential Learning; Higher Education; *Partnerships in Education; Preservice Teacher Education; *Professional Development Schools; Student Participation; Student Teacher Supervisors; Student Teachers; Student Teaching; Teacher

Attitudes: *Teacher Collaboration; Teamwork

Identifiers: University of South Carolina

EJ556069 RC512294

Exploring "Front-Line" Views: Veterans' Perceptions of One Professional Development School after Four Years.

Castle, Joyce B.; Hunter, Rosemary

Alberta Journal of Educational Research, v43 n4 p177-91 Win 1997

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); RESEARCH REPORT (143)

Reports on interviews with 12 veteran elementary school teachers involved in developing and maintaining a professional development school (PDS) in southern Ontario (Canada) during its first four years. The teachers thought that the PDS was successful and had promoted their professional development but had not affected their instructional practices. Contains 43 references. (Author/SV)

Descriptors: *College School Cooperation; *Cooperating Teachers; *Educational Change; Elementary Education; Elementary School Teachers; Elementary Schools; Faculty Development; Foreign Countries; Higher Education; *Professional Development Schools; Student Teaching; *Teacher Attitudes

Identifiers: Ontario

EJ553066 SP526353

The Promise and the Promises: Partnerships from a University Perspective.

Higgins, Karen M.; Merickel, Mark L.

Teacher Educator, v32 n3 p165-84 Win 1997

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141)

Describes issues experienced by university faculty members during the creation of two university/middle school partnerships. Benefits included a broader community of professional colleagues, opportunities for research collaboration, and firsthand experience with school reform. Tensions included conflicts with the university's reward system, time required to build trust, and difficulties balancing two worlds. (Author/SM)

Descriptors: *College School Cooperation; Educational Change; Higher Education; Intermediate Grades; Junior High Schools; *Middle Schools; *Partnerships in Education; Preservice Teacher Education; *Professional Development Schools; Public Schools; Teacher Educators

Identifiers: Oregon State University

EJ550516 EA533758

The Promise of Professional Development Schools.

Lecos, Mary Anne

Principal, v77 n1 p14,16,18-19 Sep 1997

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141)

Although professional-school models differ markedly, they generally share visions of how the school-university partnership can improve teacher education and schooling; commitment to shared decision making and funding; and new roles for university and school faculty. George Mason University's experience demonstrates that concentrating efforts within the PDS framework creates learning communities where knowledge can be constructed collaboratively and applied immediately. (MLH)

Descriptors: *Beginning Teachers; *College School Cooperation; Elementary Secondary Education; *Participative Decision Making; *Professional Development Schools; Program Descriptions; Shared Resources and Services

Identifiers: *George Mason University VA; *Learning Communities

EJ549262 HE537178

Collaborating for Success: Case History of a School-College Partnership.

Justiz, Manuel J.

Educational Record, v78 n2 p31-38 Spr 1997

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141)

The College of Education at the University of Texas at Austin is collaborating with the Austin Independent School District to improve teacher education through restructuring of the preservice curriculum, infusion of technology into teacher preparation, a research-based internship program, new teacher mentoring, and administrator development. One program result is greater mutual support and respect between faculty and teachers. (MSE)

Descriptors: *Administrator Education; Change Strategies; College Faculty;
*College School Cooperation; Curriculum Development; Educational Change;
*Educational Technology; Higher Education; Interprofessional Relationship;
Mentors; *Preservice Teacher Education; Professional Development; Professional Development Schools; Program Descriptions; School Districts; Schools of Education; State Universities; *Teacher Education; Teachers; Technological Advancement

Identifiers: *Austin Independent School District TX; *University of Texas Austin

EJ547290 EA533546

Teaching, Research, and Service in a Professional Development School.

Clarke, John H.

Phi Delta Kappan, v78 n10 p789-92 Jun 1997

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); POSITION PAPER (120); PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141)

Through an Essex High School/University of Vermont partnership, students can complete all 33 credits of the teacher licensing program within high school walls. Each three-credit course includes theory-focused class meetings and action-focused practica that inspire students to develop and conduct action-research projects. As a roving education professor, the author enjoys the vibrancy of the professional development school experience. (MLH)

Descriptors: *College School Cooperation; *Education Courses; *Experiential Learning; High Schools; Higher Education; Partnerships in Education; *Professional Development Schools; Program Descriptions; Schools of Education; *Teacher Educators

Identifiers: *Vermont (Burlington)

Parent-Teacher Relationships

ERIC Documents

ED417547 EC306292

Improving Communication between Parents and Teachers: Promoting Effective Intervention for Students with Disabilities.

Spinelli, Cathleen G.

1998

37p.

EDRS Price - MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.

Document Type: NON-CLASSROOM MATERIAL (055)

Geographic Source: U.S.; New Jersey

Target Audience: Practitioners

This paper discusses the importance of teachers and parents of students with learning disabilities working together to ensure that students' educational programs are appropriate and address their specific needs. It provides guidelines aimed at fostering positive teacher-parent relationships by discussing recent legislative mandates and current policy issues. It also addresses methods of positive and constructive communication and issues related to interaction between parents and teachers which should promote successful home-school partnerships. Recommended teacher strategies include: (1) explaining the class goals and objectives at the first meeting and inviting parents to share any relevant information that would help the teacher to understand the child; (2) preparing for teacher parent conferences and finding a mutually convenient time; (3) providing enough time to devote to the conference and providing a comfortable meeting room; (4) arranging seating so that all parties are perceived to be equal; (5) using clear terminology; (6) setting an agenda that is structured but still flexible; (7) encouraging parents to discuss any problems they or their children are experiencing; (8) ensuring that all parties know their rights; (9) being cognizant of cultural differences; and (10) involving students in the planning process as much as possible. (Contains 47 references.) (CR)

Descriptors: Communication Skills; *Disabilities; Educational Legislation; Educational Planning; Educational Policy; Elementary Secondary Education; Guidelines; *Individualized Education Programs; *Interpersonal Communication; *Parent Participation; Parent School Relationship; *Parent Teacher Conferences; *Parent Teacher Cooperation

ED417039 PS026391

Families and Teachers as Partners. Early Childhood Digest.

Kreider, Holly

National Inst. on Early Childhood Development and Education (ED/OERI).

1998

3p.

EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.

Document Type: NON-CLASSROOM MATERIAL (055)

Geographic Source: U.S.; District of Columbia

Government: Federal

Target Audience: Parents; Practitioners; Teachers

Many parents do not know how to become involved in their children's education, and many teachers do not receive enough training in working with families. This quarterly early childhood digest discusses ways families and schools can work together to help young children learn and grow. The digest begins by describing how a teacher's home visit helped her learn about the talents of one student's father, which became a bridge to his involvement with the school. The digest then discusses what families can do to work better with schools, including meeting with the teacher or caregiver, clarifying expectations, sharing perceptions of the child's interests and challenges, and sharing their time and talents. The remainder of the digest discusses how teachers and families can work together, including parents letting teachers know about the family, parents being encouraged by school personnel to get involved, and school personnel learning how to respect and value different cultures. (HTH)

Descriptors: Cooperation; Early Childhood Education; *Family School Relationship; Parent Aspiration; *Parent Participation; *Parent Teacher Cooperation; Parents as Teachers; Teacher Expectations of Students; Teacher Role

ED416027 PS026241

Parent Involvement in Children's Education: Efforts by Public Elementary Schools. National Center for Education Statistics Statistical Analysis Report.

Carey, Nancy; Lewis, Laurie; Farris, Elizabeth

Westat, Inc., Rockville, MD.

1998

57p.

Report No: NCES-98-032

ISBN: 0-16-049388-9

Available From: U.S. Government Printing Office, Superintendent of Documents, Mail Stop: SSOP, Washington, DC 20402-9328.

EDRS Price - MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.

Document Type: RESEARCH REPORT (143)

Geographic Source: U.S.; District of Columbia

Government: Federal

In response to the National Education Goals panel's recognition of the role that parents can have in children's learning and school performance, the "Survey on Family and School Partnerships in Public Schools K-8" was conducted to

determine the ways schools are engaging parents in their children's education and the extent to which parents are responding to those involvement opportunities. Questionnaires were sent to a nationally representative sample of 900 public schools enrolling kindergarten through eighth grade students. The survey looked at the kinds of school-home communication schools establish, kinds of activities schools sponsor, kinds of volunteer activities schools make available, the extent to which parents are included in school decision making, and other facto s that influence school efforts to increase parent involvement. Among the findings highlighted are the following: (1) most schools initiated communications with parents to inform them about school curricula and student performance; (2) most schools provided parents with information designed to promote learning at home and on topics related to child-rearing issues; (3) the majority of schools held various activities, such as parent conferences and academic exhibitions, intended to encourage parent involvement; (5) parents were more likely to attend events that featured some interaction with the students' teachers; (6) parent attendance at school-sponsored events varied by geographic region, poverty concentration, and minority enrollment; (7) in general, schools do not include parents in very much school decision making; (8) the majority of schools provided parents opportunities to volunteer both inside and outside the classroom, to assist in fundraising and attend PTA meetings, though the percentage of schools satisfied with the degree of parent participation in these activities decreased as minority and poor student enrollment increased; and (9) lack of time on the part of parents was most often named as the greatest barrier impeding parent involvement. (Three appendices include survey methodology and data reliability and the survey form.) (HTH)

Descriptors: Academic Achievement; Educational Improvement; Elementary Education; Family School Relationship; Minority Group Children; Outcomes of Education; Parent Influence; *Parent Participation; Parent Role; *Parent School Relationship; Parent Student Relationship; Poverty; *Public Schools

Identifiers: Goals 2000

Journal Articles

EJ539903 PS526163

Acknowledging Diversity in Home Literacy Practices: Moving Towards Partnership with Parents.

Cairney, Trevor H.

Early Child Development and Care, v127-128 p61-73 1997

Special Issue on: "Perspectives on Family Literacy."

Document Type: POSITION PAPER (120); JOURNAL ARTICLE (080)

Provides overview of major initiatives in family literacy and argues for fundamental change in the way schools relate to parents and the community. Suggests that schools and communities need to develop more effective partnerships

so that parents and teachers can develop a sense of shared understanding. Concludes that such initiatives will lead to positive outcomes for all students. (MOK)

Descriptors: *Academic Achievement; Community Involvement; Cultural Awareness; *Literacy; *Parent Participation; Parent School Relationship; *Parent Teacher Cooperation; *Partnerships in Education; School Community Programs; School Role; Young Children

Identifiers: *Family Literacy; Parent Teacher Relationship

EJ538104 PS526007

Introduction to the Special Issue: Developing a Relationship Perspective in Early Childhood Research.

Elicker, James

Early Education and Development, v8 n1 p5-10 Jan 1997

Special Issue on: "Relationships in Early Childhood Programs".

Document Type: RESEARCH REPORT (143); JOURNAL ARTICLE (080)

Presents an overview on the relationship perspective in early childhood research, identifying the major research quantity wolved, and relating them to the papers presented in the remainder of the journal, suc. (EAJ)

Descriptors: Caregiver Child Relationship; *Early Childhood Education; *Educational Research; *Interpersonal Relationship; Outcomes of Education; Parent Child Relationship; Teacher Student Relationship; *Young Children

Identifiers: Parent Caregiver Relationship; Parent Teacher Relationship

EJ534658 PS525824

Teaching Teachers about Needs of Parents.

Bronsil, Elizabeth

Montessori Life, v8 n4 p31-32 Fall 1996

Document Type: PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141); JOURNAL ARTICLE (080)

Describes activities in a university child observation class to sensitize students to diverse parents' needs related to school involvement. Presents feedback regarding parents' needs from: interviews with adoptive parents; interviews with single parents; and interviews with parents regarding parent-teacher conferences. (KDFB)

Descriptors: Adoptive Parents; *Family Needs; *Higher Education; One Parent Family; *Parent Attitudes; Parent Participation; Parents; *Parent School Relationship; Parent Teacher Conferences; *Teacher Education

Identifiers: Diversity (Groups); *Parent Needs; Parent Teacher Relationship

EJ520477 PS524702

A Mini Portfolio on Working with Parents.

Baskwill, Jane; And Others

Teaching PreK-8, v26 n5 p49-61 Feb 1996

Document Type: PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141); NON-CLASSROOM MATERIAL (055); JOURNAL ARTICLE (080)

Presents the following six articles on working with parents: (1) "Conversing with Parents through Dialogue Journals"; (2) "Reading with Your Child at Home"; (3) "Dads by the Dozens"; (4) "Parents in Your Classroom: A Valuable Literacy Link"; (5) "Inclusion: But They Still Won't Play with Me"; and (6) "The Special Education Case Conference." (TJQ)

Descriptors: *Dialog Journals; Early Childhood Education; Elementary Education; Fathers; Inclusive Schools; *Literacy; Parent Child Relationship; *Parent Participation; Parent School Relationship; Parent Teacher Conferences; *Peer Relationship; *Reading Aloud to Others; *Special Needs Students

Identifiers: *Parent Teacher Relationship; Shared Book Experience; Shared Reading

EJ516732 PS524342

Making Parent Involvement a Reality: Helping Teachers Develop Partnerships with Parents.

Brand, Susan

Young Children, v51 n2 p76-81 Jan 1996

Document Type: PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141); JOURNAL ARTICLE (080)

Describes a program called PITCH (Project Interconnecting Teachers, Children and Homes) for Literacy, a parent involvement program that offered a series of workshops to elementary and preschool teachers and administrators in order to improve home-school relationships. Provides guidelines, references, and resources for similar efforts. (ET)

Descriptors: Early Childhood Education; Literacy; Parent Participation; *Parent School Relationship; Parent Student Relationship; *Partnerships in Education;

Young Children

Identifiers: Emergent Literacy; Parent Teacher Relationship; *Pitch for Literacy Project; Wordless Picture Books

EJ521210 CG548336

Exploring Parent-Teacher Relationships: Joining and Communication to Others.

Vickers, Harleen S.; Minke, Kathleen M.

School Psychology Quarterly, v10 n2 p133-50 Sum 1995

Document Type: RESEARCH REPORT (143); JOURNAL ARTICLE (080)

Investigates the applicability of two modified family systems constructs to parent-teacher relationships. Results suggested two related factors, joining and communication, as important elements of parent-teacher relationships. Data gathered in the second stage revealed that the joining factor included affiliation and support, dependability and availability, and shared expectations and beliefs. (JPS)

Descriptors: *Communication (Thought Transfer); Elementary Education; Family School Relationship; Interpersonal Relationship; *Parent Teacher Cooperation; *Pilot Projects

Identifiers: Family Systems Theory; *Parent Teacher Relationship

EJ516696 PS524227

In the Child's Best Interests.

Gonzalez-Mena, Janet; Stonehouse, Anne

Child Care Information Exchange, n106 p17-18,20 Nov-Dec 1995

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); NON-CLASSROOM MATERIAL (055)

Reminds early care teachers to make quality decisions that keep the child's best interests in mind. Gives several examples of possible parent-school conflicts and guidelines for resolution that keep the child's best interest foremost. (ET)

Descriptors: *Child Caregivers; Childhood Needs; Day Care; Day Care Centers; *Decision Making Skills; Early Childhood Education; *Parent School Relationship; *Parent Teacher Cooperation; *Preschool Teachers; Young Children

Identifiers: *Decision Quality; Decisions; Parent Caregiver Relationship; Parent Teacher Relationship

Electronic Journals

ERIC Documents

ED414931 IR056789

Digital Documents and the Future of the Academic Community.

Lyman, Peter

1997

14p.; Paper presented at the Conference on Scholarly Communication and Technology (Atlanta, GA, April 24-25, 1997), see IR 056 774.

Available From: Association of Research Libraries (ARL) Web site: http://www.arl.org/scomm/scat/

EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.

Document Type: EVALUATIVE REPORT (142); CONFERENCE PAPER (150)

Geographic Source: U.S.; California

This paper examines the dynamics of change in scholarly publishing and the impact of technological innovation upon the academic community for which the system of scholarly communication serves as an infrastructure. For the purposes of this discussion, what is of immediate interest is the way the productivity issue frames the possible dimensions of the dynamics of technological innovation, thereby setting a research agenda for the future. From the perspective of academic publishing, the academic community consists of two markets in which "gift" exchanges are governed by contract, that of authors and that of the consumers, the largest of which are academic research libraries. Higher education is both the producer and consumer of scholarly publications. Three new factors define the conditions within which a system of scholarly communication may evolve: (1) the emergence of a global economy in which intellectual property is an important source of wealth; (2) the end of the cold war as a stimulus for national information policy which took the form of federal funding for research; and (3) the cultural diversity of society, and the replacement of a melting pot idea by a transnational culture, which may create new social contexts for education. The remainder of this paper examines issues related to digital documents and academic productivity, and digital documents and the academic community. (AEF)

Descriptors: Academic Libraries; Computer Mediated Communication; *Educational Change; Educational Development; Electronic Journals; Faculty Publishing; *Futures (of Society); Higher Education; Publishing Industry; Research; *Scholarly Journals; Technological Advancement

Identifiers: Electronic Resources; *SGML

ED414928 IR056786

Patterns of Use for the Bryn Mawr Reviews.

Hamilton, Richard; Shory, Paul

1997

13p.; Paper presented at the Conference on Scholarly Communication and Technology (Atlanta, GA, April 24-25, 1997), see IR 056 774.

Available From: Association of Research Libraries (ARL) Web site: http://www.arl.org/scomm/scat/

EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.

Document Type: RESEARCH REPORT (143); CONFERENCE PAPER (150)

Geographic Source: U.S.; Pennsylvania

Bryn Mawr Reviews (BMR) produces two electronic review journals, "Bryn Mawr Classical Review," (BMCR) which also comes out in paper and "Bryn Mawr Medieval Review" (BMMR). BMR has two sets of users: subscribers and gopher hitters. Analysis of the monthly gopher reports has concentrated on the hitters rather than the hits; analysis of total users shows that use has leveled off at a peak of about 3800 users a month. Subscriptions to the electronic journals continue to grow at a rate of 5% per quarter, though there are considerable seasonal fluctuations. In terms of progress and cost recovery, progress is satisfactory but cost recovery is still uncertain. BMCR is growing at the rate of 30% a year. About half the costs of BMCR goes for producing the paper version. A possible reduction in costs besides elimination of the paper version and automatic mark-up is a "fast-track" system whereby the review never leaves the Internet. The great advantage for the reviewer is that this cuts publication time by a month; the disadvantage is that the reviewer is asked to do some simple mark-up on the text before sending it. Seven charts show statistics. (AEF)

Descriptors: Cost Effectiveness; *Cost Indexes; *Costs; *Electronic Journals; Higher Education; Printed Materials; Publications; *Scholarly Journals; Use Studies; Users (Information)

Identifiers: Bryn Mawr College PA; Electronic Resources; Gopher

ED414926 IR056784

The Economics of Electronic Journals.

Odlyzko, Andrew

1997

14p.; Paper presented at the Conference on Scholarly Communication and Technology (Atlanta, GA, April 24-25, 1997), see IR 056 774.

Available From: Association of Research Libraries (ARL) Web Site: http://www.arl.org/scomm/scat/

EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.

Document Type: EVALUATIVE REPORT (142); CONFERENCE PAPER (150)

Geographic Source: U.S.; California

It is widely accepted that scholarly journals will have to be available in digital formats; what is not settled is whether they can be much less expensive than print journals. This paper is divided into five sections, including an introduction. Section 1 highlights publishers' views on costs of electronic journals and the replacement of free electronic journals by electronic subscription journals. Section 2 summarizes the economics of the current price journal system and section 3 looks at the electronic-only journals that have sprung up over the last few years and are available for free on the Internet. In section 4 the strange economic incentives that exist in scholarly publishing are discussed. Section 5 presents some tentative conclusions and projections. The basic assumption made in this article is that the costs of scholarly publishing should be minimized to the largest extent consistent with delivering the services that scholars and the society they serve require. (Contains 25 references.) (AEF)

Descriptors: *Cost Effectiveness; Cost Indexes; *Costs; *Electronic Journals; *Electronic Publishing; *Fees; Higher Education; Information Dissemination; Internet; Periodicals; *Scholarly Journals; User Needs (Information)

Identifiers: Electronic Resources

ED414923 IR056781

The Future of Electronic Journals.

Varian, Hal R.

1997

14p.; Paper presented at the Conference on Scholarly Communication and Technology (Atlanta, GA, April 24-25, 1997), see IR 056 774.

Available From: Association of Research Libraries (ARL) Web site: http://www.arl.org/scomm/scat/

EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.

Document Type: EVALUATIVE REPORT (142); CONFERENCE PAPER (150)

Geographic Source: U.S.; California

It is widely expected that a great deal of scholarly communication will move to an electronic format. This paper speculates about the impact this movement will have on the form of scholarly communication. In order to understand how journals might evolve, the paper begins with a look at the demand and supply for scholarly commutation today, as well as the first-copy costs of academic journals. Two other costs are then mentioned: archiving and yearly costs-per-article read. A discussion on re-engineering journal production and the impact of re-engineering on costs savings follows. Further savings of electronic distribution on shelf-space, monitoring, information searches, and supporting materials are then outlined. The paper concludes that when all academic publication is electronic: (1) publications will have much more general forms; (2) new filtering and refereeing mechanisms will be used; and (3) archiving and standardization will remain a problem. A model for electronic publishing is also presented. (Contains 12 references.) (AEF)

Descriptors: Cost Effectiveness; Costs; *Electronic Journals; *Electronic Publishing; *Faculty Publishing; Higher Education; Information Dissemination; Information Storage; Information Technology; Nonprint Media; Printed Materials; Publications; *Publishing Industry; *Scholarly Journals; Standards

Identifiers: Circulation (Publications); Electronic Resources; SGML

ED414916 IR056774

Scholarly Communication and Technology. Papers from the Conference Organized by the Andrew W. Mellon Foundation and Held at Emory University (Atlanta, Georgia, April 24-25, 1997).

1997

468p.; "A print publication, including the papers presented, a synthesis of the discussions, and some additional analysis of the topic will be made available at a later date by the University of California Press." For individual papers separately analyzed, see IR 056 775-799.

Available From: The Web site of the Association of Research Libraries (ARL), which is hosting the papers electronically at: http://www.arl.org/scomm/scat/

EDRS Price - MF01/PC19 Plus Postage.

Document Type: CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS (021)

Geographic Source: U.S.; Georgia

This document includes 25 papers and conference summation remarks presented at the Scholarly Communication and Technology Conference. Issues under

discussion during this 2-day event included the economics of electronic publishing, incorporating technology into academia, the future of consortia and access versus ownership, electronic content licensing, and updates on several electronic scholarly initiatives. Papers are divided according to the following nine sessions: (1) "The Economics of Electronic Publishing: Cost Issues"; (2) "The Evolution of Journals"; (3) "Economics of Electronic Publishing: Journals Pricing and User Acceptance"; (4) "Patterns of Usage"; (5) "Technical Choices and Standards"; (6) "Copyright and Fair Use"; (7) "Multi-Institutional Cooperation"; (8) "Sustaining Change"; (9) "Summation." (AEF)

Descriptors: Access to Information; Change; Computer Mediated Communication; *Conference Proceedings; Costs; *Electronic Journals; Electronic Publishing; Fair Use (Copyrights); Higher Education; *Information Technology; *Scholarly Journals; Standards; Users (Information)

Identifiers: Electronic Resources

ED409867 IR018456

Print vs. Online Scholarly Publishing: Notes and Reflections on the Peer Review Process.

Ryder, Martin

1997

4p.; In: Proceedings of Selected Research and Development Presentations at the 1997 National Convention of the Association for Educational Communications and Technology (19th, Albuquerque, NM, February 14-18, 1997); see IR 018 421.

EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.

Document Type: EVALUATIVE REPORT (142); CONFERENCE PAPER (150)

Geographic Source: U.S.; Maryland

This paper addresses some of the major shifts in thinking about the nature of publishing and in basic beliefs regarding the peer review process in scholarly communication. Changes in the notion of ownership in the an age of technology are considered. Differences between the referee system with print publications and electronic text are outlined and the shift from the conception of peer review from a summary process to an emergent process is illustrated, noting the public availability of online articles that are in the process of being reviewed and are subject to revision. The "plasticity" of electronic text opens the way for interactivity as a means for quality control, an approach which views text as an organic, dynamic phenomenon capable of adapting and changing within the context from which it was conceived. The paper concludes with a description of a model of an electronic journal that encompasses both an open studio and a showcase gallery environment for textual artifacts, a model which offers the flexibility needed to implement open, interactive peer review, promising speed and

diversity of opinion. (AEF)

Descriptors: Access to Information; *Change Agents; *Electronic Journals; Electronic Text; Faculty Publishing; Higher Education; Information Technology; Ownership; *Publishing Industry; Scholarly Journals; Writing for Publication

Identifiers: *Peer Review Organizations; *Scholarly Communication; Scholarly Writing

Journal ^ rticles

EJ555072 CE531951

The Journal of Extension Goes Electronic: Results of a Subscriber Evaluation Survey.

Lambur, Michael

Journal of Extension, v35 n6 Dec 1997

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); RESEARCH REPORT (143)

The Journal of Extension became completely electronic in 1994. A 1996 e-mail survey received 534 responses from 2,037 subscribers indicating that 32.9% access it through the World Wide Web, 29.5% via e-mail, and 11% through gopher. Access was equitable across job types, and 72.9% liked the electronic format. (SK)

Descriptors: *Access to Information; *Electronic Journals; *Extension Education; Information Sources

EJ554219 IR536023

It Is Time to Become Discriminating Consumers.

Boyce, Peter B.

Against the Grain, v9 n5 p86-87 Nov 1997

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); EVALUATIVE REPORT (142)

Emphasizes the need for users to be educated about what constitutes a quality electronic journal. Discusses two classes of full text electronic journals; characteristics of a well-designed journal; reasons more publishers don't provide full-featured, linked HTML journals (conservatism, difficulty, cost); and answering long-term archiving and access. (AEF)

Descriptors: Access to Information; Design; *Electronic Journals; Electronic Publishing; Information Technology; Online Systems; Publishing Industry; Scholarly Journals; User Needs (Information); User Satisfaction (Information)

EJ554168 IR535964

Is the Journal As We Know It an Article of Faith? An Open Letter to the Faculty.

Morton, Bruce

Public-Access Computer Systems Review, v8 n2 p1-9 1997

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); POSITION PAPER (120); PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141)

Discusses scholarly communication, functions of scholarly journals, and the possibility of changing from a printed version to an electronic journal. Highlights include dissemination; timeliness; peer review; recognition and award; rising costs of printed journals and decreasing serials budgets in academic libraries; paradigm shifts; and new models for consideration. (LRW)

Descriptors: Academic Libraries; Awards; Change; Costs; *Electronic Journals; Higher Education; Information Dissemination; *Journal Articles; Models; Peer Evaluation; Printed Materials; Professional Recognition; *Scholarly Journals

Identifiers: Paradigm Shifts; *Scholarly Communication; Timeliness

EJ552697 IR535952

Monopoly Power and Electronic Journals.

Meyer, Richard W.

Library Quarterly, v67 n4 p325-49 Oct 1997

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141)

Rising periodical prices and lagging library budgets have many academics hoping that scholarly print journals will migrate to online versions. Examines economic factors shaping the electronic journal market, emerging new electronic journals, access versus ownership, consortial purchasing, self-maintained infrastructures, elimination of tenure and promotion, and taking legal action to unbundle articles. (50 references) (PEN)

Descriptors: *Academic Libraries; Access to Information; Consortia; Costs; *Economic Factors; *Electronic Journals; Electronic Publishing; Faculty Promotion; Higher Education; Library Expenditures; Online Catalogs; *Printed Materials; *Scholarly Journals; Tenure

Identifiers: *Monopoly

EJ549379 IR535482

Introducing the Scope and Standards of the "Journal of Interactive Learning

Research."

Reeves, Thomas C.

Educational Technology Review, n7 p5-8 Sum 1997

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141)

Describes the "Journal of Interactive Learning Research." Topics include the future of refereed journals in light of electronic journals; interactivity; conceptions of learning; types of research methodologies; standards; and types of submission to the journal. (LRW)

Descriptors: Electronic Journals; Futures (of Society); *Interaction; Journal Articles; *Learning Theories; Research Methodology; *Scholarly Journals; Standards; Writing for Publication

EJ547750 IR535254

Web Journals and Education.

Monty, Vivienne

Education Libraries, v20 n3 p11-17 1997

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141)

Discussed electronic journals available on the World Wide Web, particularly in the field of education. Highlights include hypermedia journals; journals, the Internet, and education and learning theory; journal formats; the role of the librarian; and concerns, including archiving, copyright, updating, and subscriptions. (LRW)

Descriptors: Archives; Copyrights; *Educational Resources; *Electronic Journals; Hypermedia; Information Sources; Information Storage; Internet; Layout (Publications); Learning Theories; Librarians; Library Role; *World Wide Web

Identifiers: Subscribers (Magazines)

EJ546254 IR535155

Design and Implementation of a Web-Based Electronic Refereeing System.

Zhang, Zhongdong

Review of Information Science, v2 n1 May 1997

Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141)

Refereeing has been one means of ensuring the quality of publications in conventional scholarly publishing. However, conventional refereeing, with its

reliance on traditional mail communication cannot meet the needs of electronic journal publishing. Examines the traditional refereeing system, describes a World Wide Web-based electronic form of refereeing, and discusses its advantages. (PEN)

Descriptors: *Computer System Design; *Electronic Journals; Electronic Publishing; Online Systems; *Program Implementation; Publishing Industry; Quality Control; *Scholarly Journals; Technological Advancement; *World Wide Web

Identifiers: *Refereed Journals

EJ544700 IR534899

Clicking onto Webzines.

Brody, Herb

Technology Review, v100 n4 p38-47 May-Jun 1997

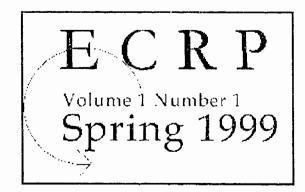
Journal availability: Technology Review, P.O. Box 489, Mount Morris, IL 61054.

Document Type: PROJECT DESCRIPTION (141); JOURNAL ARTICLE (080)

Amid the growth of the World Wide Web, Web magazines have risen to popularity. Topics include their hypermedia features; online panel discussions; video and audio; space and time; and costs, advertising, and access fees. Highlights "Slate," "Salon," "Hotwired," "Feed," and "Word." Concludes that webzines face challenges in establishing themselves as a viable medium. (PEN)

Descriptors: Access to Information; Advertising; Costs; Discussion; *Electronic Journals; *Electronic Publishing; Fees; Hypermedia; Vendors; *World Wide Web

Identifiers: *Electronic Media; Links (Indexing); *Zines





Volume 1, Number 1

New at ERIC/EECE

The Best of Parent News: A Sourcebook on Parenting from the National Parent Information Network, compiled by Anne S. Robertson. (December 1998; Catalog #221; ca. 170 pp.; \$10.)



Parent News, one of the services provided by the National Parent Information Network, is an Internet magazine that focuses on topics of interest to parents and professionals who work with parents. Many of the articles in Parent News have been developed around frequently asked questions from parents or to provide more information about issues raised on the PARENTING-L Internet discussion list. The Best of Parent News has been compiled in response to requests for a publication that would introduce those without Internet access to the activities and information available through the National Parent Information

Network. This book provides an "offline" collection of education, parenting, child development, and family life information that will be of interest to parents and those who work with parents. Arranged in sections similar to those found in the Internet version of *Parent News*, *The Best of Parent News* includes "Feature Articles," "Community Spotlights," "Of Interest," and "ERIC Digests." As with the Internet version of *Parent News*, readers are encouraged to share the resources that they find useful with parenting groups, schools, and community development initiatives.

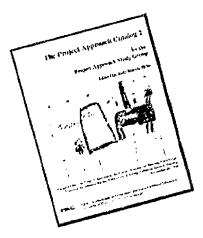
Proceedings of the Families, Technology, and Education Conference, edited by Anne S. Robertson. (December 1998; Catalog #222; ca. 300 pp., \$15.)



The Families, Technology, and Education (FTE) Conference was held in late 1997, when computer technology and the Internet were raising new issues and concerns as well as presenting new opportunities for parents in work, education, and family life. As the FTE Conference papers contained in this volume show, the thoughtful implementation of the new technologies can enhance parents' access to information on, and provide assistance and support in, the task of parenting. Of interest to both parents and practitioners, papers in the volume cover applications of technology, concerns about equity of access to technology,

use with gifted or differently abled children, opportunities and concerns presented by the Internet, and applications of new communications technology. Presenters include Linda Roberts, Barbara Bowman, the Blondin Family, Kenneth Komoski, Tony Wilhelm, and Jerold Bauch.

The Project Approach Catalog 2, edited by Judy Harris Helm. (October 1998; Catalog #219; ca. 140 pp.; \$10.)



This Catalog accompanied the Project Approach Study Group's presentation at the 1998 annual meeting of the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) in Toronto, Canada. As in the first *Project Approach Catalog*, published in 1996, the project summaries in this 1998 issue indicate the range of locations, settings, age groups and mixes, and project topics with which the Study Group members have been working. A variety of issues of common concern to the group are addressed in the articles included in this Catalog. These include

the phases of project work, project topic selection, the value of drawing in projects, introducing investigation skills with a mini-project, involving special needs children in projects, engaged learning and standards of work, and helping students at various levels of professional training to learn how to implement the Project Approach. Special sections on research and implementation of the Project Approach in Canada and on the Internet and the Project Approach are also featured.

Rearview Mirror: Reflections on a Preschool Car Project, by Sallee Beneke. (November 1998; Catalog #220; ca. 80 pp.; ca. 90 photos and drawings; \$10.)



This generously illustrated publication documents the work of a master preschool teacher, her co-teachers, student teachers, and very young children as they explored the automotive laboratory adjacent to their classroom at a community college in Illinois. The history of the project and the experiences it provided for the adults and the children in the preschool, as well as for the supervisors and students in the automotive laboratory, are described in sufficient detail to enable us to see the complexities of the events. We can appreciate how the master teacher confronts

her own questions about helping student teachers learn the Project Approach, about when and how to guide the children, and about when to give help and when to withhold it. Ms. Beneke offers us the documentation of the children's experiences in such a way that we can know not only what they did and what they learned, but we also can begin to understand what they felt. She shares with us her insights related to the potential pitfalls and benefits of project work to all the participating adults, as well as to the children.

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