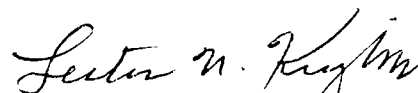


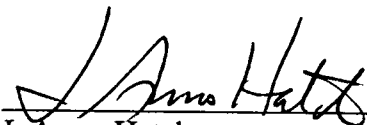
To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Cathleen Frances Allred entitled "Literacy and Literacy Instruction: Interns' Perceptions." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Education.



Lester N. Knight, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:



J. Amos Hatch



Colleen P. Gilrane



Sandra Twardosz

Accepted for the Council:



Associate Vice Chancellor and
Dean of The Graduate School

**LITERACY AND LITERACY INSTRUCTION:
INTERNS' PERCEPTIONS**

**A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville**

Cathleen Frances Allred

August 1998

Copyright © Cathleen Frances Allred, 1998

All rights reserved

Dedication

This study is dedicated to my mother,

Mary Lou Doheny,

the most positive influence in my life.

Unsere Mutti ist die Allerbeste.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express gratitude, and thanks to a large family of people who have given moral support, understanding, and friendship to me throughout this program of doctoral study. Family, meaning those with whom I share respect, joy, and love; husband, mom, siblings, friends. These are special people who are scattered around the world geographically but ever-present in spirit, and whose energy I drew upon when mine was near depletion.

I am indebted to my doctoral advisory committee for their willingness to guide me through this dissertation process. I would like to thank Lester Knight, my committee chair, for his kind leadership and unwavering belief in my ability to do this thing. To J. Amos Hatch, I would like to express thanks for knowledgeable guidance through the messy process of conducting qualitative research. I am grateful to Colleen Gilrane for the opportunity to teach, learn, and conduct research in a professional development school. To Sandra Twardosz, I express appreciation for introducing me to colleagues from whom I could learn about different approaches to literacy research.

I would also like to thank the principal, and the mentoring teachers at Lakeland Elementary School for the warm welcome they extended each time I arrived at their school and in their classrooms to conduct research. I am particularly indebted to Holly, Abby, and Josie for their willingness to allow me to observe them teaching, and question their thinking while they struggled with the many day to day complexities of learning how to teach. Their participation is appreciated more than I can adequately say in this small space.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this naturalistic study was to better understand the experiences of interns as they engaged in literacy instruction during the second semester of the year-long internship. Through increased understanding about how interns experience teaching literacy during the year-long field experience, those in positions of educating new teachers may gain insight into how to structure teacher education in literacy in ways that may be more meaningful and relevant.

Qualitative methods of data collection included classroom observations, interviews, and document examination. Data were collected from three elementary school interns over a five month period which spanned the Spring semester of their internship year. One intern was teaching first grade; two interns were teaching fourth grade. Qualitative analysis of the data was used to answer the following research questions: 1) What does literacy mean to interns? 2) How do interns construct their perceptions of literacy? 3) What does literacy instruction mean to interns? 4) How do interns experience literacy instruction in the classroom context? 5) How do interns construct their perceptions of literacy instruction?

Findings from data analysis revealed the following similarities across interns: 1) Literacy means reading and writing in ways that communicate meaning for enjoyment, for learning, and to accomplish one's goals in life. 2) Interns construct their perceptions of literacy in literate environments, with literate role models, and expectations for literate behavior. 3) By the end of the internship year, interns articulated clearly that literacy instruction meant the teaching of reading and writing as integrated processes, in

both student-directed and teacher-directed ways. 4) Interns experienced literacy instruction as the application of social strategies that enabled them to assert autonomy in stressful situations. Interns used conformity, compromise, and change to actively adapt to perceived contextual constraints. 5) Interns constructed their perceptions of literacy instruction through school biographies, teacher education course work, field experiences, and professional development activities.

Implications for teacher education in literacy were based on the findings that interns saw themselves as learners throughout the internship experience. Interns completed the year-long internship with the perception that they were still learning to teach literacy.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem	4
Need for the Study	8
Research Purpose	9
Theoretical Framework	11
Organization of the Study	15
Chapter Summary	16

2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Changing Perspectives in Literacy Teaching and Research	17
Beliefs and Knowledge about Subject Matter, Teaching, and Learning	20
Teachers' Beliefs	20
Knowledge for Teaching	25
Teacher development	25
Teacher socialization	27
Teacher knowledge	29
Acquiring Knowledge and Beliefs for Classroom Teaching	33
Biography	34
Course Work	38
Field Experiences	47
Chapter Summary	58

3. METHODOLOGY

Assumptions	60
Selection of Participants	64
Description of Participants	67
Abby Adams	68
Holly Raines	68
Josie Mills	68
Data Collection	69
Participant Observation	70
Phase I	71
Phase II	72
Phase III	73
Full-day observation	73
Interviews	73
Group interviews	74
Individual in-depth interviews	75
Reflective interviews	76
Documents	77
Data Analysis	79
Assurance of Trustworthiness	81

Chapter Summary	83
4. CONTEXT	
School and Community	84
Professional Development School	87
Classrooms	88
Lisa Gates' and Holly Raines' First-Grade Classroom	88
Martha Paris' and Josie Mills' Fourth-Grade Classroom	90
Sheila Burns' and Abby Adams Fourth-Grade Classroom	92
People	94
Principal	94
Mentoring Teachers	95
Lisa Gates	95
Sheila Burns	96
Martha Paris	96
Interns	97
Holly Raines	97
Abby Adams	101
Josie Mills	105
Teacher Education Program	109
Chapter Summary	112
5. DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND INTERPRETATION	
What Does Literacy Mean to Interns?	115
Literacy for Students	115
Literacy for Self	117
Summary	119
How Do Interns Construct Their Perceptions of Literacy?	119
Home	119
School	120
Summary	121
What Does Literacy Instruction Mean to Interns?	122
Beliefs and Knowledge	123
New way/old way	123
Confusion/clarification	124
Learning to read and write	125
Classroom Practices	127
Established practices	128
Additions to established practice	129
Envisioned Ideal	132
Summary	135
How do Interns Experience Literacy Instruction in the Classroom	
Context?	137

The Internship as a Stressful Situation	137
Literacy Instruction as the Application of Social Strategies	142
Conformity	143
Compromise	153
Change	159
Summary	170
How Do Interns Construct Their Perceptions of Literacy Instruction? . . .	171
School Biography	172
Observing teachers	173
Experiences as students	174
Teacher Education Course work	176
Field Experiences	179
Role models during field experiences.	179
Practical experiences	183
Action research	185
Professional Development Activities	189
Reading	189
Workshops/conferences	190
Summary	191
Chapter Summary	192
 6. REFLECTIONS, QUESTIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS	
Reflections and Questions.	194
What Does Literacy Mean to Interns?	195
How Do Interns Construct Their Perceptions of Literacy?	197
What Does Literacy Instruction Mean to Interns?	199
How Do Interns Experience Literacy instruction in the Classroom Context?	201
How Do Interns Construct Their Perceptions of Literacy Instruction?	209
Implications	215
Chapter Summary	220
 REFERENCES	221
 APPENDICES	239
 VITA	252

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Definitions of literacy change according to the needs of society. "Levels of literacy required for social functioning can and have varied across cultures and across time within the same culture" (Venezky, 1995, p. 142). In Europe, during the early Middle Ages, a literate person was one who could read Latin (Venezky, 1995). Later, in America, the Colonists were considered literate if they could read the Bible and sign their names (Ferrante, 1998, p. 333). For hundreds of years literacy has been used to refer to the ability to read and write (Venezky, 1995). The National Literacy Act of 1991 defines literacy as "an individual's ability to read, write, and speak in English and compute and solve problems at levels of proficiency necessary to function on the job and in society, to achieve one's goals, and to develop one's knowledge and potential" (in Ferrante, 1998, p. 333).

The recently published Standards for the English Language Arts (1996) presents a definition of literacy that adds listening, viewing, and visually representing to the National Literacy Act definition. The International Reading Association (IRA) and the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) define literacy as "the capacity to accomplish a wide range of reading, writing, speaking and other language tasks associated with everyday life" (p. 73).

Based on this definition of literacy, the IRA and the NCTE recommend standards that center around six basic areas in the English language arts: reading,

writing, speaking, listening, viewing, and visually representing. They stress the integrated nature of all six areas and suggest that a familiar way to link the six areas is by medium: reading and writing involve written language, speaking and listening include spoken language, and viewing and visually representing relate to visual language (IRA/NCTE, 1996).

Literacy instruction, which involves students in all six areas of the English language arts, is central in our schools. Elementary school teachers devote from 40% to 50% of their daily schedule to teaching some aspect of literacy (Gromman, 1991; O'Donnell, 1990). Literacy learning is included in every content area of schooling and is essential for each student's success in our education system. One of the most fundamental expectations of the American public for schooling is teaching children to read and write (Nolen, McCutchen, & Berninger, 1990). One of the most important tasks of American school teachers is developing competence and expertise in teaching reading and writing so that students will achieve the high levels of literacy they will need to meet the diverse literacy demands of an increasingly complex society (Harris & Harris, 1992).

The tremendous responsibility for the literacy development of children does not belong to classroom teachers alone, but also to the institutions that educate teachers (Nolen, et al., 1990). It is the quality of teaching that children receive that is a major determinant of their progress in learning to read and write (Anderson, Armbruster, & Roe, 1990). In a discussion with other prominent literacy educators, Jeanne Chall said, "It's the teacher and what she does that really seems to make the greatest difference"

(Aaron, Chall, Durkin, Goodman, & Strickland, 1990). To ensure quality literacy instruction for all of our nation's children we must devote attention to the education of their teachers.

Teacher education has been a topic of concern for educational reformers for many years (National Commission of Excellence in Education, 1983, Carnegie Forum, 1986; & Holmes Group, 1986). However, a recent report of the National Commission on Teaching and America's future indicates that, "On the whole, the school reform movement has ignored the obvious: What teachers know and can do makes the crucial difference in what children learn" (1996a, p. 5). In their recent report, What Matters Most: Teaching for America's Future, the committee identifies teacher education as an important element in their goal "to provide every student in America with what should be his or her educational birthright: access to competent, caring, qualified teaching in schools organized for success" (1996a, p. vi).

One of five major recommendations of the National Commission for improving teaching and learning in schools, is the reinvention of teacher preparation and professional development. The report lists the following as major flaws in traditional, four-year undergraduate teacher education programs:

- Inadequate time for learning subject matter, child development, learning theory, and teaching strategies.
- Fragmentation of key elements of teacher education so that course work does not relate to practice teaching, and separate courses often do not relate to one another.

- Uninspired teaching methods of traditional lecture format by faculty who do not practice what they preach.
- Superficial curriculum where candidates do not have opportunities for in-depth understanding of how to apply theory or methods to the real problems of practice.
- Traditional views of schooling where prospective teachers work in isolation to teach in schools as they are (1996, p. 32).

Statement of the Problem

Preservice teachers develop knowledge and beliefs about teaching, learning, and subject matter long before participation in formal teacher preparation programs (Lortie, 1975). Preservice teachers bring knowledge and beliefs to teacher education based on their own experiences of traditional, skills-based, transmission models of teaching and learning in elementary, middle, and high school (Anderson, Armbruster, & Roe, 1990). Though current literacy theory and research call for more interactive, constructive models of teaching and learning, many preservice teachers hold fast to the prior experiences and implicit beliefs developed during their lengthy participation in school (Craig, Bright, & Smith, 1994; Holt-Reynolds, 1991; Anderson, et al., 1990).

Often, during teacher education course work, content knowledge is transmitted from teacher to student in an abstract and decontextualized manner so that preservice teachers have difficulty applying theoretical knowledge to classroom practice (Stanilus & Weaver, 1996; Anderson, Armbruster, & Roe, 1990). Teachers often complain about the usefulness of their teaching methods course work. Anderson et al. (1990)

report teachers' views of methods courses as "woefully inadequate in preparing them to cope with the complex problems of real classrooms" (p. 189).

Part of the problem with course work is that there is often a discrepancy between how preservice teachers are taught and how they are expected to teach. Typically, teacher education courses are taught using a transmission model of teaching in which the instructor lectures, assigns readings, then tests for understanding of concepts (Kelly & Farnan, 1990). In these same education courses, preservice teachers are expected to learn how to teach in interactive, constructive ways (Craig, Bright, & Smith, 1994). Preservice teachers may complete course work in current teacher education programs without ever having experienced the kind of challenging instruction that they are expected to offer students (National Commission on Teaching & America's Future, 1996b).

Several problems are associated with the nature of the student teaching experience or fieldwork portion of teacher education. Often there is a philosophical mismatch between innovative ideas taught in course work and the traditional practices implemented by the mentoring classroom teachers (Weaver & Stanilus, 1996; Anderson, Armbruster, & Roe, 1990). During student teaching, preservice teachers are often isolated from peers in separate schools and do not have time for discussion or reflection about their experiences. This isolation influences preservice teachers to conform to accepted practices in an effort to fit into their new environment (Weaver & Stanilus, 1996; Goodlad, 1990). In addition, preservice teachers are often overwhelmed by the complexity of the demands of teaching. In an attempt to adapt to the new

culture, their new roles, and expectations of their mentoring teachers they often succumb to maintaining the status quo. Their focus usually centers on mastering the unfamiliar routines of maintaining student attention, classroom management, and student discipline (Anderson, Armbruster, & Roe, 1990; Goodlad, 1990).

Despite changing definitions of literacy and increased demands for higher levels of literacy for success beyond schooling, there have been only minuscule changes in the way the language arts are taught in our public schools (Gromman, 1990). Langer (1991) points out that reading instruction in more than a few schools is based on an older and more restricted definition of literacy in which reading continues to be taught as an accumulation of isolated skills that can be memorized and mastered. Langer reports that although schools are doing well at teaching low levels of competence in reading and writing, "the kind of literate thinking currently valued and used in the United States is generally not taught, learned, or tested in American schools" (1990, p. 23).

Critics of public schooling in America argue that "fewer and fewer students are able to read and write well, blaming schools and teachers for failing to fulfill their responsibilities" (IRA/NCTE, 1996, p. 4). Education in literacy as a public concern, is reflected in presidential proposals that have addressed the problem in different ways. President Bush, in 1989, "challenged the U. S. to have the best schools in the world by the year 2000 for teaching literacy" (Harris & Harris, 1992, p. 572). President Bush, along with the nation's fifty governors, came up with new educational goals to be achieved by the year 2000. One of those goals is directly related to literacy education:

“Every adult must be a skilled, literate worker and citizen, able to compete in a global economy” (in Ferrante, 1998, p. 328).

In April 1994, President Clinton signed the Goals 2000 Act, setting aside federal funds for states and school districts to design and implement programs related to achieving the Goals 2000, including a 100 percent literacy rate (Ferrante, 1998). In addition, President Clinton proposed the “America Reads” challenge directed at providing volunteer reading tutors in the early grades so that “every child in the United States [will] be able to read well and independently by the end of third grade” (Morrow & Walker, 1997, p. 30).

Changing definitions of literacy, new theories of learning, public concern for increased levels of literacy, criticism of teachers and teacher preparation all add to the problem of how to best educate new teachers to meet the literacy demands of our complex and diverse society. Though evidence from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (1993) suggests that students today read better and write better than any other time in history, it is clearly not enough. Public sentiment about the ability of our public schools to prepare students for success as literate citizens is doubtful. The problem lies in “the mismatch that currently exists between students’ achievements [in reading and writing] and our expanded expectations for their literacy” (IRA/NCTE, 1996, p. 4). Though more and more students are graduating from high school with the ability to read and write, it has not been at the levels needed for success in a rapidly changing society.

Need for the Study

If teacher educators hope to prepare teachers who can help students meet the complex literacy demands of an increasingly diverse and rapidly changing society, educators must gain in-depth understanding of what and how their preservice teachers learn to teach (Feiman-Nemser & Remillard, 1996). Wideen and Tisher (1990) suggest that "for research to contribute more to our conceptualizations about the process of teacher education, more information is required about how the process unfolds" (p. 260). If teacher educators in literacy hope to influence preservice teachers' outdated and ineffective perceptions about teaching literacy they must first know what they are (Newman, 1987). If course work is to be designed that will result in new approaches to literacy teaching, teacher educators must examine the contributions of their courses to the professional development of their preservice teachers as well as the influence of course work on classroom practices (Grossman, 1991).

In a review of student teachers' perceptions of field experiences, Applegate (1986) concludes with a "plea for a more concerted focus toward understanding what students experience, how they experience it, and what meaning they make from such experience" (p. 36). Griffen (1986) suggests it is time to engage student teachers in the dialogue regarding what student teaching should be about. Just as teachers' voices have long been ignored in professional conversations about teaching (Darling-Hammond & Cobb, 1996), interns' voices are lacking in the conversation about teacher preparation.

The present study addresses the need to add preservice teachers' voices to the conversation of how to improve teacher education in literacy. It addresses the need to understand interns' perceptions of literacy instruction as they experience it in the everyday context classroom teaching as preservice teachers. Through observations, interviews, and document analysis this study attempts to understand the meanings interns make of literacy and literacy instruction during the second semester of the year-long internship.

The present study addresses the need to understand the experiences of preservice teachers while in the context of everyday teaching

Research Purpose

The purpose of the present study is to better understand the experiences of interns as they engage in literacy instruction during the second semester of the year-long internship. The summary report of the Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1996b) suggests that if preservice teachers are adequately prepared at the beginning of their careers they will be "better able to respond to the toughest learning problems and the challenge of meeting ever higher standards" (p. 20).

If a good beginning is important, then it is also important for teacher educators to determine just what it is that this beginning means to those who experience it. I am interested in looking closely at how interns go about the task of teaching literacy and to describe and explain from interns' perspectives what literacy and literacy instruction mean to them as they progress through the second semester of the professional year internship experience.

Research questions include:

1. What do literacy and literacy instruction mean to interns?
2. How do interns experience literacy instruction in the classroom context?
3. How do interns construct their perceptions of literacy and literacy instruction?

In the present study, perception refers to interns' beliefs and knowledge about teaching, learning, and subject matter. Research in teacher education has progressed over time from examining observable behavior of teachers, to understanding the thought processes teachers use in planning and decision-making, to a current focus on preservice teachers' knowledge and beliefs about teaching, learning, and subject matter (Calderhead, 1996; Richardson, 1996; Heibert & Raphael, 1996). Research questions were designed to move beyond descriptions of interns' beliefs and knowledge bases to looking more closely at how beliefs and knowledge are acquired (Grossman, 1990). This study addresses the need for more naturalistic research to better understand how preservice teachers learn to teach literacy as they participate in the field experience portion of their teacher education program (McIntyre, Byrd, & Foxx, 1996). It adds to the literature that describes the experiences of preservice teachers so that they are "no longer tucked away in tables of aggregated data" (Carter, 1990, p. 293). It offers descriptions of three interns' experiences and the words they use to explain what literacy and literacy instruction means to them as they learn to teach. It addresses the need for teacher educators to look closely at how their teacher education programs contribute to the professional growth of preservice teachers in one particular subject area.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of this study begins with the basic premises of symbolic interactionism (Blumer, 1969; Woods, 1990). Meaning is at the center of the symbolic interactionist perspective. According to Blumer (1969) meaning is created through an ongoing process of human action, interaction, and interpretation. Three basic premises of symbolic interactionism include:

1. Human beings act toward things on the basis of the meanings that the things have for them.
2. The meaning of things is derived from, or arises out of, social interaction.
3. Meanings are modified through an interpretive process used by the person in dealing with the things he or she encounters (Blumer, 1969, p. 2)

The things to which Blumer (1969) refers to as “objects” include “anything that can be referred to”(p. 10). Blumer classifies objects into three categories: physical, social, and abstract. Self, other people, places, moral principles, philosophical doctrines, and ideas such as trust or compassion are all objects according to Blumer. He explains that people develop their actions based on the meanings they have toward objects so that in order to understand peoples’ actions it is necessary to identify their world of objects.

Woods (1990) explains that actions are determined through an interpretive and interactive process as an active adaptation to the circumstances in which people find themselves. He further explains that this process of interpretation occurs both within the self and between the self and others. By engaging in self-interaction the human

being is seen as actively constructing his or her own meanings for objects and making decisions about actions based on those meanings. This process of interpretation is vital to the construction of meaning and distinguishes human action from that of a stimulus-response orientation (Blumer, 1969).

All three of Blumer's premises speak to the interactive, interpretive process of self-formation (Bullough, Knowles, & Crow, 1992). Bullough, Knowles, and Crow (1992) explain how the process works for beginning teachers. In their view the beginning teacher enters a teaching context with a conception of his/her "teaching self" formed, but still forming. This "teaching self" is composed of a cluster of meanings that are tested and retested as interpretations are made from the actions and statements of others who share the context. Like beginning teachers, interns are involved in the same active process of constructing what it means to teach and to be a teacher.

In order to better understand interns' actions in the classroom, it is necessary to uncover the meanings they have for the objects in their environment. From the perspective of symbolic interactionism, "teaching is more than a set of technically learnable skills: it is given meaning by teachers' evolving selves, within the realistic contexts and contingencies of their work environments" (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 3). Symbolic interactionism can be used to help us discover common perceptions among interns as a group of new teachers that develop in response to the complex problems of everyday classroom teaching, as well as alert us to differences that occur between interns as they develop a teaching self (Hargreaves, 1994). Understanding both the similarities and differences in perspectives from the interns' point of view can provide

teacher educators with important sources of information to consider when structuring the internship experience.

A social constructivist view of teacher learning is also included in the theoretical framework of this study. New definitions of literacy and literacy instruction in recent research point to the emergence of constructivist views of learning (Hiebert, 1991). Current theoretical models and processes of reading emphasize the interactive, constructive nature of the development of reading and writing skill (Ruddell, Ruddell, & Singer, 1994). Some models emphasize the social nature of constructivist learning (Ruddell & Unrau, 1994; Goodman, 1994; Flower & Hayes, 1994).

In the field of literacy education many teacher educators have begun to implement a constructivist approach to learning in their teacher preparation courses (Weaver & Stanilus, 1996; Roskos, & Walker, 1994; Craig, Bright, & Smith, 1994; Langer, 1991; Bondy, 1990). In a study of the professional development of science teachers, Bell and Gilbert (1996) use a social constructivist view of student learning to develop a social constructivist view of teacher learning. They view teacher learning and development from a social constructivist perspective. Their theory of social constructivism adds to the symbolic interactionist perspective by providing a framework for understanding how interns' learn to teach literacy in the classroom context.

From their research with teachers as learners, Bell and Gilbert conclude that learning includes social, personal, and professional aspects of development which are "inextricably linked" (1996, p. 38). In their view, teachers' perceptions of what it

means to be a teacher are both socially and personally constructed. Social development involves interaction with others which is necessary for ongoing “renegotiating and reconstructing what it means to be a teacher” (p. 13). Personal development involves each individual in interpreting and evaluating the socially constructed knowledge about what it means to be a teacher. Professional development includes knowledge of subject matter, knowledge and use of teaching methods, and knowledge about the profession.

Bell and Gilbert (1996) propose that a social constructivist view of learning for teachers recognizes these components:

1. Knowledge is constructed by people.
2. The construction and reconstruction of knowledge is both social and personal.
3. The social context is an integral part of learning activity.
4. Social interaction is a part of the personal and social construction and reconstruction of knowledge.

A social constructivist view of intern learning considers the classroom context as an important aspect of interns’ developing perceptions of what it means to teach literacy. The focus of this research will be to better understand how interns use their perceptions to organize behavior, understand themselves and others, and make sense out of their lived experience as interns teaching literacy in elementary school classrooms.

Organization of the Study

This study is organized into six chapters, followed by a list of references and appendices. Chapter One includes an introduction to the study, a statement of the problem, the need for the study, the research purpose and specific research questions, and the theoretical framework which guided all aspects of the research. Finally, the organization of the study is explained.

Chapter Two presents a review of the literature and research related to this study. Included in this review are an examination of literature addressing changing perspectives in literacy teaching and research, beliefs and knowledge about subject matter, teaching, and learning, and acquiring beliefs and knowledge for classroom practices.

Chapter Three explains the methods and procedures for conducting all aspects of this research. It begins with an introduction and assumptions of the research design, then explains the selection of participants, data collection, and data analysis, procedures, and ends with an assurance of trustworthiness.

Chapter Four describes the context and the participants. It begins with a general description of the school, and is followed by a description of each intern's classroom. Finally, vignettes for each intern are presented.

Chapter Five is a presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data and a summary of the findings. It presents similarities among interns and describes some of the differences between them.

Chapter Six offers reflections, further questions, and implications.

Chapter Summary

Changing definitions of literacy, new theories of learning, public concern for increased levels of literacy, and criticism of teachers and teacher preparation all add to the problem of how to best educate new teachers to meet the literacy demands of our complex and diverse society. If teacher educators hope to better prepare teachers to teach literacy in ways that will enable American school children to meet increasingly complex literacy demands, there is a need to look closely at how preservice teachers experience the teacher education program.

The present study addresses the need to look closely at how interns experience teaching literacy during the second semester of the year-long internship. Research questions were designed to better understand what literacy and literacy instruction means to interns, how they go about teaching literacy in the classroom context, and how they constructed their perceptions of literacy and literacy instruction.

Symbolic interactionism and social constructivism were selected as theoretical frameworks for better understanding the meaning interns' ascribed to their experiences of teaching literacy in the classroom context. Both theories view meaning construction as an ongoing process of interacting with the self and others to interpret situations and determine appropriate actions.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

To better understand the experiences of interns as they engaged in literacy instruction during the second semester of the year-long internship, it was important to observe their teaching in classroom contexts, as well as examine their beliefs and knowledge about literacy, teaching, and learning. In order to contribute to the improvement of teacher education in literacy, it was also important to determine, from interns' perspectives, how they acquired beliefs and knowledge for teaching.

An increasing amount of research in teacher education has focused on beliefs and knowledge bases for teaching. Studies have been done to examine the relationship of beliefs and knowledge to classroom practices and learning to teach. Research and literature in teacher education in general and teacher education in literacy, specifically, that was relevant to the present study included (a) changing perspectives in literacy instruction and research; (b) beliefs and knowledge about subject matter, teaching, and learning; and (c) acquiring beliefs and knowledge for classroom practices.

Changing Perspectives in Literacy Instruction and Research

Attention to teachers' beliefs about subject matter, teaching, and learning has become a focus of recent research on teaching and learning to teach (Calderhead, 1996; Richardson, 1996; Heibert & Raphael, 1996; Pajares, 1992). Recent interest in teachers' beliefs represents a progression of research on teaching that began with a look at observable behaviors, to a consideration of thought processes that guide

teachers' behaviors, to investigating the knowledge and beliefs that influence classroom practices (Calderhead, 1996). Heibert and Raphael (1996) provide a conceptual framework that helps to explain this progression. They present three predominant perspectives on literacy and literacy learning which have shaped educational practices and research: behaviorism, cognitive science, and social constructivism.

Before 1970, most research on teaching and learning was characterized by a behaviorist stance. From this perspective, learning was a response to specific stimuli. Effective teaching was the ability to apply specific teaching competencies that would maximize the amount of information that could be transmitted to students. Evidence of learning involved students' ability to recall information. Teachers provided the stimulus and students, the response. Teaching reading, from a behaviorist view, involved transferring a sequence of hierarchically arranged skills to students through the use of programmed materials and instruction, then testing for mastery. Teaching writing was limited to handwriting (Heibert & Raphael, 1996). Research on effective teaching sought to measure observable, quantifiable teacher skills and competencies to determine their effect on student learning (Calderhead, 1996).

Advances in cognitive science during the 1970's shifted the focus of teacher research from the study of what teachers do in classrooms to how they think. Cognitive psychologists focused attention on the mental processes involved in learning and suggested that meaning construction, not stimulus/response, was central to the learning process (Calderhead, 1996). Learning as a constructive process required different ways of teaching. In the field of reading, the importance of background

knowledge, metacognition, and a stronger focus on comprehension was added to models of effective teaching (Rumelhart, 1994). Writing as a process of meaning construction became an important concept for teaching writing (Flower & Hayes, 1994). Research from a cognitive science perspective focused on how students constructed meaning during reading and writing. Research in teacher education shifted attention from looking at observable behaviors to attempts to understand the link between teachers' thoughts and their actions (Calderhead, 1996). Studies of teacher planning and decision-making sought to uncover teachers preactive, interactive, and postactive thinking (Jackson, 1968; Clark & Peterson, 1986). A greater need for qualitative methods of observation and interviewing was required to better understand teachers' thought processes.

More recently, theory and research from a social constructivist perspective add a social dimension to understanding how learning occurs. From this perspective, higher mental processes, such as reading and writing, are acquired through social interaction with 'more knowledgeable others' through the mediation of symbols. Learning occurs first on a social plane and is later internalized and applied (Vygotsky, 1978). Models of reading and writing that reflect this attention to the social context in which learning occurs include Ruddell's and Unrau's (1994) socio-cognitive processing model and Goodman's (1994) transactional-socio-psycholinguistic model. Teachers who incorporate social constructivist principles into their classroom practices involve students in more social interactions with peers through the use of such activities as cooperative learning groups, literature response groups, buddy reading, writing

conferences, peer conferencing, and group projects. Research from a social constructivist perspective extends the view of learning to the context in which it occurs and attempts to understand how participants experience the social situation (Calderhead, 1996). Researchers in teacher education have recently begun to examine how teachers acquire knowledge for teaching and how beliefs from their socio-cultural experiences influence teaching and learning to teach (Pajares, 1992).

Beliefs and Knowledge about Subject Matter, Teaching, and Learning

In a review of research on learning to teach, Borko and Putnam (1996) contend there is no agreed upon distinction between beliefs and knowledge. In their view, beliefs and knowledge are highly interrelated constructs. Borko and Putnam organize their discussion of learning to teach around three domains of knowledge taken loosely from Shulman's (1987) categories of the knowledge bases for teaching. However, Borko and Putnam (1996) include beliefs as a part of these categories, as follows: (a) general pedagogical knowledge and beliefs, (b) subject matter knowledge and beliefs, and (c) pedagogical content knowledge and beliefs. Though there is some disagreement among educational researchers about the nature and relationship of knowledge and beliefs, I argue that it is important to examine both constructs in an effort to better understand the professional preparation and practices of teacher candidates (Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996; Calderhead, 1996).

Teachers' Beliefs

Few would argue that the beliefs teachers hold influence their perceptions, and judgments, which in turn affect their behavior in the classroom, or that understanding the belief structures of teachers and

teacher candidates is essential to improving their professional preparation and teaching practices (Pajares, 1992, p. 307).

Though many researchers agree on the importance of studying teachers' beliefs in an effort to better understand their practices, Pajares (1992) discusses the difficulties in doing so. He calls 'belief' a messy construct "which does not lend itself easily to empirical investigation" (p. 308). To illustrate this point, Pajares points out that in studies of teachers' beliefs, the following terms are used almost interchangeably: attitudes, values, opinions, perspectives, orientations, conceptions, perceptions, implicit theories, personal knowledge, and practical knowledge.

Pajares argues for a definition of beliefs that differs from that of knowledge. He offers the following common distinction, "Belief is based on evaluation and judgment; knowledge is based on fact" (p. 313). Other researchers add to the distinction. Nespor (1987) delineated features of beliefs and belief systems that "serve to distinguish them from other forms of knowledge" (p. 318). Using videotapes of classroom observations and interviews, Nespor studied eight middle school teachers to determine the role of beliefs in their teaching practices. Based on findings from his study, Nespor developed a preliminary conceptual framework of belief systems that he suggests can be used for "systematic and comparative investigations" (p. 317).

According to Nespor (1987), four features of beliefs, and two organizational characteristics of belief systems distinguish beliefs from knowledge. Features include "existential presumption, alternativity, affective and evaluative loading, and episodic

structure” (p. 318). Organizational characteristics are “non-consensuality and unboundedness” (p. 318).

Existential presumptions, such as belief in God, are deeply held, indisputable, personal truths that individuals hold to label objects in their physical and social realities. Teachers’ existential presumptions work to help them understand and explain entities in their work world that they see as “beyond the teachers’ control or influence” (p. 318). A belief that students fail because they are lazy, or that learning is a result of maturity are examples of existential presumptions.

Alternativity refers to the “conceptualizations of ideal situations differing significantly from present realities” (p. 319). Cult visions of a utopian world help to explain the concept, ‘alternativity.’ Teachers in Nespor’s study envisioned ideal learning environments which were not necessarily based on personal experience or abstract models of education they had learned about during teacher preparation. But rather, these images were based on utopian alternatives to the sorts of classrooms with which they were familiar. ‘Alternativity’ worked to define goals and tasks in the classroom as teachers strived to achieve the envisioned ideal.

This notion of an ‘envisioned ideal’ has been found in other studies of preservice teachers (Goodman, 1988; Calderhead & Robson, 1991). In an ethnographic study of preservice teachers’ professional perspectives, Goodman (1988) found that “the roots of their perspectives were visual” (p. 124). Preservice teachers in his study created ‘guiding images’ about teaching which formed “intuitive screens through which they interpreted their professional education” (p. 130). Calderhead and

Robson (1991) also found that student teachers had vivid images of teaching that influenced how they interpreted and used knowledge about teaching.

Affective and evaluative loading refer to the powerful influence of feelings, and personal preferences that often operate independently of knowledge. For example, knowing how to use the internet differs significantly from feelings about using the internet. Whether an individual likes, dislikes, is bored by, or interested in the internet will make a difference about how one chooses to use it and evaluate its usefulness. Teachers' feelings, interests, and values about students, teaching, and subject matter can be "important regulators of the amount of energy teachers will put into activities" (Nespor, 1987, p. 320).

Episodic storage refers to the notion that beliefs are stored as "personal experiences, episodes, or events" (Nespor, 1987, p. 320), rather than the language related networks associated with the organization of knowledge systems. It is from these 'critical episodes' that, Nespor argues, beliefs derive their "subjective power, authority, and legitimacy" (p. 320). Teachers in Nespor's study explained that they vividly remembered, personal experiences gained earlier in their teaching careers, or as students themselves, that were important in their present practices. Nespor suggests that "such critical episodes are probably at the root of the fact that teachers learn a lot about teaching through their experiences as students" (p. 320).

Non-consensuality as an organizational characteristic of belief systems is a consequence of the four features described above. Because they include strong personal feelings, vivid personal experiences, unquestioned beliefs, and visions of an

ideal, belief systems often include inconsistent and contradictory ideas that are resistant to examination and evaluation.

Unboundedness means that “there are no clear logical rules for determining the relevance of beliefs to real-world events and situations” (Nespor, 1987, p. 321). In Nespor’s study, one teacher failed to change ineffective practices in the classroom, that resulted in unfinished lessons and frequent interruptions, due to her ideal vision of a friendly and relaxed atmosphere.

Nespor concludes that belief systems defy the rules of logical consistency that help to define knowledge systems. Whereas knowledge systems develop through reason and evidence, and are open to critical examination and evaluation, belief systems develop through personal experiences and affective loading and are basically unchanging. When beliefs do change, it is not through logic or reason but rather a “conversion or gestalt shift” (p. 321). According to Nespor, and others (Richardson, 1996; Lortie, 1975) beliefs are more influential than knowledge in determining how teachers approach teaching, learning, and subject matter.

Not all researchers agree. Roehler, Duffy, Herrman, Conley, and Johnson (1988) reported findings from studies on preservice teachers’ knowledge structures for teaching reading, as represented in ‘ordered trees.’ The ordered tree technique allowed teacher candidates to display concepts included in their knowledge structures that provided researchers with a picture of how those concepts were related. Based on findings from these studies, Roehler, et al. argued that due to differences in the static nature of beliefs and the fluid nature of knowledge, it is a teacher’s knowledge that is

most influential in responding to the constantly changing demands of each teaching situation. Whereas teachers' beliefs may evaluate the action, it is the way teachers organize their knowledge structures for teaching that is most influential in making moment by moment teaching decisions.

Knowledge for Teaching

Three large bodies of literature from different perspectives address the idea of acquiring a knowledge base for teaching. These include teacher development, teacher socialization, and teacher knowledge. Research in teacher development focuses on changes that occur over time in skills, knowledge, behaviors, beliefs, and job events (Burden, 1990). Teacher socialization research examines how beginning and preservice teachers become enculturated into the society of teachers. Research in teacher knowledge describes the kinds of knowledge teachers use when teaching.

Teacher Development

Teacher development research reports models of teacher development that may be useful in planning preservice programs that are designed to meet the needs of student teachers as they progress through the education program. Fuller and Bown (1975) describe a four-stage developmental model of teacher concerns for preservice teachers. The first stage, preteaching, occurs before student teaching and is referred to by Fuller and Bown as the fantasy stage, in which few concerns are expressed. Wienstein refers to this as an unrealistic optimism (1990). The second stage occurs early during the student teaching experience. Concerns focus on survival, classroom control, and mastery of subject matter. In the third stage, concerns center around the

student teachers' teaching performance, and the demands of the teaching situation. In the fourth stage, student teachers begin to become concerned about the individual, academic, and social needs of their students.

Berliner (1988) looked at expert-novice studies and used schema theory to infer a five-stage model of teachers' cognitive development: (1) novice, (2) advanced beginner, (3) competent, (4) proficient, and (5) expert. In his view, teachers do not reach the advanced beginner stage until the second or third year of teaching when the teacher's prior classroom experiences contribute to episodic knowledge which is used to guide behavior.

Kagan (1992) reviewed forty learning to teach studies that were published or presented between 1987 and 1991. Based on findings from these studies, Kagan concluded that the preservice and first year teaching experiences "may be regarded as a single developmental period" (p. 155). During this developmental period, novice teachers work to accomplish three primary teaching tasks: develop routines for management and instruction, modify and reconstruct images of self as teacher, and acquire knowledge of pupils.

Research reported by Sitter and Lanier (1982) supported the idea that commonalities of concerns were expressed by student teachers. However, their research suggests that the concerns about self, survival, teaching tasks, student learning, materials, and curriculum occurred simultaneously rather than sequentially. Grossman (1992) agrees. She found in her own studies of secondary English teachers,

that teachers struggled simultaneously with issues of management, instruction, and student learning.

Grossman (1992) argues that literature on learning to teach does not lead inexorably toward stage theories of teacher development. Studies of learning to teach that focus on subject-matter or ethical and moral issues suggest that technical, intellectual, and ethical concerns of novice teachers do not occur in predictable sequences. She found that prospective teachers thought deeply about subject-matter and goals for student learning well before they had established classroom routines.

Teacher Socialization

Teacher socialization research examines how beginning and preservice teachers become enculturated into the society of teachers. Lortie (1975) asserts that learning to teach differs from learning in other occupations due to the extended and continuous observation of teaching models that students experience while attending school. According to Lortie, "apprenticeship of observation," results in a simplified view of teachers' work and is more influential than teacher education programs in socializing new teachers into the profession.

White (1989) presents a different explanation for the limited impact of teacher education programs on the socialization of new teachers. She describes the transition from student to teacher in terms of a 'rites of passage' ritual which serves as a "powerful social mechanism that helps to impose a system of thought on an inherently untidy experience" (p. 191). White explains that student teachers in her study progressed through phases of separation, transition, and finally incorporation into the

world of teaching. She points out that during student teaching, “negotiations for different versions of reality do not take place among equally powerful participants and student teachers often feel lost and powerless” (p. 177). Thus, student teachers often conform to the views and practices of teaching that predominate in the context of their field experiences.

Lacy (1977) presents a view of the socialization of new teachers that attributes more sense of agency to the novice in the socialization process. He defines the process of socialization as “the development of sets of behaviors and perspectives by an individual as he confronts social situations” (p. 30). In a study of student teachers in England, Lacy found that the socialization process for student teachers was one in which there was a constant interplay between individual choice and situational constraints. Student teachers in his study used social strategies “to manipulate and change the situation while at the same time being constrained to adjust to it” (p. 95).

Britzman (1991) and Bullough, Knowles, and Crow (1992) also found that new teachers shaped their teaching environments at the same time they were being shaped by them. Though Britzman agrees with Lortie (1975) that student teachers bring their “institutional biographies” to teacher education, she disagrees that this informal preparation for teaching creates teachers that are unresponsive to the experiences involved in teacher education. In her ethnographic study of interns in secondary schools, Britzman attempted to understand, “what student teachers make happen because of what happens to them” (p. 56). She found that these novice teachers were active agents in their own socialization process.

Bullough, Knowles, and Crow (1992) came to similar conclusions. They conducted six case studies of first year teachers in an attempt to illuminate the early phase of socialization into the teaching profession. It was their purpose to “usefully and accurately portray the central role the beginning teacher plays in his/her own socialization” (p. 1). They found that “becoming a teacher is an idiosyncratic process reflecting not only differences in biography, personality, and in conceptions of teaching and how well or poorly they are developed, but also in school and school-community contexts” (p. 187). Three of the teachers who began with weak or contradictory perceptions of self as teacher did not progress through the survival stage of teaching. The other three teachers who progressed to the mastery stage of teaching, entered the profession with strong, yet flexible perceptions of self as teacher and were willing to work to reconstruct their teaching identities and shape teaching situations to make them more fitting.

There is agreement in the socialization literature that the extended time spent in classrooms, before teacher education begins influences student teachers’ perceptions of teachers and teaching. Disagreement centers on the nature and extent of that influence and the impact teacher education programs can have on the socialization of new teachers to the teaching profession.

Teacher Knowledge

In addition to the literature in teacher socialization and teacher development, an increasing amount of attention has been paid to knowledge bases needed for teaching and learning to teach. Fisher, Fox, and Paille (1996) contend, “the quest for a

knowledge base for teaching and teacher education in English language arts and reading represents one of the most controversial and critical issues in education today” (p. 419). To illustrate their point, they refer to the current discussion among members of the International Reading Association (IRA) and the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) about the new standards for the English language arts and reading.

Reviews concerning teachers’ knowledge (Calderhead, 1996; Carter, 1990) have organized the literature in this field in different ways. Calderhead (1996) organizes teachers’ knowledge into subject knowledge, craft knowledge, personal practical knowledge, case knowledge, and metaphors and images. Carter (1990) identifies three approaches to the study of teachers knowledge: information-processing, practical knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge.

Fisher, Fox, and Paille (1996) present several research-based models of teacher knowledge they feel are helpful in understanding what teachers need to know in order to teach (Elbaz, 1983; Shulman, 1987; Grossman, 1990). In a five-year case study, Elbaz (1983) examined the practical knowledge of Sarah, a beginning English teacher in a Canadian high-school. According to Elbaz, practical knowledge includes action-oriented decision-making that teachers do constantly in response to teaching situations. Elbaz found five categories that make up the practical knowledge teachers’ use when making instructional decisions: knowledge of self, knowledge of subject matter, knowledge of the milieu of teaching, knowledge of instruction, and knowledge of curriculum development.

Shulman (1987) offers seven categories for organizing the knowledge base needed for teaching: content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, knowledge of educational contexts, and knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values. Grossman (1990) condensed Shulman's seven categories of knowledge for teaching into four categories: subject matter knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge (knowledge of learners, learning, and classroom management), pedagogical content knowledge (ability to transform subject matter knowledge in a way that makes it accessible to learners), and knowledge of context (classroom, school, community). Grossman asserts that pedagogical content knowledge distinguishes between those who are experts in their subject and those who can teach it well, especially at the secondary level.

Grossman (1990) uses four central components to help define what she means by pedagogical content knowledge: conceptions about the purposes for teaching specific subject matter, ability to discern students existing knowledge (including misperceptions), curricular knowledge of materials and topics in and across grade levels, and knowledge of a "repertoire of teaching strategies."

More recently, Yinger and Hendricks-Lee (1993) suggest that knowledge of teaching has been narrowly focused on the individual when it may be more appropriate to look at the interactions of individuals with the contexts in which they teach. Brown, Collins, & Duguid (1989) offer the concept of situated cognition which emphasizes how knowledge becomes part of the activity, context, and culture in which it is

developed and used. These authors argue that knowing “is inextricably situated in the physical and social context of its acquisition and use” (p. 1).

It is clear from the literature on teachers’ knowledge that there are many ways of conceptualizing the knowledge base for teaching and learning to teach. Each of the different perspectives adds to an understanding that the knowledge base for teaching is complex, indiosyncratic, experiential, and situational (Carter, 1990). Fisher, Fox and Paille (1996) conclude that “knowledge about teaching English language arts and reading is at best tentative and will never be absolute or complete” (p. 420). They argue that due to the dynamic, reflective, and social nature of knowledge, an “absolute consensus on a knowledge base for teaching is highly unlikely and probably limiting, even paralyzing” (p. 420-421). Carter (1990) explains that existing research in teachers’ knowledge has been limited to describing the characteristics of the knowledge bases teachers have and use. She suggests that research into teachers’ knowledge for teaching would be enhanced by looking more closely at how that knowledge is acquired.

In summary, it appears that researchers in teacher education agree that both background knowledge and prior beliefs influence not only what teacher candidates learn, but also how they will teach. For this reason, there has been an increase in research that examines teacher candidates’ knowledge and beliefs during their participation in teacher education programs and into the first year of teaching. However, the disagreement among researchers on the relationship between knowledge and beliefs makes it difficult to separate the constructs into two distinct areas of study.

Researchers use terms such as orientations, perceptions, beliefs, personal theories, and practical knowledge almost interchangeably (Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1994). For the purpose of this review, studies examining new teachers' beliefs and knowledge are organized into one section using the terms as presented by the authors. For the purpose of the present study, this review is limited to studies related to teacher education in literacy.

Acquiring Knowledge and Beliefs for Classroom Teaching

Most of the research on beliefs and knowledge in teacher education in literacy has been done with student teachers. Student teachers in this review refer to preservice teachers who have completed a four-year teacher education program with a Bachelor's degree and generally one semester, or less, of classroom teaching experience. Interns are those preservice teachers who have completed a five-year teacher education program with a Master's degree and spend an entire school year in the K-12 classroom. Beisel (1997) found that due to the extended amount of time that interns spend in classrooms, they experienced preservice teaching somewhat differently than student teachers. Yet, because they worked in classrooms with a mentoring teacher, their experience was not exactly like first year teachers, either. Interns in Beisel's study experienced teaching somewhat like student teachers and somewhat like first year teachers. Since there have been few studies of interns, this review includes studies of student teachers and first year teachers along with interns.

Researchers in teacher education generally agree that preservice teachers acquire knowledge and beliefs for teaching from three sources: biography, course

work, and field experiences (Kagan, 1992; Britzman, 1991). Biography includes their personal experiences in families and schools before they entered teacher education programs. Course work refers to professional, teacher education courses. Field experiences include early field experiences where preservice teachers spend minimal amounts of time in classrooms in conjunction with teacher education course work, and the final field experience in which student teachers or intern teachers spend extended amounts of time in classrooms, after the majority of professional course work is completed.

Biography

Many researchers have reported the influence of preservice teachers' personal and educational biographies on learning to teach (Lortie, 1975; Nespor, 1987; Connelly & Clandinin, 1988; Britzman, 1991; Bullough, Knowles, & Crow, 1992; Grossman, 1990). Pajares (1992) sums up the importance of understanding the deep-rooted personal beliefs teacher candidates bring with them to their professional preparation programs: "Unexplored entering beliefs may be responsible for the perpetuation of antiquated and ineffectual practices" (p. 328). If teacher educators hope to influence preservice teachers' antiquated entering beliefs, they must first know what they are (Holt-Reynolds, 1991).

According to Holt-Reynolds (1991), who draws from schema theory (Rumelhart, 1980), principles of good instruction suggest that "when introducing students to new material, it is critical for teachers to link that new material with students' existing knowledge" (p. 1). She examined the personal history-based lay

theories that student teachers brought to their methods course in content area reading instruction. Holt-Reynolds defines lay theories as “tacit knowledge lying dormant and unexamined by the student” (1991, p. 2). She adds that these lay theories are developed over years of teaching/learning incidents in schools, homes, and communities.

In an effort to better understand the relationship between preservice teachers’ personal history-based beliefs and their instructional decisions, Holt-Reynolds (1991) interviewed nine preservice English teachers. She analyzed the practical arguments these student teachers gave for teaching decisions that seemed to violate the principles taught in their methods course. She found that personal lay histories were more influential than the instructor’s definitions of central concepts presented during course work. All nine student teachers provided clear and logical arguments for teaching decisions that were grounded in critical events they had experienced as students themselves. For example, the instructor of their methods course devalued lecturing as a teaching method on the grounds that listening to lectures was a passive activity for students. Student teachers agreed with the instructor on the importance of actively involving students in learning; however, they rejected his definition of lecture as passive. Because they had learned through lectures themselves, they defined lecture as an experience of “active listening” for students, thereby defending their decisions to use lecturing as a teaching strategy that actively involved students in learning. Based on the analysis of the practical arguments student teachers gave for the teaching decisions they made, Holt-Reynolds concluded that the knowledge and beliefs students brought with them to teacher education were not “quite valuable and helpful so much as

powerful and potentially dysfunctional as resources for learning the principles [teacher educators] hope to teach” (p. 2).

In another study of secondary English teachers, Grossman (1987) found that personal orientations and interests in subject matter influenced first year teachers’ selection of content, methods, and goals for teaching English. One teacher chose to teach English because she loved the subject matter, the words, and the text. Her focus in teaching centered on the text. Another teacher chose to teach English because she loved the human aspect of literature. She focused on what students could learn about themselves and others from the literature.

Moss (1992) also asserts that school experiences of preservice teachers “dramatically shape their views of what teaching, learning, and schooling is all about” (p. 29). Moss suggests that if teacher educators intend to influence preservice teachers’ beliefs about reading instruction it is important to examine their images of reading teachers’ work. Using an open-ended critical incident technique, Moss asked 150 undergraduate students in teacher education to think of and describe both positive and negative reading related experiences during their twelve years in school. Results were compared to a 1977 study of fourteen preservice teachers by Johns and Galens (as cited in Moss, 1992).

Moss found similarities in that participants in both studies reported positive and negative images of teachers centered around the way teachers related to students. Positive images of teachers were those in which teachers were confident and supportive of student abilities to meet high expectations. Negative images of teachers centered

around differential treatment of students by ability groups, humiliating students, rushing students, and getting angry at students for lack of ability. Both positive and negative memories of teacher behaviors had a profound effect on students' views of reading.

Despite these findings, Moss noted that in both studies, which were conducted 15 years apart, the practice of grouping readers into three ability groups for instruction remained unchanged. Duffy and Roehler (1986) suggest that classroom circumstances may be more influential than teachers' prior experiences and beliefs in determining how reading is taught. He argues that social, psychological, and environmental realities of classrooms and schools constrain the implementation of teachers' belief systems.

Kinzer (1988) examined the possibility that classroom realities mitigated teachers' beliefs in planning for instruction. He proposed that if contextual variables influenced teachers' practices, then preservice teachers, who had no classroom teaching experiences, would show more consistency between beliefs and instructional choices than would inservice teachers. Kinzer conducted a survey study that compared the beliefs and instructional choices of 83 preservice and 44 inservice teachers. Participants completed surveys designed to identify their beliefs about reading and chose lesson plans they felt would be most effective for teaching reading.

Results indicated there was little difference in beliefs between preservice and inservice teachers about how reading takes place and how reading develops. Both groups identified lesson plans that were consistent with their beliefs. Results suggest that beliefs are more influential than classroom realities in teacher planning. What the study does not address, however, is information concerning implementation of written

plans in the classroom. It may be that planning is consistent with beliefs and the methods teachers use to implement plans may be more influenced by classroom realities. A further examination of the influence of classroom context on teaching is addressed in the section of this review on field experiences.

In addition to understanding the role biography plays in learning to teach, another common question that interests teacher educators is the role of teacher education course work in the developing beliefs, knowledge, and subsequent practices of teacher candidates. The following section reviews studies that examine the influence of teacher education course work on the beliefs, knowledge, or practices of new teachers.

Course Work

Studies that examine the contribution of course work to the beliefs and knowledge of new teachers have had mixed results. Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981) cite studies that support three conflicting views of the relative influence of university course work on the developing teacher: liberalizing, conservative, and non-existent. Lortie (1975) argues that university course work has little impact on student teachers' beliefs and practices due to their extended apprenticeship of observation. Grossman (1991) argues that subject-specific, methods course work has the potential to overcome teachers' "apprenticeship of observation," and has a profound effect on what new teachers do in classrooms.

Grossman (1990) conducted six case studies of secondary English teachers during their first year of teaching. Three participants in this study entered teaching after

graduating from a teacher education program. The other three entered teaching as English majors and did not have any teacher education courses prior to teaching. The English methods course was designed to help preservice teachers construct models of teaching literature and writing that differed from the traditional models they observed in schools themselves. The instructor specifically addressed the students' apprenticeship of observation in an effort to reshape conceptions of English as a secondary-school subject.

Grossman found that the English methods courses worked to alter conceptions of teaching English for the three graduates. New conceptions of English influenced their choices of both what and how to teach English to high school students. The first year teachers who did not participate in subject-specific teacher education course work were more influenced by their apprenticeship of observation, as evidenced by the traditional methods they used to teach.

Stansell (1994) showed that although preservice teachers initially resist examining deeply held beliefs about teaching, learning, and subject matter due to "uneasiness with the task," many eventually do examine and revise their long-held assumptions. In a study of 100 students enrolled in his senior level reading methods course, Stansell examined the impact of an assignment that required students to research their own individual literacy histories. He found that as a result of this assignment, two-thirds of his students transformed earlier beliefs.

Craig, Bright, and Smith (1994) studied the influence of their constructivist approach to reading methods courses on student's schemata for teaching by analyzing

student response journals once a week. Based on journal responses from 106 undergraduate students in three separate courses, these researchers concluded that students developed new schemata for teaching by observing and becoming actively involved in methods that differed from the transmission model of English language arts they had experienced as students prior to the methods course.

Wiseman and Many (1992) found that the teaching approach used in teacher education courses influenced how students' responded to subject matter. Wiseman and Many examined the effects of different stances toward reading as they taught two sections of children's literature courses to elementary education majors. One group was taught using an efferent stance focusing on literary elements of four different genres; the other group was taught using an aesthetic stance focusing on connections of material to their own experiences, thoughts, and feelings the literature evoked. The different teaching approaches influenced how students viewed and responded to subsequent literary works. Students who were taught using an efferent approach responded to new literature by comparing it to other works, while those who were taught using an aesthetic approach responded to the personal significance of the literature.

In some cases, teacher educators and researchers followed students from participation in course work to observe their practices in classrooms. Andrews, Stansell, & Moss (1985) examined the effects of reading children's literature aloud to undergraduate students in their reading methods class. These researchers found that students who listened to children's literature as a part of their methods course work

were more inclined to use children's literature in their teaching than a group who had not listened. Modeling read-alouds increased students' familiarity with and appreciation of children's literature.

Lonberger (1992) found that her course on reading methods influenced preservice teachers' orientations, planning, and practices related to reading instruction. Thirty-seven elementary and special education majors enrolled in two sections of their introductory reading methods course responded, in writing, to the following open-ended questions at the beginning of the course and again at the end: (1) What is reading? (2) How do you believe young children learn to read? (3) How would you teach a young child to read? Instruction in the course focused on exploration of three basic models of the reading process: bottom-up, (text-based, skills-oriented), top-down (reader-based, focus on background knowledge), and interactive (use of both text-based skills and background knowledge). In the 18th week of the 20-week course, students were required to write a lesson plan for teaching word recognition in a primary grade classroom (grades 1-3) that was reflective of his or her beliefs.

Results of this study substantiated Gray's earlier claim (1984, as cited in Lonberger, 1992) that preservice teachers entered teacher education with traditional, text-based, skills-oriented views of reading based on their own experiences in reading instruction. Lonberger found that prior to course work, individuals held traditional views of reading, and their perceptions of the reading process and how reading developed were not consistent. At the end of course work, preservice teachers expressed interactive, and top-down beliefs about reading. At a campus lab school,

most planned and implemented lessons that were consistent with their beliefs.

These results contradict Gray's findings that preservice teachers leave course work with the same views about reading and reading instruction they had when they entered.

Hollingsworth (1989) investigated changes in preservice teachers' knowledge and beliefs about reading instruction as they progressed through a fifth-year, multiple level credential program in teacher education. She sought to understand program, personal, and contextual influences on 14 elementary and secondary preservice teachers as they attended reading courses and taught in school classrooms. Interview and observation data were collected during a nine-month graduate teacher education program. She found that "preprogram beliefs served as filters for processing program content and making sense of classroom contexts" (p. 168). When preprogram beliefs were similar to the constructivist learning theories presented, preservice teachers developed in-depth, comprehensive understandings that transferred to their reading instruction. When beliefs of preservice teachers differed from those presented in the program, application of constructivist principles was not apparent in their reading instruction.

Hollingsworth (1989) also found that preservice teachers rarely applied ideas or concepts from reading methods courses in their classrooms unless they were required to do so. To encourage deeper understanding and application of reading content, Hollingsworth recommends direct supervision and coaching of preservice teachers and communication of program expectations to cooperating teachers.

Results also indicated that these preservice teachers needed to have managerial and academic routines in place before they could focus on subject matter or student learning. Hollingsworth suggested that “the ultimate level of learning to teach in this study was task awareness or understanding students’ learning from text-related tasks” (p. 185). However, to get to this level of learning, preservice teachers had to reduce the complexities of organizing classroom instruction, which all of them did, initially, by modeling the cooperating teacher’s approach. According to Hollingsworth, the preservice teachers who continued to model their cooperating teachers appeared to limit knowledge growth. In contrast, preservice teachers who worked to gain support from supervisors and cooperating teachers, as they implemented ideas and practices that differed from their cooperating teachers’ attained higher levels of learning.

This view of knowledge growth in teaching challenges the notion that preservice teachers should be placed with cooperating teachers who have similar views and who model program philosophies. Hollingsworth argues that these “matched pairings” can work to hinder knowledge growth and promote rote copying. She asserts that in supportive environments, contrasting viewpoints between preservice and cooperating teacher can work to increase knowledge growth.

Although research and literature on writing and teaching writing has increased recently, only a small portion of that research has examined how prospective teachers learn to teach writing (Gomez, 1990). The National Writing Project (NWP) is the largest staff development initiative to address the need for teachers to learn more about teaching writing based on a process approach. Tenets of the NWP include the view that

writing is a recursive cycle of drafting, revising, editing, and publishing. The NWP supports the idea that teachers of writing should be writers themselves to more fully understand writers' struggles through the process. However, in a recent study of preservice teachers learning to teach writing, Gomez (1990) found that being a writer was not sufficient for teaching writing at the secondary level.

Based on a study of 31 interns, participating in a master's level certification program, Gomez (1991) concluded that although all participants found value and pleasure in writing themselves, their "passion for language and the experiences of being good writers and readers [was] not sufficient to meet the challenges of teaching writing to a diverse group of secondary school learners" (p. 1). Gomez examined interns' beliefs about writing instruction during an English methods course and on into student teaching. He found that by the end of their teaching experience, interns' beliefs about teaching, learning, and subject matter changed in two ways. First, the focus of interns' concerns moved from deficits in subject matter to matters of discipline and classroom control. Second, their idealistic beliefs about the ability of all learners to benefit from a process writing approach changed to an acceptance of the need for tracking students into ability groups for differentiated instruction.

Shrofel (1991) found that secondary teacher candidates came to the composition methods class with preexisting ideas of writing that needed to be reshaped to reflect current knowledge in the field. She tried three different approaches to course work to influence preservice teachers to implement process writing during their field experiences. The first approach consisted of presenting current information and

involvement of students in creative writing. The second approach involved students in process writing using a writers workshop approach. The third approach added a tutoring component and weekly seminar discussion to address what was learned about writing, teaching writing, and the tutor as writer. Only the third approach resulted in student teachers' implementing a process approach to writing during their field experiences. Shrofel concluded that confrontation with oneself as a writer, teacher, learner, and person was instrumental in changing perceptions and implementing process writing.

Florio-Ruane and Lensmire (1990) were also concerned about the conceptions of writing and writing instruction that future teachers brought to the methods courses which reflected status-quo, rather than state of the art teaching practices. They conducted case studies of six juniors who were beginning the language arts/reading/literature sequence of their methods course work in elementary teacher education. These researchers sought to determine if the methods used in their course, which required students to participate in a collaborative, process approach to writing, would transform future teachers' preconceptions about writing instruction. These researchers attempted to track growth and change in teacher candidates' understandings by collecting and analyzing several kinds of data. Results indicated that student teachers were resistant to ideas that altered their view of the teacher's role in maintaining predictability and control in the classroom. Preconceptions that students willingly changed were their ideas of how children make sense of their writing. Florio-Ruane and Lensmire suggested that focusing on the child as learner "did not directly

threaten [future teachers'] sense of themselves as teachers yet altered fundamentally their behavior as teachers" (p. 287). Whereas challenging students' deeply held beliefs about teaching at precisely the time they needed to draw on those beliefs to assume the role of teacher met with discomfort, criticism, and resistance to change.

The studies cited above suggest that course work does have the potential to influence students' beliefs and knowledge about literacy and literacy instruction. Several conclusions about the role of course work in the professional development of teacher candidates can be drawn from the results of the studies reported here. Teacher candidates who had opportunities to examine, articulate, and reflect on their personal beliefs about teaching, learning, and subject matter transformed some of their beliefs. However, some preprogram beliefs were more resistant to change than others. When preprogram beliefs were similar to those taught in teacher education courses, they were incorporated into classroom practices. When preprogram beliefs differed from what was taught during course work, or when new ideas threatened deeply held beliefs about the teacher's role in the classroom, they were not incorporated into classroom practices.

The teaching approaches used during course work make a difference. Modeling of desired practices by teacher educators had some influence on the practices of preservice teachers. Teaching candidates who had opportunities to observe and participate in models of instruction that differed from the traditional, transmission model increased their knowledge of a variety of teaching methods.

Opportunities and requirements for student teachers to apply course content to their work with students influenced their practices. Classroom realities mitigated preservice teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and practices in some cases. But with the encouragement and support of university supervisors and cooperating teachers, preservice teachers were able to develop practices based on their knowledge and beliefs.

Field Experiences

Thirty years ago, Jackson (1968) pointed out that researchers who do not spend time in classrooms are missing the social realities of classroom life. Since the time of his study of "life in classrooms," there has been an increase in qualitative research reporting descriptive case studies of the experiences of inservice and preservice teachers in the context of their classrooms. Using data from observations, interviews, and documents, researchers have begun to answer some questions about what the field experience portion of teacher education contributes to the professional development of preservice teachers. The following section of this review focuses on the literature and research related to the field experiences of preservice teachers.

The capstone and final portion of teacher education programs is the field experience student teaching, or intern teaching where the preservice teacher spends an extended amount of time in classrooms working with students and a cooperating or mentoring teacher. Most preservice teachers believe the field experience is the most valuable part of their teacher education program providing the only "real learning" for becoming a teacher (Britzman, 1991; Johnston, 1994). "This universal popularity and

acceptance of field experiences has persuaded many teacher educators and state legislators to support overwhelmingly recommendations to increase the number and length of field experiences for preservice teachers” (McIntyre, Byrd, & Foxx, 1996).

The Holmes Group (1986), and more recently, the National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future (1996) have recommended extended, graduate-level teacher preparation programs that provide a year-long internship. Based on these recommendations, several universities across America, have restructured their teacher education programs to include a five-year, graduate certification program where field experiences occur in a year-long internship. However, the most common format for teacher education continues to be the four-year, undergraduate program in which student teaching occurs during the last quarter or semester of formal teacher preparation (Wong & Osguthorpe, 1993).

A few researchers have reported positive effects of an extended field experience for preservice teachers. Andrew (1990) reported that five-year graduates viewed their teacher preparation programs more positively than did four-year graduates. They also were more positive about teaching as a career and more confident in their teaching abilities. Thomson, Beacham, and Misulis (1992) found that graduates of an extended program valued their time in the field and developed greater confidence and self-esteem.

Most educators would agree that the field experience “is a significant occasion for acquiring new knowledge, skills and dispositions” for teaching (Zeichner, 1986, p. 12). However, Zeichner adds, we still have no clear understanding of how that

experience contributes to learning to teach. Not all researchers agree that extending the amount of time preservice teachers spend in classrooms will result in the improvements desired by reformers in education. Guyton and McIntyre (1990) argue that "available research ... does not present the school context as a positive influence on student teacher development" (p. 518). Sedlak (1987) believes that the common format of limiting the preservice teacher to one school, one classroom, and one teacher, increases the likelihood that preservice teachers will imitate their cooperating teachers. Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981) report several studies that suggest the liberalizing effect of teacher education course work may be "washed out" during field experiences, suggesting that preservice teachers adopt more traditional, conservative practices as their time in the field increases. McIntyre, Byrd, and Fox (1996) conclude that "Although there remains a great need for additional research in this area, it appears that what occurs during the field experience is more important than the length of that experience" (p. 176).

In their review of the current state of field experience research, McIntyre, Byrd, and Foxx (1996) contend that research efforts in this area fall short of answering important questions about the contribution of field experiences to learning to teach. They agree with Guyton and McIntyre (1990) who advocate more naturalistic studies in classrooms to "generate descriptions, understanding, and explanation of the processes of student teaching" (p. 530).

Though researchers in teacher education have begun to use more naturalistic methods to better understand the role of field experiences in learning to teach, few

studies focus specifically on literacy teaching. Therefore, this section includes qualitative studies of preservice teaching in general, as well as studies that focus on field experiences in literacy.

Johnston (1994) examined the assumption that classroom experience is the best teacher of teachers in a qualitative study in which she explored the process of learning to teach from the perspective of eight student teachers in the last stage of student teaching in primary grade classrooms. Using interview and observation data, Johnston focused on student teachers' development of personal, practical knowledge (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988; Elbaz, 1983). She found that student teachers "held a range of perceptions about the processes of learning to teach" (p. 204). Common themes across the eight participants were modeling and adapting the supervising teachers' strategies, trial and error learning while doing, and developing routines. Johnston used a banking metaphor to describe how student teachers gained knowledge from classroom experiences. She saw student teachers as attempting to build a repertoire of teaching experiences to file away, or "build up a healthy credit balance" (p. 204) to be drawn upon in times of need. Due to the evaluative component of student teaching, trial and error learning presented difficulties which constrained student teachers from experimenting with their teaching.

In contrast to the popular belief that student teachers view the field experience as the most valuable part of their teacher education program, Johnston found that some student teachers "doubted they were learning much from their time in the school setting" (p. 204). All eight student teachers perceived that "constraints placed on them

during the practicum hampered their development as teachers” (p. 204). Much of their time in the classroom was not perceived as learning because the student teachers did not have the freedom to work independently, use innovative approaches, and create materials and resources that conformed to their image of what teaching should be. Student teachers recognized that they had entered a classroom where the cooperating teacher established the routines and so they felt uncomfortable suggesting changes. The “dilemma between the desire to learn through teaching as they wanted to teach and the need to conform to the established classroom routine” (p. 205) was a source of disappointment for these student teachers. Student teachers’ responses to the perceived artificial nature of their practicum was to detach from the experience and diminish its value in their process of learning.

Johnston concludes that experience alone is not enough. She agrees with Britzman (1991) that it is “the capacity to bestow experience with meanings, be reflective, and take action” (p. 34) that allow individuals to learn from their experiences.

Padak and Nelson (1990) conducted in-depth case studies of two elementary preservice teachers as they progressed through four, 8-week field experiences. The first two field experiences occurred in conjunction with methods courses emphasizing whole language principles and practices of literacy instruction. The second two field experiences involved full time student teaching. Literacy practices at the school where the field experiences took place were more conventional, skills-based, than holistic. Results indicated that for both participants, “the process of becoming teachers of

literacy involved weighing the value and logic of what they had learned about literacy instruction against their cooperating teachers' beliefs and practices" (p. 105).

Difficulties arose as participants attempted to negotiate differences between beliefs and knowledge and what they were asked to do.

Contextual factors that influenced instructional decision-making for these participants included incongruence between preservice and cooperating teachers' beliefs and practices, types of literacy materials available, and lack of communication about expectations. Padak and Nelson point out that in spite of contextual restraints, both preservice teachers progressed from less confidence which resulted in doing what cooperating teachers asked them to do, to more confidence and implementation of their own ideas.

A well-documented dilemma of student teachers is what Feiman-Nemser and Buchman (1985) call the "two-worlds pitfall," in which the student teacher is "marginally situated in two worlds" (Britzman, 199, p. 13), part teacher, part student. The two worlds, often present conflicting views of subject matter, teaching and education, which influence classroom practices. Fox (1993) focused on the perspectives and practices of two secondary student teachers as they progressed from English major, to English teacher. She found the student teachers defined English differently, yet each was "blocked" in attempts to enact his definition in secondary classrooms. Fox concludes that a number of different cultures within the educational system presented conflicting views and expectations of teaching, learning, and subject matter that had a more powerful influence on how these student teachers chose to

teach than did their definitions of English. Fox suggests that student teachers need more opportunities to develop and articulate their own conceptions of teaching, learning, and subject matter before student teaching. And they need regular opportunities to talk in a supportive environment during student teaching to sort out how the context, community, and culture impacts what they are trying to do.

One way researchers have approached an understanding of teacher development is to compare the decision-making of expert and novice teachers. Research comparing expert-novice teachers has found that experts and novices differ in how they perceive classroom events and how they respond to them (Calderhead, 1983). Experts have more elaborate schemas for teaching which allow them to respond to the complexities of the classroom in more meaningful ways (Clark & Peterson, 1986). Expert teachers attend to a larger number of instructional goals and use a variety of teaching strategies to respond to student cues while teaching (Fogarty, Wang, & Creek, (1983).

Westerman (1991) compared the thinking and decision-making of five student teachers with that of their cooperating teachers in a suburban elementary school. Using interviews, observations, self-reports, and analysis of relevant printed materials, Westerman examined expert-novice decision-making before, during, and after instruction. She found important differences in thinking and decision-making between the expert and novice teachers. Expert teachers integrated knowledge of the curriculum, with knowledge of learners to plan lessons based on students' prior learning experiences and existing knowledge and abilities. Novice teachers limited planning to lessons based on "the curriculum objectives for their grade as prescribed by

the county public school system” (p. 296). During teaching, expert teachers spent more time reviewing relevant information to help students understand the relationship between new information and prior knowledge. Novice teachers began with statements of the prescribed objectives but failed to recall students’ prior knowledge about the topic.

Westerman also found differences in the way student teachers and cooperating teachers responded to student behavior. Expert teachers responded to student cues of off-task behavior by adjusting their teaching to directly involve the student in the lesson. Novice teachers ignored off-task behavior until it became disruptive and then punished the student for interrupting teaching.

Westerman suggests that for expert teachers, the three stages of decision making—before, during, and after teaching—were highly related. Experts form an “image or a mental representation of the lessons they plan that includes their goals” (p. 298). They plan, teach, evaluate, and adjust their teaching simultaneously in response to student cues. For novices, the three stages of decision-making were not connected. They planned, then they taught, sticking closely to plans, and afterward they evaluated what happened. “The novices seemed determined to carry out their plans, sometimes in spite of anything that happened during the lesson” (p. 299). After teaching, experts evaluated their lessons based on how well they perceived they met their student’s needs. Novices evaluated their lessons base on how well they met the prescribed objectives and how well the students behaved.

Results of this study suggest that the thinking of novice teachers is qualitatively different than the thinking of expert teachers. Westerman concludes, "The major developmental difference between expert and novice teachers is the way they use pedagogical and content knowledge" (p. 302). She proposes a need for longitudinal studies, using qualitative techniques to further explore how teachers acquire expertise in teaching.

One of the contributions of qualitative research designs to teacher education has been the ability of researchers to study preservice teachers in the context of the classrooms where they are learning to apply their knowledge and beliefs to the practice of teaching. Researchers who observe in classrooms are faced with a myriad of contextual variables that influence learning to teach. Much has been written about the contextual constraints or influences that student teachers and inservice teachers confront in classrooms. In a study of kindergarten teachers, Durkin (1987) explained that contextual constraints can both hinder and help professional growth. Preservice teachers learn to teach within the same contextual constraints described in classroom-based studies of inservice teachers (Duffy & Roehler, 1986; Durkin, 1987). In classroom-based studies of reading instruction in 42 kindergarten classes, Durkin found that it was the identification of constraints under which teachers worked that helped to explain their teaching practices. Durkin (1991) defines constraints as "factors or forces that affect what teachers do or do not do in classroom" (p. 232).

In Durkin's view, constraints can function in both positive and negative ways by preventing teachers from engaging in both desirable and undesirable behaviors. She

describes internal and external constraints that influence how teachers teach. Internal constraints originate within the individual and are derived from their knowledge and beliefs, ability, and motivation for teaching. External constraints include the expectations that originate outside of the individual such as those expressed by administrators, peer teachers, parents, and students, and state and system policies.

Tabachnick and Zeichner (1984) combined qualitative and quantitative methods to determine “the degree to which both individual and institutional factors contribute to the development of perspectives during student teaching” (p. 30). Observation and interview data of 13 elementary preservice teachers, during 15 weeks of student teaching indicated student teaching did not alter the substance of their teaching perspectives. However, student teachers did become more articulate in expressing perspectives and more skillful in implementing them. In addition, student teachers developed more realistic perceptions of teaching as a profession and grew in confidence in their abilities to teach. Institutional factors did not predetermine the practices of these student teachers, rather these researchers found a continual interplay between individual intention and institutional constraints. Results of this study argue against the passive response to institutional constraints suggested by others (Durkin, 1987, Duffy & Roehler, 1986).

Richards, Gipe, & Moore, (1995) examined the contextual influences of an urban elementary school on the development of preservice teachers in reading/language arts instruction. They found that feelings of apprehension for preservice teachers escalated during the first part of student teaching and group management concerns

were a priority. Over the course of the semester, most of the student teachers constructed understandings of effective literacy instruction and developed confidence about their ability to teach at-risk, multi-cultural, urban students. These results indicate that contextual restraints were more salient at the beginning of the field experience, but they did not prevent student teachers from implementing literacy practices they learned about in their reading/language arts methods courses.

In summary, studies reviewed here suggest there is disagreement among teacher educators and researchers about the nature and extent of the role of field experiences in learning to teach. Some argue that longer field experiences are more beneficial (Andrew, 1990; Thomson, Beacham, & Misulis, 1992), while others suggest it is the quality of the experience, not the length, that makes a difference (McIntyre, Byrd, & Foxx, 1996). Some argue that the impact of field experiences on preservice teachers' knowledge and beliefs about teaching is minimal or non-existent (Lortie, 1975), while others provide evidence that field experiences do influence both knowledge and beliefs about teaching, learning, and subject matter (Grossman, 1992). Hollingsworth (1989) argues against commonly held assumptions that student teachers should be placed in classrooms with cooperating teachers who model practices and views that are consistent with what teacher candidates have learned in teacher education course work. Hollingsworth asserts that cognitive dissonance between student teachers and their mentoring teachers in a supportive environment, increases knowledge growth for novice teachers. Similarities across studies suggest that preservice teachers are influenced in both positive and negative ways by the varied contexts, cultures, and

communities in which they strive to apply knowledge and beliefs to classroom practices.

Chapter Summary

Current literature related to changing perspectives in literacy teaching suggests a transition from behaviorist, to constructivist, to social constructivist approaches. Research in literacy education reflects that transition by moving from a focus on observable behaviors, to examining teacher thinking and planning, to understanding the experiences of teachers in the classroom context. Current research also looks at how teachers acquire knowledge for teaching and how beliefs from their socio-cultural experiences influences teaching and learning to teach.

There is disagreement in the literature about the nature and relationship of teacher candidates' knowledge and beliefs about subject matter, teaching and learning. Researchers agree that both constructs influence what teacher candidates learn, and how they teach. To better understand the professional preparation and practices of preservice teachers, the literature suggests examining both knowledge and beliefs.

Researchers in teacher education generally agree that preservice teachers acquire knowledge and beliefs for teaching from three sources: biography, teacher education course work, and field experiences. There is disagreement in the literature about the degree of influence each of these sources has on preservice teachers as they learn to teach. The final chapter of the present study attempts to make sense of the research findings by relating them to the body of research and literature reported here.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to better understand the experiences of interns as they engaged in literacy instruction during the second semester of the year-long internship. A naturalistic design based on the constructivist principles of Lincoln and Guba (1985) was selected as the most appropriate research method for gaining understanding in the natural contexts of interns' classrooms. In an interview question about the relationship between naturalistic inquiry and constructivism, Egon Guba answered, "They're the same thing, just renamed" (Beld, 1994, p. 100). He further explained that the name change was necessary due to some of the implications of the word 'naturalism,' which seemed to create confusion among researchers who wished to use a naturalistic research design. Guba added, "The word constructivism came to mind because we kept talking about constructions" (1994, p. 100). Constructivism as used by Lincoln and Guba (1994) refers to the assumption that reality is individually and socially constructed as individuals interact in their environment.

The naturalistic design of the present study included interviews, classroom observations, and document examination. Three interns, who were completing the second semester of their year-long internship, constituted the participants for this study. They participated in two group interviews: one in February, near the beginning of the study and one in May, near the end of the study. Each intern also participated in an individual in-depth interview in February and an individual exit interview in May. I

observed in interns' classrooms from January to May. Two interns were observed on ten separate occasions; one intern was observed eleven times. I followed observations with reflective interviews to gain insight into interns' thinking. I collected documents such as lesson plans, teacher's guides, and worksheets that were used while I was observing. I also obtained a copy of each intern's action research paper, and I read their professional portfolios.

A naturalistic research design was selected because my research purpose was to understand the meanings interns' ascribed to their everyday experiences. Understanding the meanings that people ascribe to their experiences as they construct their realities in social contexts is the goal of naturalistic research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The qualitative methodology associated with naturalistic inquiry allows the researcher to be responsive to what is occurring in the social situation and to ask questions that will help with understanding the deeper meanings that guide participants' behavior.

An important consideration in the selection of a naturalistic research design was Lincoln and Guba's (1985) five basic axioms that undergird naturalistic research. Their five axioms are consistent with my theoretical assumptions regarding the nature of the social world and the nature of research. These five assumptions (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) and their implications for the selection of a qualitative research paradigm are discussed below.

Assumptions

1. There exist multiple realities that are individually and socially constructed and are ever changing. Qualitative methods for collecting data were used to better

understand the multiple realities of each intern's experience teaching literacy during the year-long internship. For example, observations occurred in the natural settings of each intern's classroom to gather information about her everyday life in that context, as she experienced them. Interviews were conducted to better understand the meanings each intern ascribed to her experiences. Documents were collected in order to gain deeper insights into the interns' perceptions of literacy and literacy instruction.

2. Researcher and researched interact so that both influence the construction of meaning that is represented by the researcher. Wolcott (1995) suggests building close relationships with participants in order to establish trust and rapport. For this study, I purposefully selected participants with whom I had spent several months building relationships and establishing rapport. Meaning construction was negotiated through semi-structured qualitative interviews with opportunities for participants to read and respond to all data collected.
3. Generalizations are replaced by transferability, the "fittingness" of similarities between two contexts. It is the goal of qualitative research to look for both similarities and differences among experiences. Spradley (1980) recommends the use of a recursive process of inductive and deductive analysis to look for patterns of similarities that can be related as common themes. Due to the dynamic nature of reality, Lincoln and Guba (1985) point out that findings must be reported as working hypotheses and that the possibility of applying findings across contexts depends on the degree of fit between contexts. In presenting data and findings for this study, I

have provided a thick, descriptive account of the contexts and experiences of each intern so that the reader may determine the degree of transferability.

4. Causality is not inferred because all entities are in a state of simultaneous mutual shaping in which all variables act and interact to influence each other. Popkewitz (1984) writes that research into the social world must take into account the complexity found there. Multiple sources of data collection have been employed in this study to capture the complex experiences of interns in the social world of the classroom. Findings are descriptive in nature to allow for the multiple factors that influenced interns' perceptions of their experiences.
5. Researchers' values influence the choice of research questions, theoretical framework, methodology, and findings. It is understood that my values influence every aspect of the research study reported here. My choice of research topic stems from past experiences, current interests, and future aspirations. Past experiences as a first grade teacher led me to value a holistic, integrated approach to teaching literacy. My position as an intern supervisor raised many questions about the nature of the internship experience for interns. And future aspirations of becoming a teacher educator in the field of literacy education determined the focus on literacy instruction. The value of the present study will be determined by the reader based on its contribution to the field of teacher education in literacy, applicability to similar contexts, and the criteria for trustworthiness established by Lincoln and Guba (1985).

With thoughtful consideration of these five axioms and their implications for research, I have selected a naturalistic research design to better understand interns'

have provided a thick, descriptive account of the contexts and experiences of each intern so that the reader may determine the degree of transferability.

4. Causality is not inferred because all entities are in a state of simultaneous mutual shaping in which all variables act and interact to influence each other. Popkewitz (1984) writes that research into the social world must take into account the complexity found there. Multiple sources of data collection have been employed in this study to capture the complex experiences of interns in the social world of the classroom. Findings are descriptive in nature to allow for the multiple factors that influenced interns' perceptions of their experiences.
5. Researchers' values influence the choice of research questions, theoretical framework, methodology, and findings. It is understood that my values influence every aspect of the research study reported here. My choice of research topic stems from past experiences, current interests, and future aspirations. Past experiences as a first grade teacher led me to value a holistic, integrated approach to teaching literacy. My position as an intern supervisor raised many questions about the nature of the internship experience for interns. And future aspirations of becoming a teacher educator in the field of literacy education determined the focus on literacy instruction. The value of the present study will be determined by the reader based on its contribution to the field of teacher education in literacy, applicability to similar contexts, and the criteria for trustworthiness established by Lincoln and Guba (1985).

With thoughtful consideration of these five axioms and their implications for research, I have selected a naturalistic research design to better understand interns'

experiences from their perspective. The remainder of this chapter discusses, in detail, the selection of participants, methods of data collection and analysis, and assurance of trustworthiness.

Selection of Participants

I used purposive sampling to select participants for this study as recommended by Lincoln and Guba (1985). My purpose was to better understand the interns' experiences as they engaged in literacy instruction during the second semester of the professional year internship. In order to gain understanding from the participants' perspectives, Wolcott (1995) suggests developing relationships with them. My reason for choosing to study this particular group of interns was a result of my prior relationship with them as a graduate assistant during their first semester of the year long internship. I spent five months before the study getting to know the interns, the staff, and the culture of Lakeland Elementary School in an effort to develop the kind of relationships that would allow me to gain access to an insider's view (Wolcott, 1995).

In my role as graduate assistant, I taught the language and literacy portion of the Elementary Teaching Methods course that interns were required to take during the Fall, 1996 semester. I also observed in the interns' classrooms, took fieldnotes, posed questions, and participated in reflective conversations about the observations. In this role as preservice teacher educator there is precedent for studying the teacher candidates with whom I worked established by other teacher educators who have conducted research studies involving their preservice students.

Several teacher educators have conducted research studies involving their own teacher education students as a way to gather information that will help them improve teacher preparation programs. Bullough, Knowles, and Crow (1992) studied six of their former preservice students during the first year of teaching to “see how some of their former students fared as teachers” (preface). Stansell (1994) studied the effects of an assignment in his literacy course on the students who were required to take the course as a part of their teacher education program. Craig, Bright, & Smith (1994) studied the influence of their constructivist approach to reading methods courses on their students’ schemata for teaching.

The issue of power and authority is one which must be addressed in all research endeavors. With sensitivity to this issue and in anticipation of the present research study, I collaborated with the supervising professor with whom I worked in an effort to minimize, from the outset, the issue of power and authority that existed between myself and the interns. Interns were aware that I was a graduate student teaching my first course in teacher education. In our first class meeting, I related my experience of learning to teach the methods course to their experiences of learning to teach in their settings. At no time, was I in a position of evaluating interns. The university supervising professor assumed responsibility for evaluation of course work and evaluation of classroom teaching. The purpose of my classroom observation notes, as explained to interns, was to offer insights and provide opportunities for reflection about their teaching. As observer in the classroom, I assumed the position of coach rather than supervisor (Anderson, et al., 1990) and the nonevaluative nature of the fieldnotes

reflected that position. The classroom observations may have also worked to desensitize interns to my presence in the room over time (Graue & Walsh, 1996).

Other aspects of the research design were also intended to balance the power between researcher and researched. One was to include two group interviews as a part of the research design. Graue and Walsh (1996), in their research with children, suggest a group format to minimize the power of the researcher, capitalize on interactions between participants, and allow the researcher to discover important questions. Another method for balancing power between researcher and researched is voluntary participation. Interns were aware that participation in the research study was voluntary. Participation in the research was not a part of the internship requirements. Interns who agreed to participate could withdraw from the study without penalty, and they could refuse observations or interviews at any time that was not comfortable or convenient for them.

Five interns were teaching at the school. Two interns from first grade classrooms and two interns from fourth grade classrooms agreed to participate in this study. After data collection was underway, one first-grade intern decided to withdraw from the study. Her reasons, expressed in an exit interview, were a mixture of personal and professional concerns. She said that attempts to juggle the personal, the professional, and the social aspects of her life "consumed all of her time and energy." She felt like she was "giving all of herself to everybody else and having nothing left for her own health." Participation in this research study was an added stress for her and she decided to withdraw. The remaining three interns, constituted the participants for this study. Each intern selected

the first name pseudonym, I added last names. I also selected pseudonyms for mentoring teachers, the name of the school, and the town.

A general description of each participant and her placement at Lakeland Elementary School is provided here. In addition, vignettes of participants are included in the following chapter which describe each intern and her classroom in more detail to help the reader become better acquainted with them.

Description of Participants

All three interns are Euro-American women, from Tennessee. All three graduated from the same large university in east Tennessee with Bachelors degrees in Liberal Arts. Their participation in the year-long internship was a part of the requirements of an extended, five-year, graduate program in teacher education for licensure in elementary education. All three interns spent thirty weeks in a primary placement in one classroom at the same elementary school in Lakeland, a small town approximately 20 miles from a larger city in east Tennessee. They also spent the second six weeks of the school year in a secondary placement in another grade. During the Fall semester of the year-long field experience, interns spent a minimum of four hours each day in their primary or secondary placement classrooms and completed eight hours of professional course work. During the Spring semester of the year-long field experience, interns spent full days in their primary placement classrooms and completed four hours of professional course work. After additional study in the summer, each of the three interns graduated with a Masters Degree in Education.

Abby Adams

Abby Adams, 23, a single mother of a four-year-old boy, spent her primary placement in a fourth-grade classroom with Sheila Burns as her mentoring teacher. Abby described Sheila's teaching style as "traditional." As a secondary placement, Abby spent six weeks in a first-grade classroom at Lakeland. She sought licensure in grades 1-8, stating she didn't really have a preference for what grade she would eventually teach.

There were 12 girls and 13 boys from mostly low-socioeconomic, rural backgrounds in her class. All but one student were Euro-American. One girl was Mexican-American and spoke very little English.

Holly Raines

Holly Raines, a single, 24-year-old woman, spent thirty weeks in a first-grade classroom with Lisa Gates as her mentoring teacher. Holly described Ms. Gates' teaching style as basically skills-oriented. Holly's secondary placement was in a kindergarten classroom because she was seeking licensure in grades K-8. Because of her interest in emergent literacy, Holly hoped to eventually get a teaching position in kindergarten, first, or second grade.

There were ten girls and seven boys in Holly's first-grade classroom. Most of her students came from low-socioeconomic, rural backgrounds. One boy was African-American; the rest of the students were Euro-American.

Josie Mills

Josie Mills, a married, 21-year-old woman, spent her primary placement in a fourth-grade classroom, two doors down from Abby's fourth-grade classroom. Martha

Paris was Josie's mentoring teacher in fourth grade. Josie described Martha's teaching style as "progressive." Because of her interest in teaching middle school, Josie left Lakeland Elementary School for a secondary placement in a seventh-grade classroom at Lakeland Middle School. She sought licensure in teaching grades 1-8, but expressed a desire to teach in middle school.

Her fourth-grade class consisted of 25 students; ten boys and 15 girls. All were from Euro-American backgrounds except for a girl and a boy who were both Mexican American. The girl spoke fluent English and often translated for the boy, who spoke little English.

Data Collection

I chose to collect data through interviews, observations, and document examination in order to have several sources of information that would add to an understanding of how interns experienced literacy instruction during the second semester of the year-long internship. Group interviews helped me to discover important questions. Spending time in the school and observing in the interns' classrooms helped me to better know the context in which they were learning to teach. Interviews, following observations, helped me to gain insight into what interns were thinking. Document examination added to the developing picture of what the experience was like for interns.

Multiple techniques for gathering data were used to increase understanding of interns' experiences in their classrooms and for triangulation of the data. Zimpher and Howey (1990) believe that to better understand the complex problems of teacher education, researchers need to delve more deeply into the experiences of student

teachers as they practice. Tisher & Wideen (1990) suggest that for research to contribute more to our conceptualization of teacher education, more information about how the process unfolds for preservice teachers in the context of their teaching is needed.

Alvermann (1990) calls for more naturalistic studies in the classroom to better understand the particular problems of teacher education in reading.

Blumer (1969) suggests using a variety of procedures for data collection that will offer a "likely possibility of getting a clearer picture of what is going on" (p. 41). He includes observations, interviews, conversations, group discussions, documents, and records and believes that each procedure should "be adapted to its circumstances and guided by its propriety and fruitfulness" (p. 41). Multiple techniques for gathering data to increase the trustworthiness of the study are recommended by Lincoln & Guba (1985).

Participant Observation

Participant observation in naturalistic inquiry involves long-term participation and observation of the context where the social phenomena under study occurs. The researcher collects data by observing and taking fieldnotes, examining documents, and reflecting analytically to determine focuses for subsequent observations (Erickson, 1986). Types of participation can range on a continuum from nonparticipation to full participation depending on the involvement of the researcher with the people and the activities in the setting (Spradley, 1980). My degree of involvement with the people and the activities increased with time in the field. I began as a passive observer, in which I entered the room, found an observation post, and interacted as little as possible with the

people in the setting while taking fieldnotes. As people in the setting became accustomed to my presence, my participation grew to a moderate level. By moderate level, I mean that there was more interaction between me, the interns, the mentoring teachers, and the students during the observations. I moved around the classroom freely for closer examination of something I found to be particularly interesting or relevant to the purpose of the study. And, at times, I became involved in helping individual students, or groups of students with the tasks they were doing.

Observations began in January, 1997 and continued for five months, ending in May 1997. There were three separate phases for gaining entry into each classroom. Phase I included two observations scheduled by the interns. Phase II involved observations I scheduled. And Phase III consisted of unannounced observations. A full day observation was also scheduled for each intern. Interns and I scheduled the full day observation together. My plan was to sample as many time periods and days of the week as possible during the five months of the study. Appendix A includes a schedule of observations for each intern.

Phase I

Each intern scheduled the first two observations at times when she planned to be engaged in some form of literacy instruction. It was important for the purpose of this study, that interns determined what they considered to be literacy instruction. I believed I might gain insight into their perceptions about literacy and literacy instruction by noting what kinds of activities they included in their first two observations. Involving interns in

the decision-making about when I could observe in their classrooms helped to develop rapport and balance the power in our relationship.

After each observation, I typed up and filled in fieldnotes and wrote down reflections about the observation. While typing, I kept analytical notes on a separate piece of notebook paper. The purpose of the analytical notes was to record recurring events, similarities among the three interns, differences between them, questions that arose, topics of interest, and ideas for focusing subsequent observations. When done typing, I reread fieldnotes, added to analytical notes, if necessary, and prepared interview questions about the observations.

Copies of all typed fieldnotes were given to the interns for member checking (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This gave interns a chance to read and respond. Interns were invited to clarify and correct any aspects of the notes that may have been inaccurate.

Phase II

After the first two observations, I negotiated with interns to observe on specific days and times so that each intern knew ahead of time that I would be coming. I observed in Josie's classroom four times. In Holly's and Abby's classroom, I observed two times during this phase. Again, this was an effort to balance the power in the researcher/researched relationship by including interns on the decisions about when I could be in their classrooms.

I knew ahead of time what I wanted to observe based on fieldnotes, analytical notes, interview transcripts, reflective journal notes, and my plan to sample as many different time periods and days of the week as possible. I talked with interns about what

I wanted to observe (ie. reading, writing, content area instruction), and interns scheduled a time and day for me to come into their rooms.

Phase III

I began unannounced observations on April 7, 1997, the week after spring break. My purpose in doing unannounced observations was to observe interns as they would be teaching whether I was in the room or not. By this time, I had developed trusting relationships with the interns, and they stated that they felt comfortable with my note-taking in the classrooms. Issues of authority and power had been minimized. Again, I decided what and when to observe based on fieldnotes, analytical notes, interview transcripts, reflective journal notes, and my plan to sample as many different time periods and days of the week as possible. I observed in Josie's classroom four times, in Holly's classroom six times and in Abby's classroom five times.

Full Day Observation

One full day observation was planned for each intern to get a more holistic view of how literacy and literacy instruction were addressed throughout the day. Interns determined when I could come into their rooms for a full school day to observe and take fieldnotes. Full day observations began at 8:00 in the morning and ended at 2:45 in the afternoon. During the full day observation, interns were responsible for leading instruction they had planned.

Interviews

Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest that the purpose of the interview is to get to intentions behind actions. All interviews were semi-structured. Focus questions were

prepared before interviewing; however, spontaneous, related questions were added to elicit further explanation, clarification, or elaboration in conversational style. Three different interview formats were employed. Group interviews, individual in-depth interviews, and reflective interviews added to my understanding of interns' experiences of literacy instruction. Interview guides for group interviews and individual in-depth interviews are included in Appendix B. Also, a reflective interview guide for each intern is included as a sample of the kinds of questions I asked after observations.

Interviews took place in several different locations, depending on the needs of the intern. I asked interns when and where they would like to meet for interviews. All interviews occurred in settings without children or other school staff present. At times, we arranged to interview over the telephone, taping via the answering machine. All interviews were audio-taped and I transcribed them to capture the interns' exact words. To insure accuracy of the transcriptions, interns received typed copies of the transcriptions and had opportunities to clarify any misperceptions and elaborate on responses, if desired.

Group Interviews

Group interviews were used to minimize the power of the researcher (Graue & Walsh, 1996), to discover important questions to ask (Spradley, 1979), and to gain insights about what to pursue in individual interviews (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982). Two group interviews were conducted. Interview guides were used to structure the group interviews, however spontaneous related questions were added to gain more in-depth understanding and maintain a conversational style. Both interviews were audio-taped and

transcribed, and each intern received a copy to have an opportunity to respond and check for accuracy.

The first group interview was conducted on February 5, 1997, in the mobile classroom, next to the main school building. Interview questions were designed to elicit perceptions about literacy, and how interns came to their views of literacy. This interview lasted approximately one hour, with interns responding to my questions and to each other.

A second group interview was conducted on May 13, 1997, in a park near the school. This interview lasted approximately one and one-half hours. Interview questions were designed to clarify for the researcher the meanings interns' had of literacy and literacy instruction, how they constructed their perceptions literacy instruction, and to gain deeper insight into interns' perceptions of their experience as they lived it in the context of everyday teaching.

I transcribed the audio-taped interviews and each intern received a copy for member checking. They were invited to respond to anything they read in the typed transcription.

Individual In-depth Interviews

Two individual in-depth interviews were conducted, for each intern. The first in-depth interview for each intern followed the group interview in February, 1997. It was designed to elicit interns' perceptions of literacy instruction, to follow up on ideas that emerged in the first group interview, and to gather information about how each intern was experiencing literacy instruction in her particular classroom. The last individual in-

depth interview occurred in May, 1997 for each intern near the end of the internship experience. An exit interview guide was designed to gain further insight into interns' perceptions of literacy and literacy instruction, how and what they learned about teaching literacy, and what the experience of teaching literacy was like for them. These interviews were also taped. I transcribed them and interns received copies of the typed transcripts.

Reflective Interviews

Yonemura (1996), used teacher-researcher discussions to better understand teacher-child interactions. Freeman (1995) extended the idea of teacher-researcher discussions when she used classroom observations, audiotapes, and teacher-written reflections to serve as a starting point for what she calls "formal reflective conversations" (p. 27). In an attempt to identify the meaning of the interns' actions from the interns' point of view, I followed classroom observations with reflective interviews.

Reflective interview guide questions were based on fieldnotes and analytical notes for each classroom observation. Questions were designed to help me understand the meanings of interns' actions in the classroom. These reflective interviews were conducted in different locations, and at different times after the observations. Some were done in person, while others occurred over the telephone. Some were conducted before school in the mobile classroom and some were held in more informal settings after school, such as restaurants, and the university student center. Times and locations of interviews were set depending on the needs of the intern. Length of time for each interview varied according to the interview guide questions and the interns' responses.

For example, one interview lasted only 20 minutes while another lasted three hours. Lengthier interviews tended to occur if the interview guide was longer, or if the intern was experiencing some personal or professional difficulties and wished to talk about them as a part of her experience. All reflective interviews were taped, I transcribed them and provided a typed copy to interns for member checking.

At the beginning of the study, I followed every observation with a reflective interview. As the study progressed, I decided I wanted to get more of a connected view of what happens during the week, from one day to the next. I then did two or three observations, during the same time period, and constructed one interview guide that would allow me to better understand how literacy instruction flowed through a week. For example, one week, I observed the language arts block in Holly's first-grade classroom on two separate mornings, and prepared a reflective interview guide based on both observations.

Documents

Documents were collected to allow me to gain deeper insights into interns' perceptions of literacy and literacy instruction, and they were used to triangulate data sources to increase trustworthiness of the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I collected samples of worksheets that interns used during classroom observations, I copied pages of the teachers' guides for reading and weekly lesson plans written by each intern.

Each intern gave me a copy of her action research paper. All three interns conducted an action research project and written report as part of the requirements of the internship program. Interns were also required to present their research during an

annual action research conference held at the university as a part of the teacher preparation program.

During the second semester of the internship year, the action research project became a major part of the interns' experience of the internship. Two of the three action research projects directly related to literacy instruction. The third project incorporated the intern's perceptions of literacy as it related to use of the internet.

I read each interns' professional portfolio which interns were required to compile as a part of the teacher preparation program. Information in the professional portfolio provided insight into interns' perceptions about teaching, learning, literacy and literacy instruction. It offered relevant biographical information, as well.

I also had access to the self-study report that Lakeland Elementary School employees were required to participate in during this 1996-1997 school year. The self-study report provided demographic information about the teachers, the students, and the school. It also provided information about the mission of the school, goals for students, and future goals for curriculum development.

Documents were labeled and filed, and referred to as needed to add to the information collected through interviews and observations and to triangulate data. Lincoln and Guba (1985) recommend triangulation to confirm data collected by one method with data collected by another as a way to add to the trustworthiness of the study.

Data Analysis

Data analysis involved interpreting and making sense of all the data that were collected. Bogdan & Biklen (1982) describe data analysis as the systematic examination of all the data "to increase your understanding of them and to enable you to present what you have discovered to others" (p. 145). The overall process of data analysis used in this study was an "interplay between inductive and deductive reasoning" (Hatch, in press, p. 7). Hatch writes, "As potential patterns or relationships are identified inductively in the data, tentative, hypothetical categories are formed; and the data are then read deductively to see if those categories are supported by the data (p. 7).

Data analysis for the present study was informed by Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence (1980). Spradley recommends simultaneous data collection and analysis to narrow the focus of the questions and observations as the research progresses. I used inductive, ongoing data analysis as I typed and filled in fieldnotes and transcribed interviews. I made analytical notes while typing. The purpose of the analytical notes was to record recurring events, similarities among the three interns, differences between them, questions that arose, topics of interest, and ideas for focusing subsequent observations.

As I completed typing each set of fieldnotes and interview transcriptions, I reread and compared the data to the analytical notes to determine if I needed to add, clarify, or ask more questions. The data sets (typed transcripts and fieldnotes) and the analytical notes were referred to again and again as I looked for recurring patterns, and possible categories of meaning which Spradley (1980) calls domains.

Domain analysis began by looking for recurring patterns in the data and identifying categories into which they could be grouped. I constructed charts of categories based on the data, and listed empirical evidence under category headings on the charts. I coded data sets to coincide with the categories on the charts. Ongoing analysis began by inductively looking for recurring patterns in the data, identifying category names for organizing data, then deductively reading through the data to confirm or disconfirm the category. During domain analysis, new categories were formed, and old ones were revised to more accurately reflect the data.

Spradley refers to this reorganization of data within categories as taxonomic analysis (1980). The purpose of taxonomic analysis is to discover the internal relations of data listed in each category. I began to use taxonomic analysis when the amount of data in each category increased. Data from all three interns was reorganized and reduced into taxonomic outlines and then analyzed once again to look for similarities and differences and discover overarching themes that cut across domains.

Spradley (1980) defines a cultural theme as "any principle recurrent in a number of domains, tacit or explicit, and serving as a relationship among subsystems of cultural meaning" (p. 141). Thematic analysis in the present study was used to relate domains of meaning to the interns' perceptions of literacy and literacy instruction, and to better understand the whole social situation of interns' experiences of teaching literacy during the second semester of the professional year internship.

Assurance of Trustworthiness

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), trustworthiness includes credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. I used several techniques recommended by Lincoln and Guba to establish trustworthiness. To increase the likelihood of credible findings, I used prolonged engagement in the field, peer debriefing, triangulation, and member checking. Five months spent in the field prior to the beginning of this study helped in understanding the context. Observations and interviews over five months, during the second semester, was sufficient time to achieve the purpose of this research.

Peer debriefing (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) was incorporated through participation in a research group of peer doctoral students who met weekly to discuss many different aspects of the dissertation study. Two doctoral students, who were also working on their dissertation studies read through a sample of my data sets and asked questions “to keep the inquirer honest, assist in developing working hypotheses, develop and test emerging design, and obtain emotional catharsis” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 77). After analyzing data myself, I asked peers to read interview protocols for each intern. Peer questioning about the ongoing analysis forced me to take a second look at the data and defend the emerging categories with empirical evidence. Peer responses to the data offered new insights for me to consider in further analysis and interpretation of the data.

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), triangulation involves the use of several different methods of data collection so that the researcher can verify information from one source with that of another. In the present study, interviews, observations, and documents were used to triangulate data.

Member checking is also recommended by Lincoln and Guba (1985) as a way to increase trustworthiness. Member checking involves giving participants opportunities to read and respond to the typed fieldnotes and interviews to check for accuracy.

Throughout this study, each participant was given a typed copy of observation fieldnotes and interview transcriptions as they were completed. They were asked to read and respond in any way that would increase the accuracy of the typed data. Interns were invited to clarify, elaborate, or add any information they felt was missing in the data sets.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) replace the concept of generalizability with that of transferability and suggest it is the researcher's responsibility to provide a thick description that will enable the reader to determine if the findings would transfer to his or her situation. I used thick description to describe the context of the school, each intern's classroom, and literacy instruction as experienced by each intern.

Dependability and confirmability are established by maintaining an "audit trail" of extensive records during the research. Records included in my research files include all raw data, reflexive journal of insights, motivations, expectations, and feelings during the research, copies of all typed data, analytic notes, typed copies of all taxonomies, summaries of interpretations, working hypothesis, charts of emerging categories, and thematic analysis.

The responsibility of the researcher is to build a logical case for her interpretations of participants' meanings, with clear reporting of the "building blocks" of data collection and analysis (Walsh, Tobin, & Graue, 1993), and to provide adequate evidence to support assertions (Erickson, 1986). Thick description of behavior and its

context must be presented in a way that readers are able to decide for themselves the believability of the research report (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Ultimately, the trustworthiness of the present study will be assessed by the reader as he or she evaluates believability of the presentation and the degree to which credibility and transferability have been established during data collection and analysis.

Chapter Summary

A naturalistic research design was selected to better understand the meaning that three interns' ascribed to their experiences of teaching literacy during the second semester of the year-long internship. I conducted interviews, observed in classrooms, and examined documents to gather information about interns' experiences. I audio-taped and transcribed all interviews, and typed all fieldnotes. Each intern received copies of all interview transcriptions and observation notes in which she participated. Data was analyzed by a recursive process of inductive and deductive search for patterns of meaning. Thematic analysis revealed themes that helped to better understand interns' experiences from their points of view. Five months in the context, peer debriefing, triangulation, and member checking were used to establish trustworthiness of the study.

CHAPTER 4

CONTEXT

School and Community

From the covered front entrance to Lakeland Elementary School one can look south, beyond the parking lot, and see the hazy, green foothills of the Great Smoky Mountains. The brown brick school building sits on a partially wooded hill at the end of a secluded drive, just off the main highway that leads to town. From the school, a left turn and a three-mile stretch on the main route connects with the busy interstate that runs north and south across Tennessee. A larger city, twenty miles north on the interstate, is home to the university that cooperates with Lakeland Elementary School in the professional preparation of interns. A right turn on the main road takes one to a traffic light, where another right turn leads to downtown Lakeland. Straight through the light, heading Southeast, the road crosses a huge TVA (Tennessee Valley Authority) dam that creates one of the two large lakes that are a source of recreation, electricity, and economic opportunity for the townspeople.

Lakeland Elementary School is the only elementary school in Lakeland. It is joined by one middle school and one high school to comprise Lakeland's own school system as a separate system from the county school system. Lakeland Elementary School draws its students from a population of almost 7,000 townspeople, most Caucasian, most with Appalachian roots passed down from several generations. Ninety-five percent of the students at Lakeland Elementary School are Caucasian, 1.5%

are African American, and 3.5% are Hispanic (Self-Study for Elementary School Improvement, 1996-97). Several years ago one of the local businesses recruited Hispanic workers from California. Since that time the Hispanic population in Lakeland has been slowly increasing creating a need for a part-time teacher of English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL).

Families in Lakeland have an average yearly income of \$18,000. Sources of employment include trade (27%), manufacturing (21%) , professional service (17%), construction (11%), public administration (3%), insurance and real estate (2%), and agriculture (1%). Three government housing complexes support 129 families with low incomes; 102 of these families have female heads of households. Free or reduced lunch and breakfast are offered to children of families with low incomes. Because over 60 % of the students participate in the program of free or reduced meals, Lakeland Elementary qualifies to be a school-wide Chapter I program (Self-Study for Elementary School Improvement, 1996-97).

School-community relations are positive and supportive. Average daily attendance for the school is 94.8 %. Volunteers from the families of the school population, as well as from the surrounding county are active in working with students. Community-business partnerships help to provide special services by contributing monetarily to the school and donating services or award prizes for the school fundraiser, walkathon. The school is open for Boy Scout, Girl Scout, and Brownie meetings.

Built in 1986, Lakeland Elementary School is now too small to house the fifth grade students who used to attend, and so there is construction. Expansion plans include adding 12 new classrooms to accommodate a growing population, and to bring the fifth graders back to join the preschool through fourth-grade children who attend Lakeland. At the present time, approximately 500 students, 39 teachers, support staff, and volunteers fill every available classroom.

A mobile classroom that stands adjacent to the main school building is a symbol of the growing population of school children in Lakeland. The mobile classroom is shared by the three Chapter I teachers and university personnel. The detached mobile classroom serves now as mostly storage for Chapter I teachers' materials and a place for them to do their planning. Chapter I teachers do most of their instruction in the main school building. They have set up tables and teaching supplies in the two main commons areas of the school and often teach small groups of children there. Two main hallways lead to the large, carpeted commons areas. First-grade classrooms and a large teacher workroom surround the common area at the end of the kindergarten hallway. Third- and fourth-grade classrooms and a similar teacher workroom surround the perimeter of the other commons area.

University personnel and interns use the mobile classroom to store materials and to meet for professional education courses that are required as a part of the teacher preparation program. University courses are held at Lakeland Elementary School as part of the official agreement between school personnel and university personnel to establish a Professional Development School.

Professional Development School

The goal of Professional Development Schools (PDS), according to the Holmes Group (1990) is for schools and universities to collaborate in an effort to make schools learning places for children and adults, thereby improving educational opportunities for students, preservice teachers, and inservice teachers. Specific guidelines for the establishment of professional development schools include development of innovative programs for children, thought-provoking course work and field experiences for interns, professional development opportunities for teachers, and research projects to improve teaching and learning (Holmes Group, 1990).

During the 1995-1996 school year, Karen Greene, the supervising university professor at Lakeland Elementary School, collaborated with school board members, central administrators, the principal, teachers, and myself to facilitate the establishment of a PDS at Lakeland Elementary School. At the May 9, 1996 school board meeting, official contracts were signed and Lakeland Elementary School became a Professional Development School according to the guidelines proposed by the Holmes group. There was a PDS celebration in the school cafeteria on May 15, 1996 at which the PDS relationship was explained to the students. Soon after the official announcement of the school-university collaborative partnership, headlines in the local newspaper quoted one school board member as saying, "This seems like the best thing since peanut butter."

Classrooms

The classrooms described in this section are the classrooms where interns spent full days in their primary placements during the second-semester of the year-long internship. The classrooms were shared spaces that belonged to the mentoring teacher, as reflected by intern references to teaching in the future, when they get their “own classrooms.”

Lisa Gates’ and Holly Raines’ First-Grade Classroom

The kindergarten hall opens to a large commons area around which the doors entering into first grade classrooms are located. The second to last door on the right is the door to Lisa Gates’ and Holly Raines’ first-grade classroom. Upon entering the room, one notices those things that are familiar to most first-grade classrooms: small desks, small chairs, a teachers desk, bookshelves, bulletin boards, a couple tables. Desks are arranged in three groups of six, so that students sit close together, facing each other. One group of four desks is arranged in a row near the door. One desk stands alone in front of a kidney-shaped table.

The kidney-shaped table is the one that Holly refers to as her table. It is large but shorter than a regular table; a small chair sits in the smaller bend of the kidney and faces out toward the rest of the classroom. Holly’s table cuts across the right front corner of the room diagonally, and is usually loaded with books, papers, and student projects.

The mentoring teachers’ desk cuts across the left front corner of the room diagonally. It is taller than Holly’s table, and has a big chair behind it. It too is usually

covered with papers, books, and children's work that overflows onto a student desk that has been pulled up to Lisa's desk and offers additional surface area.

The floor is covered with tan wall-to-wall carpeting. Large and colorful papier-mâché planets hang by thin string from the light-colored ceiling tiles. The walls are covered with charts, posters and samples of children's work.

As one stands at the entrance door facing straight across the room, look left. There, running the length of the wall is an orange counter area, with sink and little unused area. Stacks of papers, snack boxes, a tray of coffee cups, a large thermos, and blue plastic stacking trays pretty much cover the entire counter. Large cabinets provide storage under the counter. A small plastic step stool sits on the carpet in front of the sink.

Follow that wall around, clockwise and you come to what I have interpreted as the front of the room. The front because this is the direction in which all the children often face to give the teacher attention for whole group instruction. The front because this is where students look to see the daily handwriting sentences and spelling words that are written on the white board. The white board replaces the chalkboards that are more common in older classrooms. Colored markers replace chalk. Next to the white board is a magnetic, brown board. There is where small magnets are used to display the daily dittos that students are required to complete.

Adjacent to the front wall is the outside wall. One glass window and a glass door at opposite ends of this wall offer the only view of the outdoors. From window to door, and attached to the wall, are two rows of wooden shelves divided into box-

shaped areas called cubbies. Each row has 14 cubbies filled with textbooks, ditto papers, old magazines, flashcards and puzzles, and children's books. Under the cubbies is a row of hooks upon which hang large, white, plastic trash bags, stuffed with the children's jackets and backpacks. There are some puzzles, and two large plastic containers of small toys on the carpet under the fat, white bags. A large rocking chair sits in front of the cubbies. Beside the rocker stands a small easel holding laminated books that look like they were made through the joint efforts of teacher and students.

The last wall, the back wall, has a bulletin board that displays the themed unit of instruction for science as well as the computer rotation chart for students. In front of that wall stands the tall teacher station with, large color TV on the top shelf and a computer and computer software on lower shelves. Running the length of the bulletin board is a row of four computers on small desks with one small chair in front of each one. A bookshelf of manipulatives, and bottles of glue stands next to the row of computers. A large storage closet meets the wall, to the right of the entrance door. The daily behavior chart covers the closet door.

Martha Paris' and Josie Mills' Fourth-Grade Classroom

The door to this fourth-grade classroom was covered with brown paper for a long period of time during the second semester. A sign posted on the mailbox outside the classroom door reads, "Welcome to Narnia." The brown paper on the classroom door is the students' representation of the wardrobe that the child characters in C. S. Lewis' The Lion, The Witch, And The Wardrobe entered to get to the enchanted world of Narnia.

Enter through the classroom door and look right. There is a similar long counter with sink that was previously described in the first-grade classroom. There are similar cupboards underneath for storage. The counter top is as busy and lacking in uncluttered space as that in Holly's and Lisa's classroom. A portion of the wall is covered with student made snow-covered hills of white paper with a construction-paper castle for the White Witch of Narnia at the summit.

Adjacent to that wall, in a counter clockwise direction is the front wall. The white board covers the majority of that wall. There is not a regular assignment posted on this white board. This is the direction that students face for large group instruction whether Josie or Martha is teaching. Students stand in front of this wall in presenting projects, or sharing books and writing with class members. A round table in the front, center of this room offers a place for Josie to sit and grade papers, meet individually with students, or lead instruction.

The front wall meets the outside wall at the reading corner, what Josie calls "The sea of adventure." The reading corner wall is usually covered with a bright, tropical ocean scene. What looks like a shower curtain is attached to the wall in this corner. Colorful fish swim in the deep blue tropical waters of the shower curtain wall hanging. At this time, a large brown house with red roof, made from bulletin board paper, covers the ocean scene. This is the professor's house where the child characters in C. S. Lewis' book discovered the entrance to Narnia through the back of a wardrobe. Large pillows have been tossed in this corner and bookshelves hold baskets and crates of children's books organized by genre and level.

At the opposite end of the outside wall is the glass door to the front of the school and a view of the parking lot. In this room, the one glass door offers the only glimpse of the outdoors. From glass door to reading corner are the same kind of cubbies that were described in the first grade classroom. Hooks under the cubbies hold coats or jackets and backpacks. In front of the cubbies stands a long table that holds a row of four computers.

The back wall, the one on the left as you stand at the commons' entrance door, has a large bulletin board that changes as the units of study in social studies, science, or health change over the course of the semester. Near the middle of that wall, is the large teacher station that holds the large color TV and computer, with modem, a telephone, and a weather station that was donated to Martha who serves as a "Weather Watch" volunteer for the local news and weather station. A computer monitor and keyboard sit on top of a student desk to the side of the teacher station.

Martha's desk sits at the far end of this back wall, with a chair behind, facing the door to the commons area. Josie's desk sits in the opposite corner, diagonally, in the front of the room with the cluttered sink counter behind. Student desks are grouped together in fives or sixes across the tan wall-to-wall carpeting, so that students sit in groups facing and almost touching each other.

Sheila Burns' and Abby Adams' Fourth-Grade Classroom

This classroom, two doors down from Martha's and Josie's classroom, has the same tan wall-to-wall carpeting, and a similar floor plan. Upon entering this room, the cluttered counter-top, with sink is directly to the left. Adjacent to that wall is a wall,

with a brown chalk-board, that I call the front of the room. Four rows of student desks face this direction. The front row is separated in the middle to leave a space for the overhead projector, which is stored in the front, right corner of the room. Looking clockwise, there is the outside wall with long window and glass door at opposite ends. Familiar looking cubbies, loaded with books and papers fill the space in-between. Jackets and backpacks hang on hooks under the cubbies. From the window and glass door is a glimpse of a small patch of grass, a sidewalk, the parking lot, and the distant foothills beyond. The back wall begins with a tall bookcase where reference books, children's literature, magazines, computer software, and writers' notebooks are stored. Shorter bookshelves jut out from the wall toward small student desks that are pulled up to it. More reference books fill the case, and a wicker basket labeled "Our Mail" has been placed on top. A bulletin board covered with blue paper, displays what looks like a large window frame and child-made paper snowflakes. This wall ends at the corner closet to the immediate right of the classroom door.

In front of the bulletin board is a row of three computers, the large teacher station, that consists of a large color TV on the top shelf, teachers' computer, with modem, and software on lower shelves. A student desk to the side of the tall teacher station holds another computer and a telephone.

The mentoring teacher's desk sits diagonally across the front, left corner of the room. The intern's desk is in the opposite back, right corner, and faces the back wall. A set of five student desks are grouped in the front, right corner of the room and hold teacher's guides and learning games. There are two rectangular tables on opposite sides

of the classroom. The one in front of the cubbies is Abby's table; the one in front of the sink is Sheila's table.

People

The following section provides a general description of the principal and the mentoring teachers with whom interns worked in their primary placement during the second semester of the year-long internship. Descriptions of the principal and the mentoring teachers are based on observations and conversations we had. Vignettes of each intern offer detailed descriptions of their family backgrounds, influences in their decisions to become teachers, and the role literacy has played in their lives.

Principal

Gary Potter, a former U.S. Marine, has 29 years of experience in the field of education. He has been a classroom teacher, coach, system wide athletic director, and school administrator. This is his second year as principal at Lakeland Elementary School. He was recognized this year by the Milken Family Foundation in cooperation with the Tennessee Department of Education, as an outstanding elementary educator and was awarded a personal \$25,000 cash prize. The Milken Educator Awards recognize "elementary and secondary school educators who are fostering excellence in education.... and focuses public attention on the important contributions of educators" (News Release, Tennessee Dept. of Education, 1996)

Friendly, and smiling is the way I usually saw Mr. Potter when I arrived at Lakeland in the mornings before the school day had begun. He stood out under the covered walkway in front of the main entrance to welcome all who entered. He spoke

words of greeting to parents, teachers, and children alike, occasionally stopping one or the other, moving close, and speaking in low tones that I could not hear.

In teachers meetings that I attended, Mr. Potter began with a friendly overture, but quickly moved to his agenda and systematically and sequentially covered each item that was planned. Occasional humor, which Mr. Potter enjoys, did not divert him from the planned agenda for long. Easy to laugh, he was also equally serious about leadership at this school. I heard him say, more than once, that he was willing to hear any problems teachers might have, but he also wanted to hear their proposed solutions.

Mr. Potter has similar expectations for all teachers when it comes to completing certain paperwork in a predetermined and uniform way. But at the same time, he respects teachers' differences in teaching style and methods. A continuum from an emphasis on traditional, skills-based to more holistic, integrated approaches to teaching are practiced throughout the school.

Mentoring Teachers

Lisa Gates

Lisa Gates is Holly Raines' mentoring teacher in first grade. Lisa has been teaching for 12 years; this is her sixth year teaching first grade. She grew up in Lakeland next door to the teacher who now teaches in the first-grade classroom next to hers. Lisa describes her teaching style as more structured and more skills-oriented than her intern's style. Lisa is always learning and has changed the way she teaches every year. Her commitment to teaching and children is apparent by her many extra duties. She teaches the fourth-grade enrichment classes after school, serves on various school

committees, and attends conferences and workshops to continue professional development. Her goal for first graders is to prepare them to be successful in second grade.

Sheila Burns

Sheila Burns, Abby Adams' mentoring teacher, is a fourth-grade teacher who has been teaching for over 31 years. She was hired mid-year her first year of teaching in Lakeland and has taught in this community ever since. Like Lisa, Sheila describes herself as more skills-oriented in her teaching than her intern. She wants children to score well on the TCAP (Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program) that is administered yearly as a statewide achievement test to students in grades two through twelve. Sheila organizes instruction and structures time to teach skills that her students will be expected to know and be able to use when the TCAP is administered in April. This is Sheila's first experience having an intern for the majority of the school year and she wants to continue as a mentoring teacher because of the opportunity having an intern provides for her to learn new things. She also believes that with two teachers in the classroom, her students are more likely to get the kind of individualized attention that will help them be more successful learners.

Martha Paris

Martha Paris teaches fourth grade two doors down from Sheila. She is Josie Mills' mentoring teacher. Martha has been teaching for almost 26 years. She is from a small town nearly an hour away from Lakeland, but has taught here, at Lakeland, for most of that time. Martha is a life-long learner who continues to take university courses

and attend conferences and workshops to remain informed about current ideas in education. Her dedication to teaching children is illustrated in a conversation we had in which Martha explained that she had considered pursuing her Ph. D. but decided against it because she believed it might take her away from working with children. Martha describes her teaching style as a mix of whole language and basic skills. She believes it is important to include both student choice and sharing of texts as well as direct instruction of skills she knows will be on the standardized tests (TCAP) her students will take each year.

Interns

Holly Raines

Holly was born 24 years ago in a little gold house with a midwife attending. She has lived in this area of East Tennessee all of her life. Her father owns his own furniture refinishing business and restores expensive antiques. Her mother has always been a stay-at-home mom, but may look for work outside the home after Holly's younger brother graduates from high school.

Though the family income is described as low by Holly, her parents managed to find an "itty-bitty" house in a wealthier neighborhood where Holly attended elementary school. Holly explained that her dad has to work "where all the rich people are because they're the ones that buy the \$5,000 antique and ask him to fix it."

Holly attended kindergarten through seventh grade at the neighborhood elementary and middle school. She doesn't remember a great deal about her early

school experiences. When asked how she learned to read, Holly summed up her recollections:

I don't remember. I remember I had a great kindergarten teacher. She read *Corduroy*, and *The Cat in the Hat*, and I loved that! First grade was horrible. I hated first grade. I just did not want to be there. It was boring phonics junk. And all the worksheets and the Meg and Pat and Bill. And then second grade was not good either. I didn't like third grade. Fourth grade was a split class so it was like 3rd and 4th together. It was the teacher's first year teaching. So I don't think I learned anything that year. I honestly don't. Fifth grade my teacher had her back messed up in a car accident. She had back surgery and was out for the last half of the year, and we had a wide variety of substitutes. So I don't remember learning much in fifth grade either. But middle school! Sixth grade, Miss B., that made all the difference!

Before she entered high school, Holly's family moved to a rural area north of the city. She attended the same high school there for four years but never did like it that much. She felt like an "outsider" until eleventh grade when school personnel decided she should be in the college prep English class "with the other kids who were considered at the top of their class." Holly elaborated, "And that's where I found my niche. Because they were also kind of outsiders. They didn't want to be farmers. They wanted to go to college. And so I fit in there."

Teachers at this high school were a big influence in Holly's decision to become a teacher. When asked if she knew what she wanted to do, other than farm, Holly answered, "Well I kind of knew. Just because I loved my teachers so much. And I think that was a big influence. I mean I just loved them!"

Holly applied to colleges based on her decision to become a teacher. "I wanted to go to [a private college] to be a teacher. Because I heard it was one of the best in the country." Though she was accepted to the private college of her choice, Holly's

scholarship did not meet her financial needs "so it was to the university." Her grandmother, who is a retired kindergarten teacher, told Holly, "Well, if the university was good enough for me it is for you."

Holly lived at home with her parents and brother while attending her grandmother's alma mater. During that time other experiences further influenced her desire to become a teacher. She taught Sunday school at her church, she worked in after school, and she worked at a day care center for about 9 months. As part of her university course work, she had three separate early field experiences: one in kindergarten, one in second grade, and another in sixth grade, in which she observed or helped small groups of children with teacher appointed tasks or activities. During interviews with Holly, she spoke fondly of the second grade early field experience.

Holly chose Lakeland Elementary School for her internship for several reasons, one of which was not convenience. Holly lived an hours drive from Lakeland. Going to Lakeland for the internship meant that Holly would have to apply for a federal loan and move into an apartment to cut down on the stress of driving "all that way, every day." Even though there was an internship program at a school within ten minutes drive of Holly's home, she explained, "It just didn't feel right."

Holly shared several reasons for selecting Lakeland Elementary school for the internship. First, Karen Greene, supervising professor at Lakeland, visited Holly's class at the university and talked about the internship program at Lakeland. Holly recalled that visit, "When I met Karen, I kind of knew that was where I wanted to be." In addition, Holly sought advise from fellow graduates students and interns who spoke

favorably about Lakeland Elementary School. Finally, Holly found out that one of her friends had chosen to go to Lakeland. She decided to go where "at least I'd have a friend."

Holly's future plans include teaching for fifteen or twenty years and then retiring and writing children's books. Holly is most interested in teaching kindergarten, first, or second grade. She has a particular interest in emergent literacy and has begun a storybook collection of her own to include in a book center. She talked animatedly about the collection of stuffed characters that she has begun to go along with the storybooks, "Well I've got Madeline!... She's got two sets of clothes that you can put on her. And she's even got a little scar where her appendix, they took her appendix out. It's great! I had to have that!"

Through observations and interviews, I have come to know Holly as a quiet and thoughtful person. Most of my interviews with Holly were relatively short compared to the other two interns. During observations in her classroom, she often worked one-on-one with individual children, using a quiet voice that I could barely hear, even when sitting only four feet away.

That Holly is determined and goal-oriented is illustrated by her decision to add an international teaching experience to her teacher preparation program. In her desire to learn more about emergent literacy, and teaching in an integrated and holistic way, Holly elected to participate in additional professional preparation. She attended course work during the internship to prepare for a summer teaching experience in Wales.

Abby Adams

Abby speaks with pride when she talks about the three-generational household where she grew up an only child, in middle Tennessee, near Nashville. Her grandmother moved into the family home when Abby was in second grade and lives with them still. Abby's four-year-old son adds a fourth generation to the Adam's household, and family ties are strong.

The value of family in Abby's life is illustrated in the way her parents responded to Abby's desire to become a teacher. After two years at a community college in middle Tennessee, Abby decided to apply to the university to pursue a Master's degree in Elementary Education. Though it was not the profession her parents would have chosen for Abby, they decided as a family to move to east Tennessee when Abby was accepted at the University. Abby's father was district manager of a large pharmaceutical company, and this city was included in the district that he managed. Relocating was not a problem, careerwise, for Abby's father. Keeping the family together was a priority. Abby explained that to live in a dorm meant she couldn't have her son with her. Her parents bought a home in a middle class neighborhood on the west side of town and helped with child-rearing while Abby attended the university and worked part-time as a professional clown.

Abby has spent her 23 years in a literate home environment. She said, "I enjoyed writing before I could form letters." As a toddler, she added verses to the family bible. For the most part, the things that Abby enjoyed writing were not school assignments. They were things that she chose to write, "those things that were

meaningful...that would actually reveal who I am...my turmoils and my triumphs.”

Since beginning the internship, Abby has not had time to write. She said, “I guess right now my daily writerly life is just throwing things down on scraps of paper and carrying them around in my pocket.”

“Books are everything!” at Abby’s house. She described three generations of readers and a home atmosphere with the expectation of, “Well, you’re a reader.” As a child, Abby’s granny read to her. She watched her parents and grandparents read and listened to them talk about books. For good grades, Abby chose books over any other kind of reward offered. Abby said, “A new book can be as delightful as any gift someone can give. I value it that much.” For Abby, books don’t just take up space. She said, “Stories live on my shelves.”

Abby’s mom and granny are avid readers who continually read, share, and recommend books for Abby to read. Abby explained, “That’s how it’s been all of my growing up years.” For Abby reading is relaxing. She said “That’s the only way I sleep at night. I can’t go to bed without reading.” At night Abby reads children’s novels so that “if ever a child asks me about a book, there will be a possibility I’ll be able to recommend something...or maybe someday have an idea for a novel.”

Her early school experiences are not that memorable to Abby. She explained, “I don’t remember much of elementary school and school, exactly what reader I had and things like that.” Later school experiences were not pleasant for Abby. She talked about a family that home-schooled their teenagers and how she wished she could have had the same opportunity to complete high school at home. She said:

I hated high school because of the social factors. I would have given anything to have somebody mail me those stupid worksheets I had to do in high school and fill them out and mail them in. I would have graduated high school in about a year, rather than taking four years for the whole thing.

There are no elementary or high school teachers that Abby referred to as inspiring her in her decision to become a teacher. She described her decision to become a teacher as a “self-made decision that has been confirmed along the way.” It was during college course work in English when Abby met the teacher that would provide for her an image of the kind of teacher Abby wants to be. Abby’s personal interest in creative writing and a desire to obtain a Bachelor’s degree in English led her to a professor who Abby hopes to be able to emulate. She said:

The day I can honestly look at myself and say that I --I think the word would be emulate or model, or act as, in the same manner as that teacher—that’s the day I will feel that I am successful and truly doing what I believe in.

In Abby’s view that teacher was open, accepting, positive, helpful, and caring. Abby recalled feeling a “sense of community.” She said, “You felt like you knew these people around you, and you cared about them.” For Abby who felt that she usually “tended to be on the outskirts of things,” this feeling of acceptance as a part of something was a powerful influence. Abby said, “If I could ever create for someone else that sense of community and well-being and kinmanship, then I think I’ll have made it.”

Abby chose Lakeland Elementary School for her internship because of the positive things she had heard about the school, the community, and the students there. She heard there was a family type atmosphere at Lakeland. Abby chose Lakeland so

she would feel “a part of something that was worthwhile.” She anticipated developing wonderful relationships with her mentoring teacher and a group of interns who would become good friends.

Abby wrote in her professional portfolio:

*I am a dreamer, a poet, a writer, a reader,
I am a learner, and explorer, a friend, a clown.
Most importantly I am a mother
I am growing into a teacher.*

She believes each of these roles combine to reveal qualities that will help her be successful as a teacher: sensitivity, observation, emotion, excitement, nurturing, caring, understanding, compassion, and enthusiasm. Abby believes that becoming a teacher “will be a never ending journey involving all that is me, even the aspects I’ve not listed or have yet to discover.” As a teacher, Abby hopes to never lose her enthusiasm for the profession.

Through observations, interviews, and written documents I have come to know Abby as a cheerful optimist and a self-proclaimed idealist. In Abby’s words, “If you believe and you work hard enough, anything’s possible. I’m into positive thinking, and if there is anything I could give my students, it would be the knowledge that they are capable of accomplishing their goals and their dreams.” As she speaks for students she reminds herself of the faith she has that she too will accomplish her dream of becoming a teacher.

Josie Mills

Josie has lived all of her 21 years in this area of East Tennessee. She described herself and her family as Southern Appalachian. Josie has an extended view of family that includes her husband and his family, her parents, two sisters, and a brother, as well as grandparents, aunts, and uncles who settled in this rural region years ago. Josie grew up in a small town, ten miles east of Lakeland but explained, "I still have roots here." Her grandmother is from Lakeland, and Josie reminisced, "I remember coming over here to visit my grandmother and the stretch where all the fast food restaurants are and the Walmart was nothing; nothing but farmland."

As a native, Josie provided her perceptions of the flavor of the area. "It's been an agricultural, backwoods kind of county. With the traditional, southern Appalachia beliefs and customs and systems. You've got the Bible belt. There's a church on every corner, if you really look at Lakeland....Religion does play a part. A big part!" She summed up her thoughts about Lakeland, "It's just what you would think. Small town, USA. Except for this is pushed up in the back hills of Appalachia." She added, "Everyone is related to everyone else."

Josie described her family background as "working, middle-class." Her father used to be a Missionary Baptist preacher and is now what Josie calls a "bivocational preacher"; meaning he works a job at the nearby aluminum plant and continues to preach at the Baptist church, at times. Her mother stayed home and cared for the family.

Josie grew up in a literate home environment where reading and writing were valued as an important part of every day life. Family members were avid readers and Josie says she “saw a lot of motivation put toward me and my siblings, in my family, to follow their example. You know, read this story before you go to bed.” Reading was also a “competition thing” for Josie. She says, “Of course I had to compete with my sister. However many books she read, well, I had to read two. I had to be the best.”

As a preacher, Josie often saw her father write:

We always saw him writing and he always had the sermons folded up in his pockets. And he'd pull them out and he'd read them and he always had a pen with him and he'd write. So it was like a constant revision of himself. And he did that through writing.

Josie's memory of early school experiences in learning to read contrast sharply with home experiences of reading. In Josie's view, “School [literacy] was boring and repetitious... and all the negatives that you could possibly come up with.” She described reading Dick and Jane stories and then doing ten or twelve worksheets “just to fill up our time; to give us something to do.” For Josie learning to read in school was memorizing a word list. “That's what it was...just a plain old word list.” Reading at home was different. Josie said, “At home I saw that, ‘Hey, you can read for fun!’...It's just not a dutiful job that you have to accomplish and fulfill for someone who is walking around the room with a ruler in her hand.” At home, Josie was reading The Secret Garden. She compared that book to the Dick and Jane stories she read at school, “The Secret Garden compared to Dick and Jane [Josie and the other interns laugh at this comparison] Dick and Jane just kind of lacked something. It lacks a lot!”

Josie summed up her feelings about home and school literacy, "So home was real. It was like an adventure because there were the real books. You know, the real books! And Dick and Jane were just dry."

Josie continues to read "for the sheer pleasure of it." She says, "I guess I read for selfish reasons. Because I just read to read. It's relaxing and calming for me...it's pure escape." Josie writes "for communication purposes." She enjoys using email to write letters. She likes the ability to enter chat rooms on the internet "where you can link up with even someone you really want to talk to in a room and communicate that way. Like a telephone conversation." Josie describes herself as "a talker." She once said, "I'll talk to a stump." Writing for Josie is one way of talking.

Family members and two teachers, in particular, influenced Josie in her decision to become a teacher. Her father taught for one year, her aunt was a teacher, her uncle was a teacher and a principal at the high school level, and her mother-in-law also taught. Her older sister completed the internship four years before Josie entered it, and is now teaching in a nearby middle school.

Two teachers provided Josie with an image of the kind of teacher she wants to be. Her fifth-grade teacher, Mr. G., showed Josie that teaching could be fun. She remembers him fondly as mixing laughter with learning. Today, Josie still treasures a keepsake that Mr. G gave her in fifth grade. In high school, Josie developed a close relationship with her math teacher, Ms. I, who she described as a teacher and a confidante. In describing herself as a teacher today Josie said, "I think I'm fun-loving. I think that I'm caring. I *love* my kids." She wants children to "learn that gaining

knowledge and gaining an education is rewarding in the long run. As well as you can make it fun." Josie wants students to know that she is there for them, "to be their teacher, their confidante." Academics and social skills are important to Josie but so is building a caring relationship with children.

Josie was disappointed when she was informed that she would be placed at Lakeland Elementary School for the internship year. Josie had hoped to teach at a school closer to the apartment she shared with her husband, and she hoped to be able to teach in middle school. When Josie found out that she would not get her first or second choice of placement sites she wrote a letter to the professors at the university requesting her third choice, a school near her husband's workplace. This choice, she explained to professors, would be more financially beneficial because she would be able to carpool with her husband. Josie is unsure of the reason why she did not get assigned to any of the schools she chose, but resolved during the summer to "bloom where she was planted." That was the motto she used to psychologically ready herself for a successful year at Lakeland.

Josie would eventually like to teach in her home town, preferably at the middle school. Her interest in this grade level stems from experiences she has had working in summer enrichment programs for children from families living in one of the government subsidized housing projects. Through this program, Josie has worked with many of the same children since she was a senior in high school and they were in elementary school. The children are now adolescents whom Josie feels she has grown up with over the years. Josie plans to continue working with these adolescents during the summer

following the internship, while completing the required 12 hours of graduate course work in summer school at the university.

Through observations, interviews, and long conversations with Josie, I have come to know her as an outspoken young woman who doesn't mind "putting her two cents worth" into any conversation. She is competitive, confident, and has strong opinions. It is important to Josie to do her best. She explains, "There's superior work and then there's good work...you want to be in that superior category." Striving to be recognized as "one of the best" illustrates Josie's competitive spirit and her commitment to the value of working hard to achieve her goal of becoming a teacher.

The Teacher Education Program

In an effort to improve the teacher education program at the university, a restructuring initiative at the college of education resulted in an official "New College of Education" on July 1, 1994. Goals for the New College include "the preparation of educators who are lifelong learners, persons able to engage in critical inquiry, reflection, and social action" (Accreditation Report, 1995, p. 4). The New College was designed to promote "flexibility and creative collaboration" between interdisciplinary teams of teacher educators organized into eleven different Units. Faculty members selected primary Units for membership where they collaborated to create agreed upon principles for achieving the New College mission of responding "directly to a changing American society by further diversifying and enriching the student body and the faculty, by infusing the college curricula and programs with multicultural and global

perspectives; and by increasing a sense of community among faculty, staff, and students” (Accreditation Report, 1995, p. 4).

The three interns who participated in this study were admitted into the Elementary Education Program in the Holistic Teaching/Learning Unit in the New College of Education. Holly chose to pursue an endorsement that includes grades K-8, while Josie and Abby selected the grades 1-8 endorsement option.

The conceptual framework that guides this program is a holistic philosophy of teaching and learning. The conceptual framework as presented in Book 4 of the Holistic Teaching/Learning Unit’s Licensure Program reads:

The holistic, integrative and interdisciplinary nature of the Unit is supported by humanistic-scientific principles which emanate from how children learn, a collaborative view of the teaching/learning process, a theory of the centrality of language in the curriculum, a view of the teachers as the facilitator of learning, and the needs and learning styles of the child as a major determinant for planning (1995, p. 1).

Principles of Association adopted by the Holistic Teaching/Learning Unit with the goal of developing reflective practitioners who are receptive to the needs of all students include the following:

- experiential learning
- experimentation and scholarly endeavors
- collaboration with Professional Development Schools, Arts and Science Faculty, Faculty from other programs, and Faculty from other institutions
- modeling the integrative approach to teaching and learning

- flexibility in the design and implementation of interdisciplinary approaches to teaching, learning and research (Book 4, Licensure Program, 1995, p. 2).

Students who pursue a Master's degree in Elementary Education in the Holistic Teaching/Learning Unit earn a Bachelor's degree from the College of Arts and Sciences with a minor in elementary education. They take 28 semester hours in professional education course work before admittance to the internship program.

The fifth year internship program is a "year-long induction experience, conducted in accordance with the State Department of Education guidelines" (p. 2, Handbook For the Professional Year Internship). Interns receive 24 semester hours of graduate level credit for the field experiences and accompanying course work during the internship year.

Interns report to their placement school on the first day of in-service for teachers in August, and follow the public school calendar for the remainder of the year. During the Fall semester, interns spend a minimum of 4 hours a day, Monday through Friday in their placement classrooms. In addition, they complete 8 hours of professional education course work. During the Spring semester, interns spend full days in their placement classrooms and are required to complete four hours of additional course work, including an action research project to be presented to fellow interns at the end of the year. During the summer following the internship experience, interns complete additional course work as required by the Master's degree program of 33 semester hours of graduate credit for licensure and graduation.

Chapter Summary

Qualitative research demands rich description of context and participants in order to offer the reader the ability to determine the degree of transferability of the findings of the research. Lakeland Elementary School, though unique to this location of small town East Tennessee is also similar to schools across the nation in some ways. Overcrowding, increasing numbers of second language learners, and tension between teachers about best practices for teaching literacy are issues at this particular school that are common to schools in other settings.

A closer look at the classrooms, the leadership offered by Gary Potter, and the individual mentoring teachers helps to highlight the particulars of each intern's experience of teaching literacy at Lakeland Elementary School during the second semester of the year-long internship. Detailed vignette of Holly, Josie, and Abby provide insight into their family backgrounds, their perceptions about literacy, teaching, and the role literacy has played in their lives. An overview of the teacher education program for these interns describes the holistic, integrated philosophy for teaching and learning that undergirded the teacher education program within which this internship experience is nested.

CHAPTER 5

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND INTERPRETATION

The purpose of this qualitative research study was to better understand the experiences of interns as they engaged in literacy instruction during the second semester of the year-long internship. The organization of this chapter presents a reorganization of the three research questions, and rewording of one question, that reflects the depth of analysis of the research data. The three research questions as presented in Chapter 2 of this study are as follows:

1. What do literacy and literacy instruction mean to interns?
2. How do interns experience literacy instruction in the classroom context?
3. How do interns construct their perceptions of literacy and literacy instruction?

The reorganized questions as they are presented in this chapter are as follows:

1. What does literacy mean to interns?
2. How do interns construct their perceptions of literacy?
3. What does literacy instruction mean to interns?
4. How do interns experience literacy instruction in the classroom context?
5. How do interns construct their perceptions of literacy instruction?

It is important to point out that the purpose of this study is to better understand how interns experienced literacy instruction during the second semester of the year-long internship. Therefore, data presentation, analysis, and interpretation are limited to

interns' perceptions and the meanings they ascribed to their experiences. There is no attempt to include alternative perceptions of other people who shared the experiences of the three interns who agreed to participate in this study.

Definitions of literacy change over time and according to the needs of society. The Literacy Dictionary (1995) provides a page of definitions that include individual, social, functional, ideological, and political dimensions for the meaning of literacy. Before I could hope to understand interns' experiences of teaching literacy, it was important to determine what literacy meant to each intern. This chapter begins with an explanation of what literacy means to Holly, Josie, and Abby. A section explaining how interns constructed their views of literacy follows. Then I present data to explain what literacy instruction means to interns. Following that is a section that organizes data into a conceptual framework for understanding how interns teach literacy in the classroom context. Data about how interns teach literacy provide additional insight into what literacy and literacy instruction means to them. This chapter ends with a section that explains, from interns' perspectives, how they constructed their perceptions of literacy instruction, focusing on how they learned to teach literacy. Answers to each research question add to the understanding of interns' experiences of teaching literacy during the year-long internship.

Data are presented in the exact words of the interns, but have been edited in some cases with ellipses to eliminate repetitive phrases that do not contribute to the interns' meaning. Brackets indicate words I have added to help the reader better

understand when interns use pronoun referents instead of the subject. Underlined words indicate times when the intern places emphasis on certain words.

What Does Literacy Mean to Interns?

For all three interns, literacy means reading and writing in a way that communicates meaning. Literacy means being able to understand what is read and to be able to use printed language to communicate meaning to others. When interns talked about literacy, they talked about what literacy meant for students and what literacy meant for themselves as literate adults.

Literacy for Students

When asked how literacy fit into a typical school day, Holly answered, "As much as we can we try to emphasize writing and reading." Josie said this about a cooperative group project, "I think this lesson is purely a good example of literacy. [Students] have got to know how to read the books. They've got to know how to read and write in order to write their papers." Abby indicated that a lesson she presented in science did not involve literacy since, "[students] did not have to read or write anything."

All three interns wanted students to enjoy reading and writing and be able to use reading and writing to learn. During Phase I of the classroom observations, in which interns determined when I could observe, I watched Holly work with students on making space mobiles. She considered making mobiles a lesson that involved literacy because students wrote the names of the planets on their mobiles. Her space unit included other aspects of literacy learning as well. She read books about space to the

students, gave students opportunities to look through the space books, and students kept space journals where they could read, write, draw, and dictate to Holly the things they were learning about space.

My first classroom observation of Abby was during a math lesson, in which students worked in groups to construct four separate story problems that reflected their knowledge of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. Abby said, "I think words are important. And communication is important. And the reason I called and said I would consider this a literacy lesson along with the math was there were specific key words and terminology they had to use."

Josie's first observation, that she scheduled, was a literacy lesson related to the basal reading series. She organized students into cooperative groups to work together toward a group presentation on the topic of pollution. Josie talked about how this lesson related to literacy goals she had for students, "They have to know how to use a book and how to take information from that book and put it into their presentation."

Each intern's focus on reading to learn differed slightly. Holly placed more emphasis on reading and writing as a way for her first-grade students to learn how to read and write independently. The majority of Josie's and Abby's fourth-grade students could read and write independently. Josie and Abby placed more emphasis on using reading and writing to gain information and to function in life.

Interns' perceptions of literacy included enjoyment as well as use. Holly said, her whole philosophy of reading was that "it is enjoyable and exciting." For Abby, literacy "is where you read, you write, you comprehend. It's enjoyment and

scholarship, and everything that you'd have to do with it." Abby explained how reading and writing skill was important for success in life. She said comprehension is important because, throughout life, students will need to be able to read documents "that might be informational and have important effects on [their] lives or on [their] jobs."

Josie also saw literacy as important for success in life. She said:

If you don't know how to read, you're up the creek. If you don't know how to write, you're up the creek. You can't move on to the next level. You can't fill out a job application, you can't write a research paper for college, you can't type a memo for your boss.

Literacy for Josie's students "came in everything....It's the groundwork for everything else." She clarified what she meant by that, "I mean any type of instruction is going to have some form of literacy involved in it....Somewhere along the way there's going to be writing involved and there's going to be reading involved, or both." For students, literacy meant reading and writing for a variety of reasons.

Literacy for Self

Literacy was personally valued as a part of each intern's life. All three interns read for enjoyment, for learning, and to achieve personal and professional goals. Josie said she read "for the pure pleasure of it." Abby said, "That's the only way I sleep at night. Can't go to bed without reading." Holly explained what reading meant to her when she said:

Whenever you read a book, and even children's novels are just fantastic at doing this, you really get to know the person. Almost like you can become them, when you're reading. And for me that's my favorite part of literacy. Becoming another person, experiencing their life, experiencing something that is totally different than you, yourself are living.

All three interns read to learn. Abby said, "If you really want to know something, how do you know? You go to a book. You find it in a book and you read up on it is one way." Josie reads to prepare for teaching. She said, "Before I taught a lesson on democracy I had to research it. I looked it up on the internet. I looked it up in the encyclopedia." As a reader, Holly said, "I'm always looking for information about literacy in books." Holly read several books and articles in her search for information about how to implement readers' workshop in her first-grade classroom.

All three interns wrote for personal reasons. Holly aspired to "retire and write children's novels." Abby explained, "I have napkins and scraps of paper where I start a poem or something, and I'm like, 'Oh gosh! If I could only have 20 minutes of peace and quiet. I might be able to sit and do something with this.'" Whereas writing is valued as a creative endeavor for Holly and Abby, Josie said, "I write for communication purposes." Josie used the internet to communicate with people, "like a telephone conversation." She said, "I think that's the way I'll use writing in the future, is communication."

All three interns valued literacy as a way to achieve personal and professional goals. Holly "found [her] niche" in advanced English classes in high school where she believed she could adequately prepare for college. Abby believes literacy can be used "to better yourself and move on." Josie agreed. She said, "If you don't know how to read and write.... You can't move on to the next level."

Summary

Similarities in interns' perceptions of literacy were that literacy involves reading and writing in a way that communicates meaning. For all three interns literacy is personally valued and enjoyed as a part of their lives. Interns' experiences of literacy in their personal lives is similar to what they wanted for students to experience. They all wanted students to enjoy reading and writing, and be able to use reading and writing to enhance their own learning.

Differences in perceptions of literacy were in what interns focused on as most important for their learners. For Holly, there was more emphasis on teaching first-grade students to learn how to read and write; for Abby and Josie there was more emphasis on using reading to learn content, to function in their lives, and to share learning through writing.

How do Interns Construct Their Perceptions of Literacy?

Interns perceptions of literacy for self and for students is that literacy involves reading and writing for enjoyment, and for learning. Interns have positive perceptions of literacy. The answer to this question is organized around two themes: home and school. Interns discussed experiences in both places that contributed to their perceptions of literacy as reading and writing for enjoyment and learning.

Home

When I asked interns how they came to their views of literacy, Josie talked about being motivated by expectations and examples of literate role models in her home environment. She said, "I saw a lot of motivation put toward me in my family." She

said, "I've got pictures of me when I was little, holding a book, when I was barely old enough to hold my head up." Josie described reading at home as "soothing and relaxing." Her father wrote "all the time. He wrote notes in every book he owned."

Abby said her view of literacy, "Started with the home...where I was encouraged to read and reading was a very huge part of daily activities. Three generations of readers...I had the home atmosphere of 'Well, you're a reader.'" As a toddler, Abby was encouraged to add verses to the family Bible. She said that she "enjoyed writing since before I could form letters."

Holly did not remember home as a literate environment. She said, "Unfortunately, my home literacy is not the same as the other interns." She doesn't have early memories of parents reading to her. Though her mom was a reader, Holly said, "She hasn't really been much of an inspiration to me. It's been more my teachers. Two in particular. One in middle school and one in high school that have influenced me to be a reader."

School

Holly's interest in reading and books began in sixth grade when her teacher read aloud to the class every day. Holly recalled that experience, "I would listen to her and she would read to us and it was wonderful! I mean I've written letters of thank-you. And I go back to visit her still today. From then on, I've just loved reading." In high school, Holly was further motivated to read by the expectations of a high school teacher who "forced" her to read what she came to value as good literature, such as Shakespeare, and Edith Wharton. She said, "Forcing you to do it you just realized,

'Hey, this is not so bad. I can do this!'" For Holly it was the authors that she has read that have been role models for the kind of writing she enjoys.

School literacy for Josie was different from home literacy. Josie used words such as "boring," "repetitious," "negative," to describe school literacy. Reading at home was "fun." The difference between school and home literacy for Abby was that she recalled a "house full of books" and reading for "pleasure" at home. She did not remember much about reading in elementary school, and did not go into detail about her experiences there. She said, "I don't remember much of elementary school... what reader I had and things like that." Holly described the early years of school reading as "boring phonics junk," "sounding out words," and "lots and lots of dittoes." She said she "hated first grade." She didn't remember learning much during the rest of elementary school. Holly recalled middle school differently, "But middle school, sixth grade. Miss B. That made all the difference!"

Summary

Interns' perceptions of literacy as reading and writing for enjoyment and for learning, were constructed in literate environments where they had literate role models and expectations for literate behavior. For all three interns, positive perceptions about literacy related to enjoyable experiences with books. Holly did not recall the literate home environment that was described by the other two interns. School became the literate environment that helped her to construct her perceptions of literacy as something that is enjoyable.

Interns' perceptions of reading in elementary school, were not memorable, or they were negative for these interns. Only Holly recalled reading in school as a positive experience, and that did not happen for Holly until middle school.

An important insight to be gleaned from Holly's experience is that school played a significant part in her developing positive perceptions of literacy. Holly's experience suggests that positive perceptions of literacy can be constructed in sixth grade by listening to teachers read aloud, and appreciation for reading literature can be developed in high school.

What Does Literacy Instruction Mean to Interns?

Answers to this question centered around beliefs and knowledge, classroom practices, and an envisioned ideal. Interns talked about what they knew and believed, what they did in their primary placement classrooms, and what they hoped to be able to do in their own classrooms in the future. All three interns agreed that literacy instruction involved the teaching of reading and writing. They agreed that literacy instruction occurred throughout the day, in different content areas, as a result of teacher-directed and student-directed instruction. They talked about the mentoring teachers' established practices for teaching literacy as well as practices they added to the established routine schedule. Interns also talked about an image of literacy instruction that I refer to as their envisioned ideal.

Beliefs and Knowledge

New Way/Old Way

Josie introduced the idea that there is a “new way” to teach literacy and an “old way” to teach literacy. She focused on teaching reading. The old way to teach reading was the way she was taught to read in school. She described that experience as “rote memorization... flash cards, Dick and Jane books, worksheets, no trade books. Absolutely nothing real. Stupid stories.” She compared the old way to the new way, “Whereas, now, I like the idea of the trade books.” By trade book, Josie meant, “Something not written, on purpose, for a basal. It was written for the enjoyment of everybody.” Josie elaborated on the difference between a Dick and Jane book and a trade book in the following way:

Dick and Jane were static flat characters. They were always the same, always blue-eyed, blonde-haired kids running around with a ball and a dog. But with the trade books, you’ve got African American literature. I never, ever, ever got that. You’ve got Katherine Patterson, The Cry of the Nightengale. And that’s Asian American studies and information. So you can pull in all these different cultures. And real life, real human, emotional feeling individuals.

Teaching reading the new way “is more involved, instead of rote worksheet pages, and reading the basals with teacher-directed questions that are written at the bottom of the basal page.” Josie added, “I think the new way of teaching literacy incorporates readers’ and writers’ workshop, not just trade books.”

When Holly thought about the old way to teach literacy, she recalled her own school experiences of learning to read:

I think of those old preprimer books that we read when we were in school. With the dumb stories, that to me weren’t reading. They were just words.

Sounding out words. They had no meaning. And I remember lots and lots of dittoes when I was in school.

The new way to teach literacy, in Holly's opinion is:

Definitely more, real meaningful reading books. Where you don't just sound out the word to figure out what it is. Where you look for context clues, and you look at illustrations, and you try to put it all together that this is not just words. This is a story. And it has meaning behind it.

Abby said the old way to teach literacy is "memorization," "drill," and "repetition." Abby referred to the difference between the new way and the old way of teaching literacy in the following way:

The new way is wanting to inspire learning. The old way is demanding learning. And when you demand, you're going to get some rebellion, or it's not as much fun as discovery. When they discover, discovery learning becomes enthusiasm and excitement and then they start wanting to learn and they push you.

All three interns distinguished between the new and the old way to teach literacy.

Confusion/Clarification

A distinction between the old way to teach literacy and the new way to teach literacy may have created some confusion about what literacy instruction meant to interns. At the beginning of this semester, interns had difficulty articulating their perceptions of literacy instruction. When asked what literacy instruction meant to her, Holly replied, "That's difficult to answer because I feel like I'm still feeling my way through it." Josie had difficulty articulating what literacy instruction meant to her, "I think of it, anything that has to do with literacy. Something teacher led." Then she added that literacy instruction included things that she was not leading, such as readers' and writers' workshop, "because [the students] are instructing themselves."

When Abby talked about literacy instruction, she began with a discussion of reading and writing skills; however, she ended up talking about how literacy and being literate were different. She said, "literacy and being literate are two different things. I think literacy encompasses more of the comprehending." For Abby, being literate means "you recognize the words, and you can say them, and you can probably pass a reading test." But literacy was "more than just being able to look at something and have a memorized sound that comes out of your mouth when you see that particular word." Abby changed the question of what literacy instruction meant to what literacy meant.

Clarification of interns' views of literacy instruction were expressed at the end of the semester. Abby articulated the following meaning for literacy instruction:

I guess all of us would probably agree, reading and writing. They're not one and the same, but they are so tightly linked together that you can't have one without the other. So the teaching of reading and writing is the first thing that hits.

Holly agreed with Abby. Josie also agreed, and she added an assessment element to her view of literacy instruction: "That is the way that most people assess kids. Is through their writing and their readings." By the end of the semester, literacy instruction meant teaching reading and writing.

Learning to Read and Write

It is helpful to understand interns' perceptions of literacy instruction in light of their beliefs and knowledge about how children learn to read and write. All three interns considered learning to read and write a developmental process that occurred

over time as students engaged in reading and writing. Abby used a metaphor to describe learning to read and write:

I'm working on a mansion in my literary life, and in my growth as a reader and a writer. I'm still adding turrets and little stained glass windows and beautiful things in there. Some people probably never get past the foundation. And so I think in first grade you get that their foundation is laid and they're starting to build the bricks. And by fourth grade we've got some walls, but there's not any extravagance. And it's going to take their whole educational careers.

She added, "I hopefully gave students a start at some of these words and some of these ideas that are not going to be fulfilled until possibly they're in their forties or fifties."

Josie believed children progress in reading as they matured. She said, "Not only mental maturity but also emotional [and physical] maturity. Because you have to be emotionally mature to handle some of the situations in the books." She also believed in the importance of an supportive environment in helping to develop reading skill. She said, "It's part the maturity, the genetic makeup, and it's also environment. Because more than likely, that little five year-old, who can read in kindergarten has a background support system behind him."

Josie believed writing developed as children experimented with writing. She emphasized intrinsic motivation as important in developing writing skill:

I don't think you can teach a child to write, or to love writing. I think that has to come from within. And I think what I can do as a teacher is give them ideas of how to construct their ideas on paper. Not teach them writing. But say, 'This is what we, in the normal work world, call a paragraph. And this is the basic structure of a paragraph.' But to actually teach writing is a very hard task. And if the children can experiment on their own, like in writers workshop, then the children are one step ahead of where I could get them.

Holly had some idea of how children develop as readers, but she was aware that she was not really sure how children learned to read. She said:

I think that they start out, and you kind of have to give them the opportunity to read by giving them repetitive material. So that they can gain confidence. That's probably the first step. And they need to read the same kind of books over and over again until they feel like they can read it. Even though they may not be exactly, you know, reading it according to phonics and on their own and all that stuff. But they probably move on from the repetitive...to connecting the sounds with the letters and the words. And then they start to blend those together. And then slowly, I've seen, from Fall to Spring, my children progress from using pure phonics in reading to using the context of the words around the word that they're not sure about. And, I don't know. I guess I'm still discovering that right now. I'm not sure.

Holly had more definite ideas about how writing develops. She said:

Practice. Practice. Practice. Practice. I think the more you write, the better you get. Even if you don't even try. I mean it always seems to me that children who even write a little bit, give them a few months and all of the sudden, boom! They're writing huge stories! And they didn't even realize they were doing it. So that's my opinion about that.

All three interns believed that children develop skill in reading and writing over time, by having opportunities to read and write. Literacy goals expressed by all three interns were that they wanted their students to enjoy reading and writing and they wanted them to become independent readers and writers who could use literacy to learn, and to communicate to others. Related to those beliefs are interns' perceptions that literacy instruction includes teacher-directed and student-directed learning. Additional insight into what literacy instruction means to interns can be gained by their discussion of how literacy instruction fit into their classroom curriculum.

Classroom Practices

Classroom practices included those that were a part of the mentoring teacher's established routine schedule as well as practices the interns added to the schedule. At the beginning of the semester, when asked how literacy instruction fit into their school day, interns talked about how literacy instruction related to the existing classroom schedule. They later talked about literacy instruction that they added to the existing classroom schedule.

Established Practices

Abby explained how literacy instruction fit into her daily schedule, "In reading we work on reading and literacy and teaching them to comprehend." She talked about teaching "reading skills that are required for the TCAP." TCAP in this setting refers to the Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program, a statewide standardized achievement test that is given yearly to students in grades two through twelve.

Abby talked about learning "correct grammatical writing" in language arts so students would be able to "communicate thoughts and ideas with other people." Reading for information in social studies, following directions in science, and solving word problems in math were ways literacy instruction fit into Abby's the classroom schedule.

Holly related literacy instruction to reading, science, and math. Literacy instruction in reading included modeling reading for students, reading aloud to students, phonics dittoes, the reading series, and homework books. Literacy instruction

in science included reading and writing about the planets. In math, word problems involved literacy instruction.

Josie explained how literacy instruction fit into her schedule,

We do have the readers' and writers' workshops. We rotate those all the time. We work with reading.... They're always working on something. So as far as instructional literacy, I guess you could call it... We do some English. And we try to tie that back into their real lives and then we have the reading. And of course we have the writing that goes on with the English and the reading with the social studies and all that. But for their ownership and not instructional, we have readers' and writers' workshop.

Josie made a distinction between "instructional literacy" and literacy "for their ownership." She believed both were literacy instruction. Instructional literacy, in this case, refers to teacher-directed instruction; literacy for their ownership refers to student-directed involvement in reading and writing. Based on her belief that a supportive environment with opportunities to read and write help children develop proficiency in reading and writing, it is understandable that Josie considered readers' and writers' workshop a kind of literacy instruction.

Additions to Established Practice

Holly and Abby added classroom practices to their mentoring teachers' established routine schedule to include more student-directed learning as a kind of literacy instruction. Abby added writers' workshop to the established routine. For Abby, writers' workshop was, "A stimulating writing period involving mini-lessons, conferences, and a time for sharing [in which] students choose topics, style and genre." Writers' workshop was a time of the day in which Abby could bring in moving pieces of literature, poetry, music, or art to inspire learning. For example, Abby chose to

read a picture storybook as a mini-lesson preceding writing. She said, "The main reason I introduced that was beautiful pictures and the eloquence of the language." After writing time, Abby noticed that the story "did inspire the writing of the child." It confirmed her belief. She said, "When you do bring in good literature, and not only good literature, but music and artwork...the fact is that you're inspiring them to do something. And that something is to write." Inspiring learning is what Abby perceives is the new way to teach literacy.

Holly added independent reading and buddy reading to her mentoring teacher's classroom schedule. Both of these activities included student-directed learning as a kind of literacy instruction. Holly explained what independent reading meant, "We wrote down our authors and our titles and then we found a spot in the room and we read." Independent reading was Holly's way of providing students opportunities to read independently. She purposefully added more time for free-choice reading and reading aloud from a variety of books. To Holly, "independent" meant "free from [her] help" although she did "encourage students to help each other."

Buddy reading was another opportunity for students to read in self-directed ways. Buddy reading was a chance for first-grade students to "experience interacting with an older student to see how they read." Holly saw buddy reading as a time where students were "learning to be sensitive to other people's needs....Learning to read to someone and to listen to someone."

For Josie, student-directed learning was built into the mentoring teacher's established schedule in the form of readers' and writers' workshop. Josie added a novel

study to change the established routine of teaching reading from the basal. For Josie, literacy instruction as a novel study was one way to “introduce students to a different genre.” Some aspects of the novel study were student-directed while others were teacher-directed.

Josie’s novel study, Abby’s writers’ workshop, and Holly’s independent reading and buddy reading were added to the existing curriculum. These forms of literacy instruction add to an understanding of what literacy instruction means to interns. When asked how they experienced literacy instruction during their primary field placement this year each intern referred to literacy instruction that she added to the existing curriculum. Abby said, “I researched and implemented writers’ workshop.” She added,

Other than that, we did the basics. Everything was your fairly normal. Read a story, fill out the dittoes, read the math problems, answer them...you know, read something and then, how well did you understand it? Read it out loud, or read it silently, whatever. There would be a chunk of information that they were supposed to get and then, write and answer back.

Holly said that I would know how she experienced literacy instruction “from reading [her] paper.” She was referring to the action research paper, that she wrote about her experience of implementing independent reading and buddy reading. When I asked how she experienced teaching reading, Josie answered, “It was a new experience. Like I said, I’m not a big basal fan, so I stayed away from that. And that, in itself was a challenge.” She talked about her novel study:

In hindsight, I would have done more with The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe. But for my first try, I thought I was pretty successful, but I accomplished my goal. And that was to get the children into the story and hopefully, pursue the other ones in the series.

Interns' beliefs and knowledge and classroom practices provide some insight into what literacy instruction means to them. Interns also draw upon a vision of literacy instruction that adds to an understanding of what literacy instruction means to them. I refer to that image as an envisioned ideal.

Envisioned Ideal

All three interns talked about the way they hoped to teach literacy in the future. Their envisioned ideal for literacy instruction was a vision in which their practices matched their knowledge and beliefs about teaching, learning, and subject matter. For all three interns, their envisioned ideal included integrating reading and writing with the other content areas. Josie said:

I would like my whole curriculum to revolve around a book. I would love for math and science and spelling to revolve around a book. Holistically. Like The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe. I would love to pull out maybe some math lessons from that, some science lessons from that. I'd like to have the integrated curriculum.

Josie shared her view about what that would entail:

It would not happen the first year. I would think I would probably be burned out by the second six weeks if I tried to do that. It's a lot of work to put it all together. But maybe I could do one a year and by the end of six years I'd have 6 or 8 integrated units. That would be my ultimate goal, is to teach that way. But in the mean time, if I could teach like Ms. Paris, I'd be happy.

Josie's envisioned ideal for literacy instruction was similar to her mentoring teacher's practices. Josie said, "I don't think I had a style [of teaching] coming into it. So now my style is probably almost a carbon copy of hers." Josie explained why she would model her mentoring teacher, "What she does is what I've learned to do. So I learned about it cognitively, it's in my head. But I didn't learn really how to execute it

until this year.” Josie summed up her style of literacy instruction, “I say my style of teaching literacy, I’m just like a little kid. I’m going to model her.”

Holly said that her view of reading instruction is “sort of reversed” from her mentoring teacher’s view. Holly’s view is “Get the meaning first, and use phonics, of course. But it shouldn’t be your primary [way]. If there’s no context clues, there are no illustrations, there’s no way you can find out what it is, sound it out.” Holly expressed her perception of her mentoring teacher’s view of teaching reading, “It’s phonics. And once you can sound out the word, then you can get the meaning. Then maybe you can understand what you’re reading. But you have to sound it out first.”

Holly said she didn’t teach writing to her first grade students. Her students did handwriting by copying spelling sentences off of the board, and they used the computer keyboard to type spelling sentences into the computer. Holly said, “I don’t really see that as literacy. I would much rather them be typing something that comes out of their own head.” Holly talked about her envisioned ideal for teaching writing:

I like a writing center. Where they can just go and just write. And there’s paper and pencils, and a typewriter. And you can get on the computer and not just type out someone’s sentences that someone else composed, but make up your own. And you can spell it however you think it’s spelled instead of having to be perfect. That’s kind of my goal.

When talking about her ideal classroom Holly said:

I would love to be able to teach reading where it just would permeate the whole day. Whatever subjects that you’re teaching would just involve reading and writing. So you wouldn’t have to set aside thirty minutes and say ‘We’re going to teach reading. Get our your reading books.’ I would love for it to just flow throughout the day. If we’re learning about math, we’re going to write story problems. If we’re learning about science we’re going to write about the planets. We’re going to write about the universe. And then I like centers too. They play a big part in literacy, in my mind, anyway.

Holly's envisioned ideal for teaching literacy was not similar to her mentoring teacher's style of teaching.

Abby didn't have a clear vision of how to go about teaching reading differently than her mentoring teacher taught. She remembered learning to read in a way that was very similar to the way her mentoring teacher taught reading. According to Abby, her mentoring teacher "would be considered traditional." To Abby traditional meant "using more of the old ways to teach literacy." Abby's mentoring teacher used the published reading series and focused on teaching reading skills. Abby expressed a desire to teach differently but said she didn't know how. As an avid reader, Abby knows books and wants to be able to introduce those books to her students. But has not yet developed a vision of what that might look like. She said, "How am I going to get a chance to give them [students] these beautiful, wonderful pieces of literature if I'm required to stay within the confines of a reading book?" Abby lacked a clear envisioned ideal for teaching reading differently from the way her mentoring teacher taught reading.

In contrast, Abby had a clear vision for teaching writing. She said, "My ideal is that I want writers' workshop every day in my classroom. And I want children writing and creating and sharing and treating each other in a community spirit."

Abby expressed her envisioned ideal for an integrated curriculum:

What I'm hoping is that when I do get a job, which I'm sure the first year is going to be really hard because you don't get the [teachers'] manuals. But after I've had a class and I know the next year that is my room, I will have all summer to know what I've taught, and to sit there and think, 'How can I take these stories, incorporate my science, and plan everything so that at least falls in the same line?'

Abby summed up thoughts about the difference between how she is now teaching and how she hopes to teach literacy one day:

I'm not there yet. I don't know how to achieve the ideal. But I do have the hopes and the dreams for it. And I know it's going to take some more work and learning, and so I'm real frustrated with I don't know everything yet. And I want to know everything because I want to do a good job. And so the main thing is to realize when I'm talking, I'm hoping for an ideal even though I may not know yet how I'm going to get it.

Holly and Josie had similar thoughts about their awareness of developing as teachers.

All three interns talked about themselves as learners or learning. All three had an envisioned ideal of the kind of teacher they would like to be and the kind of learning environment they would like to provide for learners.

Summary

Interns' beliefs and knowledge, their classroom practices, and their envisioned ideal all add to an understanding of interns' perceptions of literacy instruction. All three interns believe there is a new way and an old way to teach literacy. They incorporated both in their classroom practices. They clarified confusion about what literacy instruction meant as they progressed through the year-long internship. By the end of the internship, all three interns agreed that literacy instruction involved the teaching of reading and writing. Interns agreed that children develop reading and writing skill over time through opportunities to read for enjoyment and for learning. They included teacher-directed and student-directed instruction in their perceptions of literacy instruction.

Literacy instruction for these interns included practices established by the mentoring teacher as well as additions to the mentoring teachers' established practices. Additions to the mentoring teachers' established practices were attempts on the part of the interns to experiment with some aspect of their envisioned ideal. For Holly additions to established practices meant providing students with more time to read, a greater variety of books, and choice of reading material. Additions to established practice for Abby provided students with time to write on topics of their own choosing and opportunities to share their writing. Josie's addition to the established schedule was her way to break away from using the basal reading series to introduce students to a trade book that she believed was an excellent example of a new genre for students.

Interns recognized differences in how they now teach literacy and how they hope to teach literacy in the future. Each intern pictured, as her envisioned ideal, an integrated, holistic curriculum in which reading, writing, and the content areas could be interwoven into literacy learning experiences for students. They expressed a need for more learning, more time, more experience, and a better understanding of the curriculum and materials as prerequisites for their ability to develop a holistic, integrated curriculum for their students.

The following section adds further insight into what literacy and literacy instruction means to interns as they experienced it in the context of everyday teaching. It presents data about what interns did in their classrooms as well as what they thought about what they did in their classrooms.

How Do Interns Experience Literacy Instruction In the Classroom Context?

I set out to observe interns teaching in the classroom context in an attempt to better understand their experiences of literacy instruction. The limited focus on literacy instruction is reflective of my interests. Though observations and interviews were designed to collect data about literacy and literacy instruction, interns often diverged from the topic of literacy to that of the internship in general. Interns' experiences of teaching literacy occurred in the context of the internship. To understand interns' experiences of teaching literacy one must consider the larger context of the internship in general, which influenced their decision-making, their teaching, and their view of themselves in the classroom context. In an attempt to understand interns' experiences of literacy instruction during the internship experience it is necessary to situate this experience in the larger experience of what it means to Josie, Holly, and Abby to be interns. Their perceptions of what it is like to be interns are helpful in understanding the choices they made while engaged in literacy instruction.

The Internship as A Stressful Situation

During a final group interview with all three interns, Josie referred to her experience as an intern in this setting as "a strange situation." For all three interns the internship as a strange situation related to the amount of stress they experienced as interns. Josie explained that financial stressors, role confusion, lack of status, and overwhelming work load contributed to her feelings of the internship as a strange situation. Josie said, "Money was a stress, but I don't think it was my biggest stress. I

think probably for me the role was. I didn't know where I needed to fit in." She described an experience that illustrated her feelings of having low status:

Some lady came through the building hollering, 'Interns! Interns! Interns! She said, 'I was hollering for you all. You should have let me know you were in this room.' I said, 'Well, we do have names, you know.' We're less. In the kids' eyes, we're second best because we're not the real teacher.

Josie compared her status as intern to that of teachers as "like a caste system." She said, "You're under them and there's no way you can change levels."

Josie described the workload in this way, "It just got more stressful and more stressful, as it went on. It was fun and then it got to breakdown time for me." She talked about how all the stressors added up until she had "a mini-emotional breakdown." She said:

I just had all I could handle. And it happened to me one night after PTO. That was just all I could handle. It was my breaking point. And I broke all that night. Broke all the next day. Broke all that weekend. And still wasn't completely mended on that Monday. It was just a mini-emotional breakdown.

Holly also described an stress-related emotional experience. Lack of recognition and feelings of having no control contributed to Holly's perception of the internship as a stressful situation. She said:

No matter how hard you work, you're not going to get any recognition for it. I experienced during parent-teacher conferences, parents would just go on and on to my mentoring teacher about how everything was wonderful, and their kids were happy, and they were excited about all the things they were doing in school. And they not once looked at me, thanked me, said a word to me, about anything. And I thought, 'Do you realize how much I teach?' Because this was the time whenever I had taken over. And no one said a word to me. No one thanked me for anything. And I just felt like crud! I just went home and cried because I thought I've done all this for nothing!

One of the most stressful aspects of being an intern for Holly was feeling like she had no control in her life. She said:

I feel like the whole year, my biggest problem has been this amazing feeling of I have no control. I have no control over my life. I have no control over what happens in my family, what happens with financial problems. I can't control what happens at school. I never know if it is going to be a good day or a bad day, if I'm going to be allowed to teach, if I'm going to have to take over suddenly. I never know what's going to happen next. And that whole inconsistency from day to day just drives me crazy.

Abby, too, was frustrated by feelings of lack of control:

You basically don't even have control over when you go to the bathroom any more. You have to let somebody know everything you're doing almost all day, every day. And they make the decision if you are or not going to do that.

Abby also discussed her feelings of lack of support which added to the stress she experienced as an intern:

There needs to be a support system where you can go and vent. I've heard of interns who every week, at a different school, would get together and eat and just vent. You know, 'My kids pulled this on me today. Am I nuts?' 'Oh no, last week my kids did the same thing.' You could get some real learning conversations going in that. By just saying, 'OK, I'm not insane, it's not just me, I'm not the only one who doesn't have any control of my life and my classroom.'

A support system for Abby includes educators that are knowledgeable and can offer advice. Her perceptions are that she lacks a knowledgeable support group where she can honestly share feelings of inadequacy and frustration as illustrated by this quote:

I only have like a couple of people I can actually go say, 'You know, it's really been a rotten day' And, you know, 'I don't know how to handle this.' And get advice. My family can't give advice on that. My family's not educators. Only fellow interns, fellow educators, and other teachers can give you that wisdom of how to deal with the things that you see every day.

Part of the stress for Abby is the paradox of having to appear that she knows how to teach at the same time that she is trying to learn how to teach. The public and evaluative nature of their learning adds to interns' perceptions of the internship as a stressful situation. Interns are not considered students but they do not yet consider themselves teachers. To be a teacher they must be successful in proving to others that they are competent. In addition to successfully passing three formal observations that are required for state licensure, interns also had to obtain passing grades for the internship and the course work they completed as a part of the licensure requirements. Abby explained how difficult it was for her to appear competent when she lacked knowledge and experience:

I was very confused and frustrated and stressed by all the requirements, and those people who were going to be watching me. I had a lot of people; it wasn't just the students sitting there that I had to manage to impress or to please. I had to please myself, my mentoring teacher, possibly my principal, and my University supervisor and anybody who came in that room who was looking for 'Is this intern going to make it as a teacher?'

Josie included parents in the audience of people who evaluate her ability as a teacher. She talked about feeling judged by parents when she said:

You're stuck in a rock and a hard place. You're in a catch 22. When parents don't recognize you, you want to speak up. But you're afraid to because they're going to go, 'Well, what do you have to say anything about?'

The burden of proof that interns' deserve the recognition and the raise in status from intern to teacher is on the intern. Holly discussed the situation of feeling like she needed to prove to others that she knows what she is doing. When talking about adding independent reading to the established curriculum, Holly said:

I feel like I have to walk around and make sure that they're [the students] using their time wisely. That they really are interested in the book and that they're reading it. They're not playing around. Because you know, I've got my mentoring teacher who's just letting me do what I want, And I want to show her that I'm not an idiot. That they really are doing something worthwhile.

According to the theoretical perspective of symbolic interactionism and the basic tenets of naturalistic inquiry, individuals shape situations just as the situation shapes individuals. Lacy (1977) used the construct "social strategy" to explain how the "individual actor, who is at the intersection of biography and the 'social situation' has some freedom to manipulate and change the situation while at the same time being constrained to adjust to it" (Lacy, 1977, p. 95). In a study of preservice teachers during their graduate teacher training year at Sussex University, Lacy (1977) used the construct "social strategies" to understand how interns were socialized into the teaching profession. Lacy selected the term social strategies to refer to the purposeful selection of appropriate action based on interpretation of a specific situation. He emphasized the "autonomy of the individual in the face of coercive social pressures" (p. 67).

Woods (1996) refers to socialization as "an active adaptation of the circumstances [individuals] find themselves in" (p. 35). Woods contends that social situations set conditions for action but do not determine action. It is through a process of interaction with the self and others that individuals interpret each situation and select appropriate action for response.

I argue that interns used social strategies as an active adaptation to the stressful situation of being an intern in order to appear competent, to gain acceptance,

and to experiment with teaching ideas based on their perceptions of an envisioned ideal. Interns' envisioned ideal was an image each intern had of teaching, in which their knowledge and beliefs about how children learn to read and write matched the practices they thought would support reading and writing growth for students.

Financial stress, role confusion, low status, lack of recognition, no control, lack of support, an overwhelming work load, and the public and evaluative nature of the internship experience created a strange situation for interns. It is within the stressful situation of the internship that interns engaged in literacy instruction during the second semester of the year-long internship. Literacy instruction as the application of social strategies that interns used to adjust to the internship as a stressful situation is used as the framework for describing how interns experienced literacy instruction during the second semester of the year-long internship.

Literacy Instruction as the Application of Social Strategies

The purpose of this study is to better understand the experiences of interns as they engaged in literacy instruction. Data presentation in this section attempts to go beyond describing how interns teach literacy to understanding what that experience was like for them. Three methods of data collection were used to gain understanding: classroom observations, interviews, and document examination. As data analysis progressed, it became clear that interview data based on observations and document examination were most relevant in eliciting understanding from interns' perspectives. Therefore, this section emphasizes interview data that adds to an understanding of the

meanings interns ascribed to their experiences of teaching literacy in the classroom context.

Interns experienced literacy instruction as the application of social strategies that enabled them to assert autonomy during the internship, which they described as a stressful situation. They used the following social strategies to adjust to perceived expectations of others and to adapt to their mentoring teachers' established routine practices for teaching literacy: conformity, compromise, and change. Conformity refers to teaching literacy like the mentoring teacher teaches literacy. Compromise refers to the strategy interns used to combine their own ideas for teaching literacy with their mentoring teachers' established routine practices. Change refers to the strategy interns used to break from the mentoring teachers' established routine practices. Change enabled interns to own the teaching and teach in ways that were consistent with their envisioned ideals. Interns' reasons for choosing to conform to, to compromise, or to change literacy instruction in the classroom contexts varied.

Conformity

Conforming is what interns do when they adopt the mentoring teacher's established routine and her practices for teaching literacy. At times, interns conformed to their mentoring teachers' practices of literacy instruction because those practices were consistent with interns' envisioned ideals. But, interns also conformed when the mentoring teachers' established practices were not consistent with envisioned ideals. Interns' discussed several factors that related to conforming when practices were

inconsistent with beliefs: perceived expectations of others, lack of knowledge, lack of authority, convenience, and the need to be successful.

Abby. Abby conformed to her mentoring teacher's established routine for teaching reading from the published reading series. Abby described how reading instruction fit into the routine daily schedule. From 8:00 to 8:30 in the morning, students wrote in journals on assigned topics or they read silently. At approximately 8:30 is when Abby said, "We start our academic subjects. We start with reading.... Then from reading we branch off into spelling, language arts, and social studies. And they generally go in that order."

Reading instruction was generally teacher-directed and involved introducing students to a story a week from the published reading series to the whole-class as one group. Abby explained how the established routine of reading a story a week conveniently fit into the yearly school calendar, which is divided into 6-week grading periods. Abby said she did "two stories and then a week of all the poems in the unit, and then 2 stories after that, for the 6 weeks. So that would work out to a total of 5 weeks." The sixth week was used to "cover any additional skills" and "take the unit test."

Abby described the daily routine she used for teaching reading from the reading book, "On Monday, in some way shape or form, we would read the story.... I would introduce the vocabulary.... discuss the story.... then on Tuesday we would review the vocabulary.... then on Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday, you would pretty much do two or more of the skills, during the reading time."

When Abby was planning to “take over” reading, she said she planned to teach reading “the same way she does.” Abby meant she would be teaching reading the same way her mentoring teacher does. Abby discussed several factors in her choice to conform to her mentoring teacher’s style of teaching reading. Abby conformed based on perceptions of her mentoring teacher’s expectations. Abby believed she “had to stay within this book. Anything I wanted to do with that book was probably possible. But to go outside that book, I’m not sure she [mentoring teacher] was very open. Or if she was, that was not communicated to me.”

Lack of knowledge about alternative practices for teaching reading also influenced Abby to conform. She said, “I don’t like how I teach reading. I don’t like how reading is taught. But I don’t know how to do any better, or any different.” She referred to the paradox of having to appear that she knows what she is doing while she is learning what to do:

I’m still learning [to teach reading]. I’m not satisfied with how I teach them [students]. But I’m struggling to survive and make it through and appear to be in control of myself and the material and do a good job for the people who are checking.

She later added:

I figured that relying on what had already been proven to my teacher, that she felt comfortable with, that would satisfy her, and it also gave me a guideline in which if somebody came in I could always say, ‘Well, the book said to do this. And that’s why I did it. When asked those hard questions of, ‘What’s your reasoning?’ At least I had some possible answers. I could say well the researchers created this book so there must be something valuable with doing it this way.

There were aspects of the established routine for teaching reading from the published reading series that Abby liked. She liked the idea of having students listen to a story tape on the first day of the reading routine because students “can hear the correct pronunciation of all the words. And they can read along... Then I don’t mind so much calling on somebody to read a paragraph. Because they’ve looked at the words before; they’ve heard the words before.” Abby also liked the authentic dialects on the cassette tapes. She appreciated the authenticity the taped voices brought to characters in the stories. Abby liked using transparencies to teach skills. She said the transparency, “forces us to talk about it [the skill being taught], and students are getting to see the right answers.” She also liked the convenience of having something that was already planned. She said, “There are moments when if you’re really busy [the teacher’s manual] is helpful because it’s all planned out and guided for you.”

Abby conformed to her mentoring teacher’s established routine of teaching reading due to perceived expectations of others, convenience, lack of knowledge, and because she liked some of the practices. Conformity helped Abby to feel successful while teaching.

Holly. Holly conformed to her mentoring teacher’s routine morning schedule, and to some aspects of reading instruction. The morning routine in this first-grade classroom is labeled “Language Arts Block” on the written daily schedule and occurs from 8:30 to 10:30 every morning.

The language arts block in this classroom, as I observed it, involved students working at their desks, on dittos or handwriting, and rotating in groups of four, to

work at the computers in the back of the room. During the language arts block, I observed Holly or her mentoring teacher call individual students to them and direct students to read words and sentences in student homework books. Occasionally, I saw Holly work with students individually on science activities that she had planned. On Mondays and Thursdays the Chapter I teacher took half of the class at a time into the commons area for thirty minutes each, for reading instruction.

Holly described the morning routine this way:

It's pretty much the same routine where we explain the dittos, one is usually math, one's phonics, and the other, well, that's handwriting. And they do those three in the morning and they rotate on the computers and that is basically our set routine.

Holly explained how reading instruction fit into the morning routine:

We read the story from the series. And we have dittoes that go with the story. And we do those. Sometimes we'll try and do an activity related to the story....Like we'll do an activity with a book once every few weeks.

Holly explained that students would read the story aloud on Monday or Tuesday. "And then they would do worksheets about the story for the rest of the week."

Reading instruction also included "doing homework books" that went with the reading series. Holly described reading instruction with homework books:

Every night they have a page they have to do. And they are supposed to review over the words and the sentences....And the parents are supposed to go over this with them and sign on the line at the bottom. And then the next day we listen to them read to us.

Holly said that she or her mentoring teacher “checked homework books every single day. And if you miss a day, which happens, Oh, I regret it! It’s so bad if I miss a day because then you have to check 2 pages and it takes twice as long.”

Holly conformed to the practice of assigning homework books for reading because she liked some aspects of that practice. About homework books, Holly said, “I wish there were more context clues and maybe some illustrations to go along with it. But if it gets parents involved in their children’s learning then that’s just great!” The opportunity that homework books gave Holly to spend one-on-one time with students was consistent with her envisioned ideal for teaching and learning. Holly explained:

I think that it’s very good to have a teacher-student relationship. One-on-one time. That fits in with me quite well. I had planned on doing that. Maybe not with homework books, but definitely in some form in the future, in my own classroom.

Homework books also “help[ed] out a lot” in evaluating reading ability of students.

At times, Holly conformed to practices that she did not like because of lack of knowledge about what else might be done. As a part of reading instruction, Holly conformed to the practice of having students take turns reading out loud from their reading series book in front of the whole class. The routine she used for teaching reading always included one day in which students read in this fashion. Holly explained, “Depending on the length and the difficulty of the story, I have them read it to me. And I really hated that. But I don’t know what else to do, honestly, with the reading series.”

Holly didn’t like the number of dittos that students did each day as a part of the morning routine. Holly said, “I don’t get a sense that they are picking up on what they

are supposed to be learning. With just the dittos.” Holly would have preferred to “get rid of the dittos for the morning.”

Holly explained her reason for conforming to the use of daily dittos as a part of literacy instruction, “I’ve been told that we can’t eliminate the dittos. Because I was saying, ‘Can’t we do them some other time, or cut down on the amount?’” Holly relayed her mentoring teacher’s explanation for using the dittos. In Holly’s words, her mentoring teacher said, “They’re [students] going to be doing a ton of dittos in second grade. So we can’t. We have to teach them how they’re done.” Holly concluded, “And that’s the way the dittos are....If you do them enough, you know how to do them. So that’s kind of a big pressure.” Meeting perceived expectations of second grade teachers was one reason Holly conformed to using dittos as a part of literacy instruction.

When I asked Holly what it was like for her to teach writing during her internship experience she said, “I never did. I always knew that it was lacking and that we should have some kind of writing. But there wasn’t enough time in the day.” She further explained “for them [first-grade students] handwriting is writing. Period. That’s just what it is.” Handwriting included “copying spelling sentences off the board.” Children copied sentences onto red and blue-lined handwriting paper every day. Writing was also typing spelling sentences at one of the computers in the back of the room. Sentences were displayed on a small stand to the right of one of the computers so that students could “copy and print them out.”

Holly explained why she conformed to the practice of providing students spelling sentences to copy at the computer even though it was not consistent with her

envisioned ideal for teaching writing. Holly said, "I would prefer that [students] were using their own imaginations, their own storytelling abilities. So I didn't like that very much. But I felt like I really needed to because we had always had that up there."

Holly summed up her feelings about trying to change her mentoring teacher's established morning routine, "In order for me to change the day, it would have to be carefully planned. Every little detail....Because the kids would be bum-buzzled." She added, "It might be kind of nice to do something different. But I took the easy way out." Conforming to the routine morning schedule was easier for Holly than trying to change it because of the expectations of students.

Holly conformed to established practices for teaching literacy in response to perceived expectations of the mentoring teacher, the second-grade teachers, and the students. She also conformed to practices that were not consistent with her envisioned ideal because she lacked knowledge about alternative practices. It was also easier, in some cases to conform than to change established routines. Holly conformed to the practice of using homework books to teach reading because the one-on-one structure and parent involvement was consistent with her vision of ideal teaching. She also used homework books as a convenient way to evaluate student ability in reading.

Josie. Josie conformed to her mentoring teacher's practice of alternating readers' and writers' workshop as the first part of the daily schedule because they matched Josie's envisioned ideal of literacy instruction. She said readers' and writers' workshop in her future classroom "would probably look a lot like it does now."

Readers' and writers' workshop in this fourth-grade classroom occurred on an alternating schedule first thing each morning until around 9:00. I observed two aspects to readers' workshop in this classroom. First the students read silently sitting at their desks or relaxed on pillows in the reading corner. Then two students were selected to share their books with class members. During the book share, class members and teachers responded with questions or comments.

For Josie, readers' workshop meant a time when "the kids read anything of their own choice....sometimes it's twenty minutes, sometimes it's forty-five. It depends on how much time we have that day." Goals for students were consistent with Josie's beliefs about the way students learn to read. Josie said she learned to read at home by "absorption." She added, "And that's they way I want them to learn. Is absorption. And writers' and readers' workshop gives them that time to absorb the books on their level." Josie's perception of readers' workshop was that it accomplished her "ultimate goal" for students: that they would learn to "enjoy reading and writing and going to the library and picking out their books."

Writers' workshop consisted of writing and sharing writing. Students wrote at their own desks for the first part of writers' workshop. After writing time, two students volunteered to share what they had written. Class members and teachers responded with questions and comments about the writing. Josie described writers' workshop this way, "Kids have their writing folders...and they get out a piece of paper and they just start writing about whatever they want. It's not structured."

Josie's envisioned ideal was consistent with her mentoring teacher's practice of providing readers' and writers' workshop in the classroom so Josie conformed enthusiastically. She said "the implementation of readers' and writers' workshop" was the "most valuable" thing she learned about literacy instruction during the internship.

Josie also conformed to established practice, at times, that was not consistent with her envisioned ideal when she taught reading using the basal reading series. Josie explained that "reading" differs from "readers' workshop" in that it is more structured. "Reading is more or less the most structured of the lessons because we usually always do it with a basal." Josie explained her perception of the established routine for teaching reading using the basal, "The way that they usually had it set up was a story a week. I didn't like that. But I followed the rules. I guess it's just basic for the basals."

One reason Josie used the basal was she believed there were expectations for her to use it. She said, "We usually use the basal because I think the school system kind of has that little 'You have to use it,' kind of message in it. It may not be written, but most people do use the basal." Another reason Josie used the basal is because she was reluctant to disrupt the routine, She said, "I don't really want to disrupt their flow that they've had all year." Meeting student's expectations for reading instruction contributed to Josie's choice to conform.

Josie also used the basal for convenience. She said, "I use the series for the stories and I used the series for the grades. Which means I ran off worksheets and I sent the worksheets home." Josie followed the mentoring teachers' established practice

of teaching a story a week from the basal reading series to the whole class as a large group. Josie's established routine was a two day schedule. On day one, Josie introduced the story, and students either listened to a cassette-tape of the story, or read the story silently, with a partner, or out loud, "round robin, where one reads and picks another." Day one lesson ended with a discussion of the story. Josie described day two of the basal reading routine, "On the second day, we discuss the vocab in the story. Because that's one of the worksheets that I use to get grades." After the second day, reading instruction from the basal differed for each story, depending on what Josie wanted to do.

Josie conformed to established practices that were not consistent with her beliefs or her envisioned ideal when she felt there were expectations for her to do so, and when it was a convenient way for her to get grades for students. Josie conformed to readers' and writers' workshop because they matched her envisioned ideal.

Compromise

Compromise as a social strategy was used by interns to combine their own ideas with the mentoring teacher's established practices of teaching literacy. Amount and degree of compromise differed for each intern. Knowledge of students, authority for making teaching decisions, personal interests, desire to experiment with their own teaching ideas, and a goal of making learning fun were involved in interns' use of compromise to add their own teaching ideas to perceived expectations for teaching literacy.

Abby. Abby compromised with perceived expectations for using the published reading book by adding something she wanted to do when she assumed more authority for making teaching decisions. Abby explained, "I decided at this point, this is when I was really starting to take over, and I did this unit. I decided on Fridays that we're going to write a memory book." She said:

This was my compromise for this. To have what I needed to feel like I was doing the things I learned at the university. And trying to use the things that I enjoy. But putting them with this manual and trying to get the skills in. I dedicated Fridays to doing these [memory] books. So half of our reading time we would do whatever we were supposed to do in the reading book. And then they were given the other half of the time to work on these stories.

To Abby the teacher's manual for reading was a "checklist of things to do." Abby said:

I very much worry about what I'm supposed to do. And if I think I'm supposed to do something, and you give me a checklist, which is what this manual is. It's a big checklist. I'm not happy if I don't get everything on the checklist done. And so, at this point, as I started planning and looking towards the future, I'd been given permission to not get everything done. That I could pick and choose the skills and start backing off the intensity of having to get three worksheets done every day.

Once Abby was "given permission to let [herself] not worry about every check mark," she began making decisions about what skills to teach based on what she felt students would need to use "over and over...for the rest of their lives."

A situation when Abby decided to compromise by combining her own teaching ideas with the checklist of things she believed she was supposed to do was based on her knowledge of her students. She said that the way the teacher's manual directed her to write memory books "was a scary thought." Abby said her students "just don't work

that well with each other.” She decided to “have each [student] individually create their own book.” She “dedicated Fridays to writing memory books.”

To Abby, memory books were a compromise that allowed her to teach something she wanted to teach after she taught what she believed she was supposed to teach. She said, “That’s my ‘Ooooh! I can’t wait! This is what I want to do!’” Abby explained her compromise:

The rest of the time, I am going to teach the skills that are required by the book. And use the transparencies and pass out the worksheets, and read the stories with the students and do the things that are comfortable for them, that they’ve experienced all year. And then have something that I really enjoy and hope will be memorable for them.

Compromise for Abby meant finding a mediated position between perceived expectations for teaching literacy and teaching the way she wanted to teach. Personal interests, knowledge of students, and increased authority for decision-making were factors relating to Abby’s compromise in this situation.

Holly. Holly compromised with perceived expectations for using the reading series by combining her own ideas about teaching reading to the mentoring teacher’s established routine for teaching reading. Holly said, “I kind of got the idea that I should not pursue anything above and beyond the reading series. That that had to stay in place. That’s why I kept it.” Holly’s compromise involved a mediated position between what she believed her mentoring teacher wanted her to do and what she wanted to do.

Holly explained how her routine schedule for teaching reading was related to the mentoring teacher’s established routine. Before Holly “took over” reading

instruction, students “read a story one time for one week” and then never “went back and read it again.” Holly explained how she added her own ideas to the story-a-week basal routine. She developed a flexible routine which she adapted “depending on the length and difficulty of the story.” She said, “Monday I read [the story] aloud. Tuesday they read it to me. You know, I call them out.... Wednesday they buddy read with a partner.” She explained how sometimes that schedule changed:

Now sometimes I would mix it up, depending on the story. Because if it was a story with a lot of difficult vocabulary and a lot of text, I wouldn't have them read it aloud on Tuesday. I would switch it to a later day in the week so that they could have gone over it several times with me, and with their buddy. So that before they read it aloud in front of the whole class, they'd feel more confident about knowing what the story is about.

Holly explained that she read aloud to students from the reading series on Mondays “for pure enjoyment.” Buddy reading involved having students choose a partner and “pick a comfortable spot in the room and read the story to each other.” Holly walked around the room with a roll sheet while students read with buddies “in order to make sure they're actually reading.”

Holly's compromise for using dittoes was to adhere to perceived expectations of the mentoring teacher while making decisions based on her own beliefs about what is important for students to learn. Holly said, “I felt that my mentoring teacher wanted me to include some of the worksheets that went with the series.” Holly decided to put the worksheets on Thursday and Friday because, “that way they would have read the story many times, over and over again. And they should have enough grasp of the story itself to complete the two worksheets.” She selected two worksheets that she felt were the

“most beneficial” because “they had to do with comprehension of the story.” She said, “We already do a phonics page every day anyway. And it would be kind of redundant to do another one.”

Compromise for Holly involved adhering to perceived expectations while at the same time adding her own ideas for teaching reading based on goals she had for learners. She said she wanted learners to read for meaning, to enjoy reading, and to become more independent readers. To pursue these goals she chose to use worksheets that addressed comprehension skills, she read aloud for pure pleasure each Monday, and she provided time for students to practice reading independently (without teacher’s help) during buddy reading.

Josie. Josie compromised with the perceived expectation that she had to use the basal to teach reading, even though she didn’t like using it. She said, “I don’t like using the basal. I feel it restricts me.” She pointed to a page in the teacher’s manual of her basal and said, “It’s like here. You’ve got to do this on this time line. Well, no! My kids can do it faster. Or no! My kids can do it slower.” Another thing Josie didn’t like about the basal is the length of the units. She said, “They go on and on like the Energizer Bunny. [They] wouldn’t stop.... So sometimes I just kind of spurt off on my own.”

Josie described her compromise of using the basal, “We read, we work, and “then I would want to do some fun things.” Josie compromised by adding her own ideas for related activities to her two-day basal routine. One example presented here is representative of the kind of compromise Josie used to “veer off from the basal.”

Josie has a personal interest in using the internet “for research and for learning.”

Using the internet is fun for Josie. At one point in time, Josie perceived that her students were bored with the basal unit on pollution. She was also bored with that theme. So Josie used the internet to introduce a “miniature author study” as a way to ease out of the topic that had become uninteresting for students and for herself. Josie’s compromise involved connecting the basal topic to something she found to be more interesting in a way that would be fun.

Josie chose to focus the miniature author study on Chris Van Allsburg for several reasons. He was the author her students had last read in the basal unit on pollution when Josie found a Chris Van Allsburg site on the internet. This site introduced Josie to a story by Chris Van Allsburg with which she was unfamiliar. She said, “He’s an author that all kids should know. And he wrote this story, and it was just perfect, beautiful timing. I found this spot [on the internet] and I thought ‘Hey! This spot is perfect and that’s what I’ll do.’”

Josie explained that her planning “kind of evolved from there.” She described the lesson, “We learned about Chris Van Allsburg, then we finished one of his books for him. And then we read his book. His real ending.”

Josie’s compromise involved combining her own personal interests with the basal reading series to make learning fun for students and to make teaching fun for herself. Examples of other ways Josie compromised by combining her own ideas to the other basal stories included actively involving students in cooperative group learning,

writing and performing a play, and sharing personal stories as part of the oral tradition of storytelling.

Change

Interns used change as a social strategy to break away from the established routine practices for teaching literacy. Change differs from compromise in intent. Interns used compromise to connect their own ideas to established routines for teaching literacy. They used change to break that connection. Change involved assuming ownership for the teaching and making a long term alteration of the established routine. Change held different meaning for interns than did compromise.

Abby changed reading and writing instruction in her fourth-grade classroom when she introduced writers' workshop to the routine schedule. Holly changed reading instruction in her first-grade classroom when she introduced independent reading and cross-age buddy reading. Josie changed the established routine for teaching reading with the basal by replacing the basal with a novel study. Change as a social strategy involved personal interest, getting support from the mentoring teacher, using background knowledge, assuming ownership for teaching decisions, and teaching according to an envisioned ideal.

Abby. Abby changed both reading and writing instruction in her fourth-grade classroom when she added writers' workshop to the established routine schedule. The impetus for change, in Abby's case, was the action research project. The choice of topic was based on Abby's personal interest in creative writing. She said, "I knew why I wanted to do [writers' workshop]. Because I liked it." It was also based on her desire

to provide students with a chance for success in writing which she believed would improve student confidence and self-esteem and would help students develop more positive attitudes toward writing.

The choice to implement writers' workshop also directly related to Abby's envisioned ideal of herself as teacher and the kind of environment she hoped to create for students. She said, "For myself as a teacher, I would like [writers' workshop] to help me become what I want to be." What Abby wanted was to become like a writing teacher she had at the university. She said, "the day I can honestly look at myself and emulate, or model, or act in the same manner as that teacher, that's the day I will feel that I am successful and truly doing what I believe in." Abby's university writing teacher was "open," "flexible," "caring," "constructive, positive, and helpful." Abby said, "If I could ever create for someone else that sense of community and well-being, and kinmanship, then I think I'll have made it."

Before the action research requirement, Abby's perception was that her mentoring teacher was not supportive of Abby's desire to start writers' workshop in the classroom. Abby said that before she started the action research project her mentoring teacher had expressed "that despite how much fun [writer's workshop] is, there's not really time for it. You need to be on the skills." When it came time for Abby to begin her action research in the classroom, her mentoring teacher became supportive in several ways. Abby said her mentoring teacher wanted her to "do well for the university." Abby remembered, "She started worrying about the action research and finally it came down to we will do whatever it takes to get the writer's workshop in."

That's when Abby remembered that her mentoring teacher gave her "permission" and "time" to do writers' workshop.

Time for writer's workshop was taken from the established routine reading schedule on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, which changed the way reading instruction occurred. Abby remembered her mentoring teacher's support in this way:

It just got down to 'Let's just at least let them on Tuesdays and Thursdays read a story. And if we get a skill in there, we get a skill in there. And if we don't, we don't. You've got to get this action research project done. This is where our time, focus, and attention should be.

Abby began planning for writers' workshop by reading the professional literature and taking notes. She watched a video on writers' workshop to gain additional information. She made planning and teaching decisions based on the knowledge she acquired and the vision she had. She determined how she would organize and structure the time and materials in her fourth-grade classroom. She decided students would use writers' notebooks, they would write for about thirty minutes, then she would ask for volunteers to share their writing to the class. She decided to begin each workshop with a mini-lesson to inspire writing. She planned to have writing conferences with individual students during writing time.

Abby's mentoring teacher offered helpful suggestions during the planning phase. She suggested that Abby ask the supervising professor, Karen Greene, to come into the classroom and launch writers' workshop. The supervising professor agreed to lead the first two sessions of writers' workshop in this fourth-grade classroom to help Abby get started. Abby was absent one of those two days, so the mentoring teacher

video-taped that workshop. Abby observed before leading the third workshop. Abby explained, "I was there, present one day with Karen doing it. And I watched the video of Karen doing it one day. And then I jumped in."

Abby relied on her developing knowledge base and her knowledge of students to make her own teaching decisions during writers' workshop. She decided how long to continue writing time by watching students. She said, "If they're being real quiet, I'll let them keep writing. I'll keep getting as many conferences in. If they've gotten restless, I'll go ahead and cut it short and move to share time. We're only doing two people...because anything more than that and they've lost their attention span."

Over time Abby said she learned to add options for students during writers workshop, she learned to hold conferences for different reasons. During conferences with individual students, Abby let the needs of the student direct the topic. Some students needed to be encouraged to write, some needed ideas, others wanted to discuss their content, while some needed feedback on spelling or grammatical conventions.

For Abby conferences provided a time to get to know students in a meaningful way and also gave each student an audience and a purpose for writing. Abby said the most valuable thing she learned about literacy this year was "writer's workshop." She added:

I'm not so sure it's the writers' workshop as much as the aspect where you get to know the students and you bring things to a more personal level instead of just assigning 'Write me this.' or 'Write me that.' You're going around and you're actually speaking to the children in a conversation. They're a part of your world and you're a part of theirs. And I think that's most important.

Abby said that the most positive and rewarding thing about her entire year as in intern was “the relationship that...we created between me and my students. I think there is a genuine love that I have for them and they have for me.” She said that relationship for her was “indescribable.”

Change for Abby allowed her to align knowledge, beliefs, and practices with an envisioned ideal of the kind of writing teacher she wants to be. Writer’s workshop gave her an opportunity to build relationships with students, to offer them a chance for success, and to do something she enjoys. Change for Abby in this classroom was facilitated by the support she received from her mentoring teacher, guidance from the supervising professor, and knowledge gained from reading about and observing writers’ workshop. The idea began with Abby’s personal interest in and enjoyment of writing which she hoped to introduce to students in a way that would foster positive attitudes toward writing through successful experiences in a workshop atmosphere.

Holly. Holly changed reading instruction in her first grade classroom by adding independent reading and cross-age buddy reading to the established routine schedule. In Holly’s case, action research provided an impetus for change. Holly’s interest in children’s literature, her desire to increase reading time for students, and the need she felt to change students’ negative attitudes toward reading influenced her choice of topic for her action research project. Holly explained, “These kids need more reading. They don’t read enough. So that’s going to be part of my action research. Is to get them reading.” She later added:

I see a problem where when I do read stories...they'll be like, 'Yuck! A story? I don't want to hear a story. Do we have to? Can't we do something else?' And it really bothered me because I thought, 'Gosh, if they feel that way, they don't even want to hear a story, that's really something we need to work on.' And I just realized that's got to be my action research project right there. Because they don't like it. I've got to change that.

Holly planned to begin readers' workshop in her classroom as a change in the way reading was normally done. To Holly, readers' workshop meant students reading and discussing books. She said, "The reading part is just one small aspect of it. You have to discuss your books with each other. And I wanted them to start doing that." The discussion aspect of readers' workshop "just never happened." So, Holly chose not to call this reading time "readers' workshop." She called it "independent reading." Her main goals for students were that they would "build self-confidence," "enjoy reading," and know that "reading goes above and beyond the reading book."

Holly did not ask for help in planning independent reading. She said, "I thought, this time, this is for my research. This is my plan. I've got to do it my way." Holly's way was to gain knowledge about readers' workshop by reading some of the professional literature. Her planning and teaching decisions were based on her developing knowledge about readers' workshop and a vision of the kind of learning environment she wanted to create as a reading teacher.

Holly explained how she planned for independent reading. She decided to use an independent reading record to keep track of the books students were reading. Then she thought, "We need a good twenty-minute time period that really nothing else fits." She thought the time between recess and lunch "would be perfect." Then she thought,

“Well, what are they going to read?” Holly explained, “They all check out these library books every Friday.... We never had time to look at them or read them or anything.... So that became sort of an option.” Holly decided students could choose to read a library book or one of the old reading series books.

Adding independent reading time to the established routine was “nerve-wracking” for Holly. She said, “I was afraid that I would go to all that trouble and it wouldn’t work, and it would make me look incompetent.” She talked about how she felt after her first day. “To begin with, I was kind of nervous about it because it seemed like it took so long to get them to write the title and the author. As a matter of fact it did. It took the whole twenty minutes just to do that the first time. And then they didn’t even get to read the book. And I thought, ‘Oh what have I gotten myself into? This will never work.’”

Holly persisted in scheduling independent reading every day. She had a clear vision of what this reading time should look like and she continued to strive to achieve her envisioned ideal. The first-graders in this classroom eventually spent more time reading and less time writing authors. Holly progressed from “policing the room to be sure everyone was reading” to walking around having “little conversations” with students about their books. During the exit interview in May, Holly shared her feelings about teaching reading. She said, “I really feel good about the reading.” She added, “I think that since that was my main focus for my research, that it got the most attention from me. And so, it was the most exciting, it was the most valuable of anything I did during when I took over the class.”

Cross-age buddy reading was planned and implemented in a similar manner as a part of Holly's action research project. Holly got permission from her mentoring teacher and the cooperating fourth-grade teacher to do buddy reading her way. She planned carefully based on information she had gained from the professional literature. She worked with the fourth-grade teacher to determine buddy pairs based on reading ability and personality of the children. Holly's goals for first grade students were social and academic. She wanted first grade students to learn to cooperate with older students. She also hoped that by reading and interacting with older students, her first grade students would learn different strategies for successful reading.

Holly's experience of adding cross-age buddy reading to the established curriculum was "kind of complicated and hard to manage" at first. At the end of the year Holly said that it was a rewarding experience for her because it provided her kids with more time to read and because her kids enjoyed it. About the cross-age buddy reading Holly said, "It's just been fantastic for me!"

Change as a social strategy helped Holly to teach literacy in a way that was more consistent with her envisioned ideal. Changing literacy instruction in this classroom involved Holly in gaining knowledge, formulating a plan, ownership of decision-making, and keeping track of what students were doing. Decision-making was based on knowledge of students and goals for learners. In order to change literacy instruction in this situation Holly had to be allowed to follow through with her plan. Her mentoring teacher "gave her permission" and the fourth-grade teacher "let her do what she wanted to do."

Josie. Josie changed reading instruction in her fourth-grade classroom by replacing the basal with a trade book and involving students in an eleven-week novel study using The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe, by C. S. Lewis. The impetus for change in Josie's case was her desire to "get out of the basal." She said, "The stories in the basal, unfortunately were getting kind of dull, in my opinion." She decided, "I am going to get away from this basal. We're going to take a break, and we're going to read The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe."

Personal interest, knowledge of the book, goals for students, and an envisioned ideal that involved using trade books to teach reading were factors in Josie's decision to change the way reading was generally taught in this fourth-grade classroom. Josie knew and liked the story. She said, "It's a beautiful story." She shared background knowledge of the book, "It's a fairy tale, you know. That's what C. S. Lewis calls it himself. He actually, in his writing to his goddaughter, who he wrote it for, called it a fairy tale. And so that's an exposure to a totally, completely different genre than we've worked with before this year."

Josie's goals for learners were consistent with her envisioned ideal for using trade books to teach reading. She said,

I want them to appreciate good literature. That's goal number one! C. S. Lewis is exceptional literature. Goal number two, for them to enjoy it so much they read the other 6 books. Goal number three, I want them to realize there are dynamic characters out there.

Before Josie began planning for the novel study she enlisted her mentoring teacher's support. She said, "I told Ms. Paris that I wanted to do a trade book."

According to Josie, her mentoring teacher thought the idea to do a trade book was good. She asked Josie if there were enough copies of the book available. Josie's first step in planning the novel study was to locate multiple copies of the book.

Josie did not set a length of time for the novel study. She said, "I'm going to watch them. That's going to be my clue as to how soon to wrap this up or keep it going." Josie explained her plan to progress through the novel study, "I know we're going to rotate it. And we're going to read a chapter, vocab a chapter." She also planned "to do some activities....Probably early next week is when we'll start transforming the room into Narnia."

Josie described her planning style as "playing it by ear." She appreciated the freedom this planning style gave her to make her own teaching decisions. She said she liked "playing it by ear...because if there's an opportunity for spur of the moment learning, I'm going to take it." Josie explained how she planned flexibly for the novel study based on observations of her students. She said, "I have in my plan book to read the chapter and discuss it. And in our discussions questions start coming out." It was from the students' questions that Josie decided what she wanted them "to write in a paragraph."

Josie used a variety of methods for reading the seventeen different chapters of the novel including the following, "I've read to them and they've listened," "me reading and them reading along where we're all reading along together," "round robin reading" "partner read," "silent read all together," "dramatic reading." Josie liked the variety because she said, "It breaks up the monotony for them and for me."

I observed Josie do a dramatic oral reading of the novel, in which she read with expression and enthusiasm, using different voices for each character. Students volunteered to act out the story while Josie read. Students at their seats watched, listened and smiled, giggled or laughed out loud. After a few pages, Josie asked for new volunteers to act out the stories.

Josie explained her reason for doing dramatic readings. "I wanted to do something different....I just thought they would excel in doing something like that." In Josie's view, ability to act out characters included a number of literacy skills such as, "reading, understanding, comprehending, inferencing, finding out what characters are like." She decided to do the dramatic reading for several chapters because her students "have really enjoyed acting it out. And I want them to have fun." The novel study was also fun for Josie. She said, "I've never been more excited or more elated than when the little girl brought her mother down to the room to see Narnia."

Change as a social strategy enabled Josie to teach literacy in a way that was "enjoyable" and "freeing." Josie's envisioned ideal included an image of her fifth-grade teacher who taught her "teaching could be fun." She described herself as a "fun-loving" teacher. Change as a social strategy allowed Josie to have fun with teaching and to make learning fun for students. It allowed Josie to plan based on observations of students' interests and needs rather than follow publishers' pre-planned basal units.

In Josie's case, change was more a matter of making her own decisions than it was changing methods of instruction. Many of her methods for teaching the novel study were similar to her methods for teaching the basal. What changed was that she

assumed ownership for all of the teaching decisions based on her own personal interests and her perceptions of students' interests and needs.

Summary

According to the theoretical perspective of symbolic interactionism, individuals ascribe meaning through a process of interaction and interpretation. The individual's interpretation of the situation dictates appropriate action. Interns interpreted the internship as a stressful situation for a variety of reasons. Social strategies provided interns ways to act to "manipulate and change the situation while at the same time being constrained to adjust to it" (Lacy, 1977, p. 95). These interns conformed to, compromised with, or changed the established routine for teaching literacy in their classrooms.

Interns conformed to the established routine for teaching literacy by adhering to perceived expectations of others in order to be seen as successful. They conformed when it was convenient, and when they lacked knowledge about how to teach differently. They also conformed when they perceived they lacked authority for making teaching decisions that would disrupt the routine. At times, interns conformed because established practices for teaching literacy were consistent with their envisioned ideal.

Compromise refers to the strategy interns used to experiment with their own teaching ideas when the established routine for teaching literacy was not consistent with their envisioned ideal. Compromise is the way interns combined their own ideas with perceived expectations of others. Most often, interns compromised by

connecting personal interests to the regular routine for the enjoyment of their students and themselves.

Change was the social strategy interns used to break from the established routine by connecting teaching ideas to their envisioned ideal. Change required commitment to a long term curricular alteration of the established routine, vision of the desired teaching and learning environment, ownership of the decision-making, and background knowledge and interest in the topic. Change for these interns meant choosing what they wanted to change, getting support, tapping into prior knowledge or newly acquired knowledge, assuming authority, flexible planning based on students' responses to teaching, and willingness to revise, adjust, and persist in their efforts to teach according to their envisioned ideal.

How Do Interns Construct Their Perceptions of Literacy Instruction?

Literacy instruction for these interns meant teaching reading and writing. Constructing perceptions of teaching reading and writing can more simply be stated as learning to teach reading and writing. Data analysis revealed that a better way to ask this research question is, 'How do interns believe they learned to teach literacy?' These interns believed they were still in the process of learning to teach literacy. They learned to teach literacy as a process of construction and reconstruction of a vision of the kind of teacher they would like to be. They began constructing this image while students themselves. They continued to reconstruct the image as they attempted to adjust to the complex social situations of daily classroom life in their role as interns. At the end of the internship experience, each intern expressed to me that she was still learning to

teach literacy. The process of learning to teach literacy did not end when the internship ended.

Josie succinctly summed up her perceptions of learning to teach literacy when she said, "I think it's just a combination of three things. How I was taught, what I learned at the university, in those methods classes, and then what I actually saw that was successful....Actually seeing it implemented and working, that's Ms. Paris [her mentoring teacher]." Holly believed learning to teach literacy involved a "big combination of things." She included, "Things I learned at the university, things that I've learned in our class out in the trailer, in the Fall. And some of the readings that I did, really seemed to influence me." Abby said "research into writers' workshop," "my mentoring teacher," "my university classes," and "memories of things that I learned like in the Wright Group workshops" were all influential in learning to teach literacy.

All three interns referred to a combination of school biography, teacher education course work, field experiences, and professional development activities such as reading and attending workshops when they talked about learning to teach literacy. Data is presented in these four separate categories; however, interns' actual experiences of learning to teach literacy was an amalgamation of all four categories.

School Biography

School biography refers to the experiences of interns as students themselves, before they began teacher education course work. Interns learned about teaching literacy from observing their own teachers and by deciding what they liked and didn't like, or what worked or didn't work for them as students themselves.

Observing Teachers

Abby explained how observing teachers teach reading has restricted her perceptions of literacy instruction. Abby did not have a clear envisioned ideal of the kind of reading teacher she would like to be. She explained the problem she had trying to learn how to teach reading differently from the way she was taught:

That could be just breaking away from years of being taught that way. And seeing it taught that way. And dealing with it in that form of way. It's ingrained into your brain. This is the reading book. This is how it goes.

Compounding the problem was lack of information in her university course work about alternative methods for teaching literacy. She said, "Even though the university classes may have said do it a different way, they never specifically got down to, 'You do this and you do this.'" In Abby's view the university never gave her any "real clues as to what to do." In order to teach reading differently Abby said, "I think that's just going to take reading and time and figuring and trying some new things."

In contrast, Abby's experience in a creative writing class as a college student, before she entered teacher education course work, provided her with a clear vision of the kind of writing teacher she would like to be. A college English professor provided Abby with the experience of writing and sharing writing in a "community of writers." Abby said, "That atmosphere just gave me the ability to grow, and to be accepted, and to write, and just be there and be a part of something." Abby strived to create for her fourth-grade students "that sense of community and well-being" that she experienced as a writer in her creative writing class.

Josie's fifth-grade teacher provided an image of the kind of teacher she wants to be. Her fifth-grade teacher made learning fun. Josie strived to make literacy learning fun for her fourth-grade students. She described herself as a teacher, "I think I'm witty, I'm fun-loving, I think that I'm caring, I love my kids." She wants her students to learn that "gaining knowledge is rewarding, and that it can be fun." She said her "ultimate" literacy goal for her students is "for them to enjoy themselves."

Holly's sixth-grade teacher is the image of teacher that Holly incorporated into her envisioned ideal. Because her sixth-grade teacher read to the class every day, Holly learned to love books and reading. Holly wants to impart her love of books and reading to her own students. She read aloud to her first-grade students for "pure pleasure." She introduced them to a wide variety of children's books by including independent reading as a part of literacy instruction in her classroom.

Experiences as Students

Josie often used cooperative learning groups as one aspect of literacy instruction. She learned about cooperative group learning in high school on a committee of teachers and students who researched and discussed the possible benefits of cooperative learning for students. Josie said, "I can honestly say I learned a lot about teachers, about myself, about the school, and about cooperative learning from that group." She said her university course work "reinforced it." Josie explained that at the university "they added that extra element of doing it." She added, "And now I've brought it here." Josie often involved her fourth-grade students in cooperative group learning as a part of teaching reading with the basal.

Negative school experiences were also influential in constructing an envisioned ideal for teaching literacy. As a student Josie didn't like the way teachers read aloud to the class. She said, "When I was in school...the teacher would read a book to us. And it would be the same voice, same person, same personality, everything. And I always thought, 'Well golly, I think it would be interesting if you could do different characters.'" As a literacy teacher, Josie did dramatic read alouds of The Lion, The Witch, and The Wardrobe, using different voices for each character.

Josie didn't like reading Dick and Jane books in school. She said, "It just wasn't what I wanted to do. I remember in first grade being frustrated because I was sick and tired of reading about the same people over and over and over again." She wanted to choose her own books. She said, "I knew I wanted free choice in there. And it wasn't an option." Free choice of reading books is an option for Josie's students during readers' workshop.

Negative school experiences for Holly also influenced how she constructed her envisioned ideal for teaching literacy. Reading in elementary school for Holly included doing "lots and lots of dittoes" and "all the workbooks." Holly said, I hated those things. Workbooks....Especially the handwriting ones." Holly's envisioned ideal limits dittoes for reading instruction and eliminates copying preprinted sentences as a way to teach writing.

Interns learned to teach literacy by observing teachers and through their experiences as students. Their school biographies restricted their perceptions of how to teach literacy in some cases, and in other cases school biographies enhanced their

perceptions of how to teach literacy. Holly explained how she learned to teach literacy the "old way" by observing teachers. She said, "At least I know how it [teaching reading] is done in public schools." She added, "I know how they teach, already. I know how they've been teaching for the past ten years." Holly explained the difference between teaching literacy as she experienced it during her school biography and teaching according to her envisioned ideal. She said:

I could pick up right now and imitate what I've seen and be fine, until the end of the year. No problems. I mean, it's not easy; but it's not as hard as tackling what I would like to do. You know the whole language classroom, all the reading, and writing, and writing centers and the workshops. Tackling that is a lot harder.

Abby and Josie agreed that imitating what they knew from their years of observing teachers would be easier than trying to implement the kind of integrated, holistic teaching they learned about during university course work.

Teacher Education Course Work

Interns completed teacher education course work in the Holistic Teaching/Learning unit of the College of Education. The conceptual framework that guided their teacher education program was a holistic philosophy of teaching and learning. Course work was designed to emphasize an integrative curriculum centered around language learning, a view of teacher as facilitator of learning, and planning based on student needs, learning styles, and interests. Josie referred to this way of teaching as "the new way." Interns learned about a new way to teach literacy through course work. Josie said course work was where she learned these things "cognitively." Abby and Holly agreed. They learned about whole language and teaching reading with

trade books and writing in a workshop approach. Holly explained some of the things she learned about during course work at the university, "Whole language. Provide a print rich environment. Allow time for reading out loud, reading silently. Allow lots of time for writing. And allow them to use inventive spelling before they have to learn that they have to spell things perfectly."

When talking about what she learned through teacher education course work, Abby focused on activities that she used for literacy instruction in her fourth-grade classroom. From her children's literature course, Abby learned about different ways to respond to a book. She used those ideas in the literature study she did with her students. Abby learned about mind maps in a creativity course and used that technique as a pre-writing activity. She learned about other activities that she added to literacy lessons to allow for student creativity and enjoyment.

Josie discussed theoretical knowledge she gained from course work when she talked about spelling development. She said, "I have learned, from the university and the early childhood classes and other courses, that language, whether it's spoken or written, comes in maybe not in a sequence of steps, but it comes naturally." She thinks "that's the same way spelling is. That some things are going to be misspelled, and as they get older they'll probably pick up on it without somebody having to fuss at them." She added that when given opportunities to use developmental spelling in their own writing, "the correct spelling of some words will come naturally."

Teacher education course work provided interns with ideas, activities, and theoretical knowledge that added a new way to teach literacy to their image of the old

way of teaching literacy. These new ideas provided interns with alternatives to the kind of literacy instruction they experienced as students. In some cases the knowledge gained during course work changed prior beliefs about teaching. Holly's explanation of teaching reading is an example. She said, "I used to think if they're [students] reading along with you, that they're not listening to what you're saying." She learned through course work, reading books and articles, and watching a video that "it's not bad to have kids read along with you when you read a story." That new belief was confirmed through practice during Holly's secondary placement in kindergarten where she read aloud to children every day and students read along with her. Holly said:

That took some time getting used to. But in kindergarten, when you read a book and you point to the words with your pointer, they read right along with you and that they're not annoying you. They're not just memorizing the story and then shooting it back at you. That that's sort of a form of reading that gives them confidence. They think they know how to read. Which is fine. It's the first step before they actually do realize that the words and the print go together.

Holly had opportunities in kindergarten (her secondary placement) to put theoretical knowledge into practice.

All three interns agreed that what was missing during course work were explanations of how to implement a student-centered, holistic, integrative curriculum in the real classrooms where they faced contextual constraints while learning to teach. Josie explained that she learned about readers' and writers' workshop during course work. "But the implementation and the execution of it... That was Mrs. Paris." She learned to do the workshops by watching her mentoring teacher use them daily with students in the classroom. All three interns believed that to learn how to teach literacy

the new way, they needed to be able to see new ways working with real students, in real classrooms, and they need to be able to try the new ways out. Josie said, "That's what this year's for."

Field Experiences

Watching and doing in authentic contexts were important aspects of each intern's experience of learning to teach literacy. Josie compared internship teaching to mock teaching that she did as a part of course work, "I've learned more this year than I could have in six methods classes. It's real! The kids are there! It's not peers. And we're not playing the part of the kid.... It wasn't us pretending. It was the real McCoy."

Field experiences provided interns with complex situations and interactions that influenced how they learned to teach literacy. The two most salient categories referred to by these interns were role models and practical experiences. Interns learned to teach literacy from role models in their primary and secondary placements during the internship year, during earlier field experiences before the internship, and from watching videos of experienced teachers in their classrooms. Practical experiences allowed interns to learn to teach literacy by doing it. Similar to interns' beliefs that children learn to read and write by reading and writing, interns believed they would learn to teach by teaching.

Role Models during Field Experiences

Abby's mentoring teacher helped Abby learn to teach by observing while Abby was teaching and modeling when Abby had trouble figuring out how to communicate a

concept to fourth-grade learners. Abby appreciated the experience that Ms. Burns, her mentoring teacher brought to situations where Abby needed support. She said, "It's amazing how I can sit there and start stuttering over a concept because the kids aren't getting it.... And she'll step in...and save me." Abby explained that her mentoring teacher often helped her "realize a different approach to saying something that I didn't see because I've never dealt with this group of kids, or this age level."

Abby's supervising professor also served as a role model to help Abby learn how to organize and structure writers' workshop in her classroom. The supervising professor launched writers' workshop in this fourth-grade classroom and video-taped the first two sessions to provide Abby with a model of what writers' workshop might look like in the classroom.

Josie's primary role model for learning to teach literacy during the year-long internship was her mentoring teacher, Ms. Paris. Josie said, "The implementation and the execution of teaching I've learned from Ms. Paris. The basic information was there. How to put it all together and bring it to the classroom was not." Josie said her mentoring teacher, "is like an education mother." Josie explained what she meant by education mothers:

They lead you and they guide you and you can't wait to get back to them, but they're not there all the time and they won't be there for the rest of your life like a regular mother. They're going to help you achieve your goals whether it's your badge or your Master's degree. So, you know, she's there, and she gives support.

Like Abby's mentoring teacher, Ms. Paris observed while Josie was leading instruction and modeled teaching behaviors. Josie described a situation where she

wanted to provide critical feedback to students in a constructive and positive way, but couldn't think of what to say. Josie explained, "Constructive criticism is what I want to do if I'm going to have to tell the kids something to improve. It's not an art form for me, yet, by any means. I think it is for her." Josie's mentoring teacher helped her learn by observing while Josie taught, and by modeling appropriate constructive feedback. Josie said, "It's just that while I'm fumbling around in there going, 'OK, how do I say this?' She's like already said it. And I hear it. And then it goes into a little file." Josie recalled her experience of learning to teach from her mentoring teacher as "building a repertoire" of things to say and do.

Josie said her mentoring teacher gave her more support and guidance at the beginning of the internship and then left more of the planning and decision-making up to Josie as the year progressed. Josie appreciated the freedom to learn independently. Josie said, "She [her mentoring teacher] wanted me to learn and grow on my own. Not learn and grow on her own. On her methods, on her lesson plans. We did have a good solid relationship and I thank my lucky stars I was with her. She gave me freedom."

Holly did not talk a lot about learning from her mentoring teacher in first grade. Holly's first-grade mentoring teacher's style of literacy instruction was "sort of reversed" from Holly's perceptions of how to teach literacy. When Holly did refer to role models during field experiences, she talked about two teachers who had teaching styles that more closely matched Holly's envisioned ideal for teaching literacy. One was the kindergarten teacher with whom Holly worked for six weeks as a secondary

placement during the internship year. The other was a second-grade teacher Holly worked with during an earlier field experience in another school.

Holly learned a lot about teaching reading to kindergarten students from the kindergarten teacher. She liked the teacher's established routine of scheduling a set reading time. Holly said, "In kindergarten we would read. We had set times. Thirty minute blocks where we would just read stories." She also liked that, "In kindergarten you keep reading the same stories, over and over again." Holly began independent reading in first grade to provide these kinds of opportunities for her first-grade students.

From the second-grade teacher, Holly learned how she would like to organize and structure writing instruction in the classroom. She talked about how students went to the computers and typed their own stories. She said, "They just went over there and just went to work. And it was so great!" When students were done composing their own stories, "They'd print them out and turn them in for a grade. And it was wonderful! And I thought, "Wow, I want that!" Holly never did get her first-grade students to type their own stories into the computer, but she incorporated the idea into her envisioned ideal for writing instruction when she gets her "own classroom."

Seeing role models teach literacy was one way interns said they learned to teach. Each intern also included doing as a part of their learning. Teaching is doing. It is a performance profession. Interns learned by doing and reflecting on their teaching. They believed they would continue to learn through practical experience.

Practical Experience

Abby believed she would learn to teach literacy over time through “experience” “practice” and “trial and error.” She said, “I think right now I really believe it’s kind of like learning to type. I’m picking and pecking with one finger. And in 5 years, hopefully, I’ll be putting out two hundred words a minute.” Experience will help Abby learn “to communicate with students at their level.” She said, “I don’t think any college education, any amount of reading gives you that. That’s a dealing and negotiating with students.” She learned to teach this year by “watching students.” When a moment seems to really “work out right” for students, Abby said, “you put that in your pocket, and you have that for the rest of your years.”

Abby talked about how she learned by doing. Abby noticed that she improved teaching skill in conducting writing conferences with students over time. She said, “In the individual conferences, I’ve seen a progression, that yes, I am starting to catch things. And to notice things that are going on.” Abby progressed from using content feedback only to teaching grammatical conventions to students as they needed them during writing conferences.

For Josie practical experience was an opportunity to experiment with teaching techniques. She experimented with using different voices for different characters when reading aloud to see how the students would react. She said, “The kids just loved it!” Since kids loved it, Josie included this practice as a part of the novel study.

Practical experience included “watching and doing.” Josie said, “One thing that I’ve really learned is how to do readers’ and writers’ workshop. I’d always heard of it

in theory, but had never seen it practiced. So I got to experience that.” Josie added, “I saw it [readers’ and writers’ workshop] in action, and saw that it worked.” For Josie, seeing and doing added credibility to the ideas and theories she learned about during course work.

Holly said she would figure out how to teach literacy through trial and error.

She said:

I think that if you try things and then you can really watch your students, and really look and see if it’s working, and give it enough time. Don’t just try it once and say, ‘Aw, it doesn’t work.’ And chuck it. If you really try something, then you’ll know, this works; this doesn’t. Or will this work for these kids?

This quote partially describes the method Holly used to introduce independent reading into the first-grade classroom.

Through trial and error, Holly believed she would be able to “scratch out a, ‘This is the best way to teach literacy.’” She added, “But so far, I’m not sure. All I know is what I’ve been taught at the university.” Holly believed with more time to practice the things she was taught at the university so she would be able to determine a “best way to teach literacy.”

A “big part” of Holly’s envisioned ideal for teaching literacy was to include centers as a part of her classroom environment. Holly saw centers work in the second-grade classroom. She said, “I’ve seen them done in second grade. I know they work!” Like Josie, the opportunity to see teaching ideas put successfully into practice in the classroom was an important aspect of learning to teach literacy for Holly.

Action Research

Another way interns in the present study were guided and supported in their efforts to learn to teach was through action research. For Holly and Abby, action research provided the opportunity for them to learn to teach literacy differently from their mentoring teacher. Josie also conducted an action research study in her classroom but it was only slightly related to literacy instruction. Josie's action research study focused on how fourth-grade students would respond to using the internet to learn. The major thrust of Josie's study occurred in a small group that met after school and so the study did not impact literacy instruction in her classroom in a major way.

Abby's and Holly's action research studies were the impetus for changing literacy instruction in their classrooms. A focus on how action research worked to enable Abby and Holly to change literacy instruction in their classroom has implications for teaching interns strategies they can use to learn how to teach throughout their careers.

A focus on the similarities in how Abby and Holly experienced the action research project can shed light on ways teacher educators can support intern learning. Both interns believed they needed permission from their mentoring teachers to begin the study. Mentoring teachers were supportive. They gave interns permission and time to conduct their studies. Abby and Holly chose what they wanted to do based on personal interests, an envisioned ideal, and a desire to change students' negative attitudes toward a subject that each intern found enjoyable. Abby wanted students to enjoy writing and feel successful as writers. She introduced writers workshop. Holly

wanted students to enjoy books and become independent readers. She introduced independent reading and buddy reading.

Each intern began with gathering information by reading professional literature. The university supervisor supported their efforts to learn by suggesting professional references such as books and teaching videos. Holly read about readers' workshop and buddy reading and added to her vision of what those might look like in her classroom. She decided on a time, place, materials, and structure and she began with independent reading. Abby read about writers' workshop. She worked with her mentoring teacher to determine a time. Abby also decided on the materials, organization of materials, and structure for the workshop. In addition she asked the university supervisor to model the first two workshops as demonstration lessons. The university supervisor supported Abby's learning by leading the first two workshops and then following up with observations and discussions about how the workshop was going.

Both Abby and Holly began with a choice of what it was they wanted to do. They read the professional literature and added to the vision of what they wanted learning to look like in the classroom. They started with a flexible plan, and observed students to determine how to proceed daily. They adjusted situations according to student responses or their own needs and abilities as new teachers. They persisted in their efforts even when what they were doing did not seem to be working. When something didn't work the way they envisioned, they looked to the literature, their mentoring teachers, university supervisor, or students for guidance in decision-making. They kept anecdotal records of student verbalizations and student behaviors. They

recorded reflections of their experience. Records of students and reflections of teaching were written up in a formal paper and presented at an annual action research conference at the university.

Action research is a promising possibility for teaching interns to use strategies they will need to continue to learn how to teach as they progress through their careers. However, interns in the present study responded to the requirement for conducting action research with mixed feelings. About action research, Abby said, "As a project, it's probably one of the few through my academic work that I actually enjoyed, or that has actually affected me. She explained, "Reading up and dealing with writers' workshop opened my eyes to how I write and how students write." Holly described the results of her action research project as "exciting," and "valuable." However she didn't like doing the research project. She said, "The independent reading is great! I would have done that anyway." The problem with action research in Holly's words was, "I think it eats up too much of my time, that I can't give my all in class." She added, "There are times when I can't teach a lesson because I'm not prepared and I'll have to say 'Lisa can you take over today? I didn't have time to get this together.'" Josie thought the action research project was "almost unnecessarily formalized observations." She said, "I would rather do a year and a half in the classroom" than do the action research project.

Part of the resentment interns felt about the action research requirement was that they did not get to choose whether or not they wanted to conduct action research. The project was a course requirement. Abby explained that interns choose a non-thesis

degree program; however, interns in the present study believed they were “required to do [a thesis] anyway.” Abby explained that she realized there was a definitional difference between an action research project and a thesis. She said, “But I think the work that goes into it, I don’t think any thesis took any more effort than what we went through.”

Two interns did not see the action research as a part of teaching or as a way to learn how to teach. They saw it as something they were required to do “on top of teaching.” All three interns saw the action research project as an added stress. Tension created by the action research requirement included lack of understanding about the purpose of action research as a way to teach and improve teaching, time demands, no choice of an alternative project, and no recognition of a completed thesis on their transcripts.

Despite these tensions, the results of action research worked to provide for interns a valuable and rewarding learning experience. Abby said the most valuable thing she learned this year “was the implementation of writers’ workshop.” Holly said, “It was very rewarding when my students reacted positively to my techniques with my research.” Action research for all three interns provided opportunities for interns to learn about implementation of some aspect of teaching that most interested them and that was based on current research.

Professional Development Activities

Professional development activities that helped interns learn to teach included reading and attending workshops or conferences. All read to learn about teaching. They discussed the importance of attending workshops and conferences to continue learning.

Reading

Abby read professional books to gather information about writers' workshop so that she could add writers' workshop to her mentoring teachers established routine for teaching literacy. Before Abby started writers' workshop she said:

I started reading to find out, exactly what do you do during writers' workshop. What are kind of the rules, or the boundaries, or the central themes of writers' workshop? And then how do I talk to kids during conferences and things. What is it I'm supposed to look for? And all those kinds of things I had to read up on.

Josie read on the internet. She often used the internet as a resource for learning and relearning content matter that she was expected to teach. She also constantly searched for new and interesting sites that she believed would add interest, enjoyment, and fun to the literacy curriculum in her classroom. She searched through the internet to find activities that she believed her students would enjoy.

Reading was a way Holly gathered information about how to teach literacy. She said, "I read all those articles last year and then all those books." That information for Holly "is still sinking in." Holly said that to learn how to teach literacy according to her envisioned ideal she will "read as much as I can about other teachers and what they've done."

Holly read to gather background information for introducing independent reading and cross-age buddy reading into the first-grade classroom. She said, "You know with those kinds of books, you don't just read it like any other book. You absorb it." She added, "And it's such good stuff too. That you don't want to skimp on it. And you don't want to just scan it. You really want to read it."

Holly and Abby also talked about workshops they had attended that added to their perceptions of how they wanted to teach literacy. Though Josie did not mention workshops she had attended, she did add that conferences and workshops would be one way she would continue to learn about teaching so that she would not "become static."

Workshops/Conferences

Holly learned ideas about teaching activities and classroom organization at a workshop that she attended. The presenter gave Holly the idea about evaluating handwriting as a part of the students' writing assignment rather than by copying sentences off the board daily. This workshop provided Holly with an alternative to the established routine for teaching handwriting in Holly's first-grade classroom. Holly incorporated this workshop leader's idea into her envisioned ideal for teaching handwriting as illustrated by this quote, "Maybe once a week I would say, 'Today I'll take a handwriting grade from your journal writing. So do your best.' And that way it would be more integrated into what we are already doing instead of a separate subject to be taught."

Abby learned about activities for using trade books to teach reading from a workshop she attended. She learned how to do a "basic story introduction" at the workshop. She also learned about activities that could be used to extend students' experiences with the story through writing or art. Abby incorporated some of the activities in the two-week literature study she did with half of her class.

Summary

According to the perspective of symbolic interactionism, meaning is constantly being constructed through a dynamic process of action, interaction, and interpretation. Each intern learned to teach literacy through an amalgamation of past and present learning experiences by continually reconstructing an image of the kind of literacy teacher she wanted to be. School biographies, teacher education course work, field experiences, and professional development activities such as reading and attending workshops or conferences all influenced what interns learned about literacy instruction.

Interns began teacher education course work with an image of what literacy instruction meant to them. Through teacher education course work (and in Abby's case, through college course work prior to teacher education course work) interns were introduced to a new way to teach literacy that differed from the way they remembered learning to read and write as students themselves in the public schools. Each intern expressed an envisioned ideal for teaching reading and writing that was consistent with the conceptual framework that guided their teacher education program. However, interns lacked information about how to implement literacy instruction in an holistic and integrated way when faced with the contextual constraints of everyday

classroom teaching. They learned about what to do in the classroom context by observing experienced teachers, trying out teaching methods with students, conducting action research, and reading professional literature and attending workshops. They are all still learning to teach literacy.

Chapter Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to present, analyze, and interpret data in a way that would provide some understanding of the experiences of interns as they engaged in literacy instruction during the second semester of the year-long internship. Data was organized into sections based on five research questions. A summary of the answers to those five research questions is as follows:

1. What does literacy mean to interns?

Literacy for interns means reading and writing for pleasure, for learning, for communicating meaning, and for achieving personal and professional goals. What literacy means to interns in a personal way is similar to what they want literacy to mean to the students they teach.

2. How do interns construct their perceptions of literacy?

Interns constructed perceptions of literacy in literate environments where they had literate role models and expectations for literate behavior.

3. What does literacy instruction mean to interns?

Literacy instruction means the teaching of reading and writing in both teacher-directed and student-directed ways. What literacy instruction means to these interns is reflected in their beliefs and knowledge, their practices, and their

envisioned ideals.

4. How do interns experience literacy instruction in the classroom context?

Interns experienced literacy instruction as the application of social strategies to adjust to the stressful situation of being an intern in order to appear competent, gain acceptance into the teaching profession, and to experiment with teaching ideas. They use conformity, compromise, and change as ways to teach literacy at the same time they are learning to teach literacy.

5. How do interns construct their perceptions of literacy instruction?

Interns construct and reconstruct perceptions of literacy instruction through a process of interaction and interpretation of situations they confront daily. They bring to teacher education course work a school biography in which they constructed both positive and negative images of literacy teaching. They learned about new ways to teach literacy during college course work. They learned how to go about teaching literacy during early field experiences and during the internship where they observed experienced teachers and gained practical experiences by teaching and interacting with others, and by conducting action research. They also learned to teach literacy by reading the professional literature and believed they would continue learning by attending workshops and conferences. At the end of the year-long internship experience, all three interns perceived that they were still learning how to teach literacy.

CHAPTER 6

REFLECTIONS, QUESTIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of the present study was to better understand the experiences of interns as they engaged in literacy instruction during the second semester of the year-long internship. Data presentation, analysis, and interpretation addressed five research questions:

1. What does literacy mean to interns?
2. How do interns construct their perceptions of literacy?
3. What does literacy instruction mean to interns?
4. How do interns experience literacy instruction in the classroom context?
5. How do interns construct their perceptions of literacy instruction?

The first section of this chapter intersperses my reflections and further questions related to the five research questions. This section attempts to make sense of the research findings by relating them to the review of current literature and research. Implications for teacher education follow.

Reflections and Questions

What can the experiences of three interns as they engaged in literacy instruction during the second semester of the year-long internship mean to the educational community? The value in understanding interns' experiences is that understanding is necessary to be able to direct change in a positive way. That change in education is desired is evidenced by educational reform literature that has criticized public schooling

in America for over fifteen years. A recent report of the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1996) calls for restructuring teacher education as an important element in improving education for the nation's school children. If teacher educators are to improve teacher education programs, they must begin with gathering information about how their preservice teachers experience them (Wideen & Tisher, 1990).

I chose a naturalistic research design (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) in order to gain understanding of interns' experiences from their perspectives. There is no attempt to generalize the findings from these interns in their particular settings to student teachers or interns in general. Descriptive accounts of similarities and differences among interns' experiences are reported so that the reader can determine the transferability of these interns' experiences to the experiences of preservice teachers in similar contexts. The value of the present research findings must ultimately be determined by the reader based on their contribution to the field of teacher education in literacy, applicability to similar contexts, and the criteria for trustworthiness as established by Lincoln and Guba (1985).

What Does Literacy Mean to Interns?

Meanings of literacy change in relation to the needs of society (Venezky, 1995). According to the International Reading Association (IRA) and the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), literacy needs of today's society reflect a "broader and more demanding" view than ever before (1996 p. 4). In the Standards for the English Language Arts document the IRA and NCTE define literacy as "the capacity to

accomplish a wide range of reading, writing, speaking, and other language tasks associated with everyday life” (1966, p.73).

To understand the experiences of interns as they taught literacy, I first set out to discover what literacy meant to them. All three interns in this study value literacy as an integral part of their lives. For all three interns, literacy for themselves meant reading and writing for pleasure, for learning, and for achieving goals. What all three interns value about literacy in their personal lives was similar to the literacy goals they had for students in their classrooms. They wanted students to read for pleasure and for learning and they wanted students to be able to use language creatively to communicate their thoughts to others in writing.

For Holly, the focus of literacy for students differed from that of Abby’s and Josie’s focus. Holly placed more emphasis on teaching students how to read while Abby and Josie place more emphasis on students’ ability to use reading and writing to learn independently and for success in life. It could be that Holly did not articulate this goal because she was teaching first grade. Josie and Abby taught fourth grade. One of Holly’s goals for first-grade readers was that they learn to read strategically and independently. She wanted students to learn through reading, but her focus was more on breaking the code than it was on reading to learn for success in life and on the job.

The finding that interns’ personal interests in and value of literacy influenced the literacy goals they had for students is similar to findings of Grossman’s (1987) study of secondary English teachers. She found that personal orientation and interest in subject matter influenced first year teachers’ selection of content, methods, and goals

for teaching English. Nespor (1987) found that teachers' interests, feelings, and values about students, teaching, and subject matter influence the direction of their teaching energy.

Questions raised include the following:

- Do interns have different literacy goals for different grade levels?
- What does literacy mean to interns who do not value reading and writing for pleasure?
- For interns who do not value reading and writing for pleasure, what kinds of literacy goals do they have for students? How do they decide on goals?

How Do Interns Construct Their Perceptions of Literacy?

All three interns constructed their perceptions of literacy in literate environments where there were literate role models and expectations for literate behavior. Interns' positive perceptions of literacy developed in a positive, supportive social context. Positive perceptions of literacy for Abby, Holly, and Josie related to enjoyable experiences with books. This finding is consistent with a social constructivist view of learning in which literacy learning is seen as "a socially constructed phenomenon that is situationally defined and redefined across differing groups" (Santa Barbara Discourse Group, 1994).

According to the Santa Barbara Discourse Group (1994), literacy is "a dynamic process in which what literate action means is continually being constructed and reconstructed by individuals as they become members of new social groups" (p. 125). This concept is apparent in interns' distinction of the difference between "home

literacy” and “school literacy;” “instructional literacy” and “literacy for their ownership.” Interns’ perceptions of literacy were related to the purpose, the content, and the context of the literate behavior.

Interns’ roles in the context also influenced their perceptions of literacy. Their personal views of literacy developed over time in different contexts, through involvement in literate behaviors in school and at home. In each woman’s new role as intern teacher, she was still constructing what literacy meant for her students. The literacy dictionary suggests, use of the plural term “literacies” in place of a singular “literacy” because of the “breadth of concepts” involved in defining the term (Harris & Hodges, 1995, p. 140). Holly referred to one aspect of literacy as “a kind of literacy.” The experiences of these three interns in constructing their perceptions of literacy suggest that the plural term “literacies” may be a more accurate description of the multiple meanings that each intern has constructed for the term “literacy.”

Further questions include:

- In what way does the classroom context influence interns’ perceptions of literacy for their students?
- What kinds of “literacies” do interns believe are most important for students to learn? Do those beliefs change as interns progress through the internship?
- In what way will the context of their “own classrooms” in their role as “first-year teacher,” influence interns’ perceptions of literacy for their students?

- Will everyday teaching as a career influence interns' personal perceptions of literacy for themselves?

What Does Literacy Instruction Mean to Interns?

Interns' perceptions of literacy instruction can be gleaned from their knowledge and beliefs about literacy instruction and how children learn literacy, their classroom practices, and their envisioned ideal. All three interns agreed that literacy instruction involves the teaching of reading and writing. They saw a difference between "the old way" to teach literacy and "the new way" to teach literacy. The old way of teaching reading connotes the traditional (behavioristic) model of teacher-directed instruction following a basal publisher's directions for the scope, sequence, methods, materials, and assessment of reading instruction.

Interns' perceptions of the new way to teach literacy were more in line with constructivist and social constructivist theories of literacy learning. The new way to teach literacy matched interns' beliefs and knowledge about how children learn to read and write over time by having opportunities to read and write in supportive contexts. Interns experienced a behavioristic model of literacy learning as students themselves. They desired to teach literacy differently from the way they were taught in elementary school. This finding suggests that interns left teacher preparation with different perceptions about literacy instruction than they had when they entered.

Interns in this study incorporated the new way to teach literacy into an ideal vision of literacy instruction. Their envisioned ideal for literacy instruction included an image of the classroom environment and of themselves as teacher in which teaching

practices were consistent with their perceptions about how children grow as readers and writers.

The concept of an envisioned ideal relates to Nespor's (1987) concept of "alternativity," in which middle school teachers envisioned ideal learning environments which were not necessarily based on personal experience or models of education they had learned about during teacher preparation. Their images were based on utopian alternatives to the kinds of classrooms with which they were familiar. The term "envisioned ideal" in this study differs from Nespor's (1987) concept of "alternativity" in that Nespor's conceptual framework is used to distinguish beliefs from knowledge as two separate constructs. The use of the word "perceptions" in this study refers to beliefs and knowledge as interrelated constructs. Envisioned ideal refers to the beliefs and knowledge that make up interns' perceptions of literacy instruction.

Envisioned ideal in this study also differs from alternativity in that personal experiences of literacy instruction and models of education that interns learned about during teacher preparation were significant factors in developing an image of the kind of literacy teacher interns wanted to be. Goodman (1988) also found that preservice teachers had guiding images of teaching that influenced what they learned about teaching and how they taught.

In summary, interns beliefs and knowledge, their classroom practices, and their envisioned ideals all add to an understanding of what literacy instruction means to them. Further insight about what literacy and literacy instruction means to interns can be gained from the following section about teaching literacy in the classroom context.

Questions for further consideration include:

- What experiences influenced these interns to want to teach differently than they remember being taught in elementary school?
- What will happen to these interns' perceptions, practices, and envisioned ideal of literacy instruction as they gain experience in the contexts of teaching over time?
- Are there interns who have experienced, as students in elementary schools, the new way to teach literacy that these interns describe? If so, what does literacy instruction mean to them?

How Do Interns Experience Literacy Instruction in the Classroom

Context?

Interns experienced literacy instruction in the classroom as the application of social strategies to assert autonomy in the context of a stressful situation where they experienced financial stress, low status, lack of recognition, lack of control, lack of support, an overwhelming work load, and a public and evaluative initiation into a desired profession. Lacy (1977) used the construct "social strategies" to explain how preservice teachers were socialized into the teaching profession. According to Lacy, social strategies refer to "purposeful selection of appropriate action based on interpretation of a specific situation" (1977, p. 67) Social strategies used by interns in Lacy's study included strategic compliance, internalized adjustment, and strategic redefinition. Using strategic compliance, interns in Lacy's study complied with constraints but held private reservations about practices. Internalized adjustment was

used when interns believed the constraints of the situation were for the best. Strategic redefinition of situations occurred when interns, who did not have formal power, managed to change the situation.

Goodman (1988) uses the concept “political tactics” to describe how preservice teachers in his study responded to “institutional expectations” (p. 31). Preservice teachers in Goodman’s study used the following five political tactics to reconcile differences in their beliefs and school expectations: 1) overt compliance, 2) critical compliance, 3) accomodative resistance, 4) resistant alteration, and 5) transformative action. Overt compliance meant adjusting their own beliefs to that of the situation. Critical compliance meant preservice teachers complied with established practices but did not adjust their thinking. Accomodative resistance was used to change instruction in small incidental ways by adding isolated activities. Resistant alteration was used when preservice teachers looked for ways to break the routine by deciding on alternative content and methods. Transformative action included planning and implementing an entire unit of study.

Interns in the present study used conformity, compromise, and change to actively adapt to the mentoring teacher’s established routine practices for teaching literacy. Conformity helped interns feel comfortable and gain acceptance. They conformed to practices they liked and to practices they didn’t like. Expectations of others who had more authority than interns, lack of knowledge, lack of status, convenience, and the need to be accepted were factors related to interns’ decisions to conform.

Conformity among preservice teachers during their field experiences is not a new phenomena. In a review of research on student teaching, Griffen (1987) addressed the issue of conformity among preservice teachers. He sites an earlier study (Griffen et al., 1983) that found "the primary influence on the student teaching experience is the classroom context" (p. 263). It is Griffen's (1987) assumption that "pressures of certification, graduation, and approval from the cooperating teacher and the university supervisor usually result in a high degree of conformity" (p. 263).

Classroom-based studies conducted by Duffy and Roehler (1986) and Durkin (1987) also suggest that contextual factors beyond the teachers' control lead them to conform to institutional restraints. Other studies of preservice teachers report that institutional factors did not wholly predetermine student teachers' practices in the classroom; rather they found a continual interplay between individual's intention and institutional constraints (Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984; Bullough, Knowles, and Crow, 1992; Britzman, 1991). Like the first year teachers in Bullough, Knowles, and Crow's (1992) study, Abby, Holly, and Josie were active participants in the socialization process of becoming teachers who chose to conform to, compromise with, or change literacy instruction in their classrooms depending on their interpretation of the situations in which they found themselves.

Interns compromised with the perceived expectations of the mentoring teacher for teaching literacy by combining their own teaching ideas with the mentoring teacher's established routine practices for teaching literacy. Compromise was a strategy interns used to experiment with their own teaching ideas that was comfortable, and

enjoyable for them and for students in a way that allowed interns to feel they were still meeting mentoring teacher's expectations. Compromise refers to a mediated position in which the intern seeks to reconcile differences between established routine practices and their envisioned ideal by doing both.

Padak and Nelson (1990) conducted case studies of two preservice teachers whose course work emphasized whole language principles and whose cooperating teachers used more conventional skills-based approaches to teaching literacy. They found that "the process of becoming teachers of literacy involved weighing the value and logic of what they had learned about literacy instruction against their cooperating teachers' beliefs and practices" (p. 105). The participants in their study attempted to negotiate differences between beliefs and knowledge and what they were asked to do. Padak and Nelson do not refer to this negotiation of differences as compromise or as a social strategy for asserting autonomy in the situation. I argue that the experiences of negotiating differences for the preservice teachers in Padak and Nelson's study were similar to Josie's, Abby's, and Holly's strategy of compromising to be able to experiment with teaching ideas they learned about during course work, while at the same time satisfying perceived expectations of their mentoring teachers.

Padak and Nelson found that both preservice teachers in their study progressed from less confidence which resulted in doing what cooperating teachers asked them to do, to more confidence and implementation of their own ideas. Developing confidence may also have been a factor in Abby's, Holly's, and Josie's ability to move from compromise to change as a social strategy. Their actions of assuming authority, making

teaching decisions, and breaking from the mentoring teacher's routine seem to suggest a growth in confidence.

Change refers to the social strategy in which interns connected teaching ideas to their envisioned ideal instead of to the established routine practices for teaching literacy. Change required a long term commitment to altering some aspect of the established curriculum, ownership of decision-making, and planning based on beliefs and background knowledge. Abby changed literacy instruction by introducing writers' workshop to her fourth-grade students. Holly changed literacy instruction by introducing independent reading and buddy reading to her first-grade students. And Josie changed literacy instruction by introducing a novel study to her fourth-grade students.

Hollingsworth (1989) found that preservice teachers initially conformed to their mentoring teachers' approaches to teaching reading because they needed to master routines to reduce complexities of classroom instruction. However, as preservice teachers progressed through the nine-month field experience, those who had perceptions of reading instruction that differed from their mentoring teachers began to teach differently. Those whose perceptions of reading instruction were similar to the cooperating teacher continued "rote modeling." According to Hollingsworth, cognitive dissonance between preservice and inservice teachers, in a supportive environment worked to promote knowledge growth and change in teaching methods in the classroom. Hollingsworth argued that "matched pairings" can limit knowledge growth and promote rote copying.

According to Holly and Abby, the difficulties of working in a classroom where intern and mentoring teacher have contrasting views of literacy instruction may be more costly in emotional ways than beneficial in knowledge growth. Johnston (1994) found that pressure to conform to their cooperating teachers' established classroom routines limited preservice teachers' knowledge growth. Preservice teachers in Johnston's study were constrained in their desire to teach according to their image of what teaching should be. They detached from the experience and diminished its value in their process of learning to teach.

The internship experience as a whole was tremendously stressful for interns. Due to the possibility of the additional pressure and stress it might create, I would not promote placing interns in classrooms where teacher and intern have opposing philosophical views of teaching and learning despite Hollingsworth's (1989) findings that cognitive dissonance may increase knowledge growth. Cochran-Smith (1991) presents an alternative to cognitive dissonance that may be more emotionally appealing and at the same transformative. Cochran-Smith argues for teacher education programs that are based on "collaborative resonance" (1991).

Cochran-Smith defines collaborative resonance as "intensification of opportunities to learn through the co-labor of communities" (1991, p. 304). In these learning communities there is respect for both the knowledge, power, and language of those who study schools from the outside (educational researchers) and those who study schools from the inside (teachers). There are regular opportunities for all

members of the learning community to talk about teaching, raise questions, and pose problems in a supportive and collaborative environment.

Cochran-Smith (1991) believes student teachers can only learn to teach “against the grain” in specific classrooms where they struggle to change standard practice along with their cooperating teachers and then follow up with discussions about teaching with more experienced educators. She suggests placing interns in classrooms with experienced teachers who are active agents for changing some aspect of education. She writes about the paradox of learning to address the broader issues of reforming education in general by focusing on specific situations, “It is only in the apparent ‘narrowness’ of work in particular classroom and in the ‘boundedness’ of discussions of highly contextualized instances of practice that student teachers actually have opportunities to confront the broadest themes of reform” (Cochran-Smith, 1991, p. 307).

Potential problems with Cochran-Smith’s concept of collaborative resonance would be in finding an adequate number of cooperating teachers who are active agents for change, and developing the kind of collaborative relationships between university personnel, school personnel, and preservice teachers that would lead to the kind of “deeply intellectual discourse” Cochran-Smith describes (1991, p. 304). Interns who participated in this study were not necessarily placed with mentoring teachers who were active agents for change. Interns did not perceive that they had adequate opportunities for supportive discourse with knowledgeable others about the problems

associated with teaching. Even so, each intern did change teaching in her classroom to some degree.

Based on the findings of the present study, interns experienced similar conditions across their individual situations that enabled them to change literacy instruction in their specific classroom contexts. Change required an envisioned ideal, ownership of decision-making and a commitment to a long term curricular alteration. Change for these interns also meant choosing what they wanted to change, getting support, using background knowledge, assuming authority, observing children, reflecting on practices, flexible planning, and willingness to risk failure, revise, adjust, and persist in their efforts to teach according to their envisioned ideal.

Further questions include the following:

- This study began after interns had already completed one semester of internship teaching. What would findings of a year-long study that began when interns began the internship reveal that might differ from this study's focus on the second semester?
- What would a study during only the first semester reveal? Do interns use the same strategies of conformity, compromise, and change during the first semester?
- What would an in-depth study of one intern reveal in the case where the intern and the mentoring teacher have similar perceptions of literacy instruction?
- What would an in-depth study of one intern reveal in a case where the intern and the mentoring teacher have opposite perceptions of literacy instruction?

- This study looked at interns during the first year that this site became a professional development school. What would a similar study of three interns with the same mentoring teachers at this school reveal after a few years as the site becomes established as a professional development school?
- What would an in-depth study of one intern reveal in a case where the environment is one of “collaborative resonance” where the mentoring teacher was an active agent for change?

How Do Interns Construct Their Perceptions of Literacy Instruction?

For the most part, interns’ answers to this question were similar to much of the existing literature on how preservice teachers learn to teach in general. Interns in this study learned to teach literacy through a combination of school biography, teacher education course work, and field experiences (Kagan, 1992; Britzman, 1991). In addition, interns in the present study indicated that professional development activities such as reading and attending workshops were ways they learned to teach.

Interns developed both positive and negative perceptions of what it means to teach literacy from observing teachers and from their experiences as students. Their envisioned ideal for teaching literacy includes the things they experienced as positive and their reactions to the things they experienced as negative. For example, Josie experienced basal reading instruction negatively. As an elementary school student, Josie wanted the option of reading books of her own choosing. She added reading workshop to her envisioned ideal because it provides students with the opportunity she wanted but didn’t get. Holly experienced basal reading and ditto work negatively as a student.

She decided to add children's literature and limit dittoes as a part of her envisioned ideal. Abby remembered limited opportunities to write creatively on topics of her own choosing while she was in school. Her envisioned ideal includes writers' workshop in which students have daily opportunities to write on topics of their own choice.

Positive experiences for these three interns were vividly remembered personal experiences that influenced their perceptions of the kind of teacher they wanted to be. Nespor (1987) refers to these episodic memories as "critical episodes." Holly remembered being read to in sixth grade as a powerful experience that influenced her to "love reading." Her envisioned ideal includes reading to children every day. The writing course Abby took where she was encouraged to write in a supportive community was a powerful influence in her perceptions of writing instruction for students. Josie's experience of learning about cooperative group learning in high school strongly influenced her to incorporate cooperative learning as a part of her envisioned ideal for teaching literacy.

In Abby's case, exposure to the same kind of reading instruction over time limited her ability to visualize reading instruction any other way. She learned about different kinds of reading instruction during course work, but she didn't acquire the knowledge she needed to be able to change the vision she constructed "from years of being taught" in the same way.

Research on the contribution of teacher education course work to teacher candidates' perceptions of teaching, learning, and schooling offer mixed results. Lortie (1975) asserts that professional education course work has little if any effect on teacher

candidates' perceptions of teaching. Grossman (1990) argues that course work has the potential to have a profound effect on preservice teachers' perceptions of teaching. Other studies also show that professional teacher preparation courses influenced perceptions and practices of teacher candidates (Craig, Bright, & Smith, 1994; Wiseman & Many, 1992; Florio-Ruane & Lensmire, 1990). Zeichner (1980) reported a shift in professional perspectives following course work. Course work had a liberalizing impact on student teachers' perceptions of teaching and learning exhibited at the beginning of field experience; however, as they progressed through preservice and into inservice teaching their perceptions shifted to more conservative views. Zeichner and Gore (1990) argue that well-designed course work can have a strong impact on teacher candidates' perceptions of teaching; however they call for more research to look into what a well-designed program of professional course work actually entails.

Interns in the present study all attributed some of what they learned about teaching literacy to their teacher preparation course work. All three interns learned about new ways to teach reading and writing. They learned about theories of reading, writing, and language development. They learned about activities they could use in their teaching. Holly talked about videos of experienced teachers she watched during course work that were influential in her developing image of the kind of literacy teacher she wanted to be. Course work added to interns construction of their envisioned ideal for teaching reading and writing. During course work Holly learned about readers' workshop, Abby learned about writers' workshop, and Josie learned about teaching reading with trade books.

In Holly's case, information learned during course work changed prior beliefs about teaching reading. Information about how young children learned to read convinced Holly that it was a good idea to have emergent readers read along with her when she read big books to them.

Course work did not provide interns with enough information about how to teach reading and writing in a way that was consistent with their newly formed envisioned ideals. Course work did not prepare interns to transfer their new knowledge, beliefs, and theories into classroom practices. Interns gathered information and developed knowledge "cognitively" during course work and by reading professional literature. It was interns' perceptions that they learned the "implementation and the execution" of teaching by watching and doing. Seeing teachers successfully implement practices and then "jumping in" and doing those practices themselves were powerful factors in interns' learning.

Field experiences were occasions for watching experienced teachers with the added element of being able to "jump in" and "take over" teaching. The results of the present study view learning to teach during field experiences as a process of socialization into the profession. Lacy (1977) defines socialization as "the development of sets of behaviors and perspectives by an individual as he confronts social situations" (p. 30). Many researchers report contextual constraints preservice teachers confront during the classroom teaching portion of their teacher education programs (Richards, Gipe, & Moore, 1995; Britzman, 1991; Padak & Nelson, 1990; Goodman, 1988; Lacy, 1977). All three interns used social strategies to actively adapt to contextual constraints

in their process of learning to teach literacy during the second semester of the year-long internship.

Interns learned to teach like their mentoring teachers by observing their mentoring teachers and conforming to the mentoring teachers' practices and established routines. They learned to teach by compromising with perceived expectations of other and by connecting their own teaching ideas to the established routine. Interns also learned to teach by "taking over" and making a long term change to some aspect of the established routine. For two interns, the action research project was the impetus for changing literacy instruction in the classroom.

Gore and Zeichner (1991) contend that action research can be used to help promote reflective inquiry and help establish "habits of self-monitoring" during teacher preparation "so that teachers can enter the profession with the disposition and skills that will enable them to continue to learn from experience" (p. 119). Though the 18 elementary student teachers in their study of action research and reflective teaching did not demonstrate as much evidence of critical reflection as they had hoped for, Gore and Zeichner continue to "strongly believe that action research is an important part of [their] teacher education program" (p. 126). They suggest a need to do more to help student teachers frame their topics, make use of the knowledge produced by former students and classroom teachers as a part the student teaching seminar, and provide more time for collaborative discussions between students, university personnel, and cooperating teachers.

In summary, interns in the present study brought their own individual biographies, their perceptions of teaching, learning, and subject matter, and an ideal image for teaching to the internship. It was at the intersection of interns' biographies, perceptions, and ideal images of teaching and the interactions they experienced in each teaching situation that interpretations were constructed and courses of action determined. It was each intern's interpretation of each situation that determined whether interns chose to conform to, compromise with, or change established routine literacy practices in the classroom context. Many questions remain about how interns' believed they learned to teach literacy:

- What did interns learn about teaching literacy during the first semester of internship teaching?
- What was it like for interns to conform to, compromise with, change established routines for teaching literacy? How did they experience each strategy?
- What were interns' perceptions of literacy and literacy instruction before they entered teacher education?
- What would an in-depth look at the process of change for interns reveal that would be helpful in supporting teaching for change for future interns?
- What role did action research play in each individual's process of learning to teach?

Implications

The purpose of this study was to better understand the experiences of interns as they engaged in literacy instruction during the second semester of the year-long internship. Selection of this research purpose and the specific research questions are related to my future aspirations to become a teacher educator in the field of literacy education. Thus, implications of the findings are directed toward teacher education in literacy based on the experiences of three interns. Transferrability to other preservice teachers in other programs must be determined by the reader based on the “degree of fittingness” of the sending and receiving contexts (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

My rationale for conducting this study was that in gaining understanding of interns’ experiences I might be better prepared to teach in my selected field. I further hoped that my findings might suggest ways to restructure teacher education in literacy so that preservice teachers can use the knowledge and beliefs from teacher education courses in their field experiences and in the subsequent years of teaching in ways that will overcome the common progressive-traditional shift of teaching practices described by Zeichner (1980).

Findings of the present research reveal that at the end of the internship experience interns were aware that they were still in the process of learning to teach literacy. Implications for teacher education in literacy are that teacher educators should promote the idea that interns leave teacher education as learners. I argue for a shift in thinking of teacher education as a program of learning to teach to teacher education as a program of learning to learn how to teach. Teacher education as a program of

learning to learn how to teach would convey the message that learning to teach is a career-long process of continual professional development.

Interns in this study embraced the new theories and methods they learned about in teacher education course work. They lacked knowledge, experience, and power for implementing the ideas. They faced contextual constraints that limited what they could do to advance their own learning and teaching. They used social strategies to overcome contextual constraints in some situations. Implications in this study focus on the conditions that enabled interns to change literacy instruction in ways that were more aligned with the theories and practices they learned about during course work. Understanding the conditions that related to interns' ability to change literacy instruction in their classrooms might enhance the likelihood that interns will be able to use the same strategies to continue to learn to teach throughout their careers.

Contextual constraints are a reality of teaching in schools. It is most likely that interns as teachers will have to deal with institutional restraints of some kind. The responsibility of teacher educators might be to provide teacher candidates with strategies they can use as teacher/learners to teach according to current theory and best practices in the face of contextual constraints. The idea of teacher education as a way to learn how to teach through self-guided inquiry, practice, and reflection suggests some directions for teacher preparation programs.

All three interns changed literacy teaching in their classrooms to some degree. It is in looking at the factors that enabled interns to change their mentoring teachers'

established routine practices for teaching literacy that teacher educators in literacy can gain insight into supporting teaching for change.

1. Vision-- Each intern began with a vision of the kind of learning environment she wanted to create for students. Implications for teacher educators are to provide experiences in which interns can learn about, observe, and experience best practices based on current theory and research so that they can construct a vision. Interns in the present study constructed visions from biographical experiences in school, college course work, early field experiences, secondary placements during the internship, videos, and professional books and workshops. Involving teacher candidates in the kinds of learning activities that they will be expected to use in their classrooms also helped interns to construct a vision.
2. Mentoring Teacher Support— Interns in this study saw the mentoring teacher as having higher status and more authority as the real teacher than they did as intern teachers. Each intern needed to gain the support of their mentoring teacher before she believed she could change the established routine for teaching literacy. All three mentoring teachers needed to give up ownership of the teaching before interns could assume it. Mentoring teachers gave interns “permission,” “time,” and “freedom” to change the established routine practices. Mentoring teachers were more likely to give up ownership of the teaching when they were confident that interns’ had developed a plan for proceeding with curricular change. For Holly and Abby action research worked in that capacity.

3. Choice—Interns chose what they wanted to change in the classroom. Choice based on personal interests has an impact on how much energy teachers will devote to the project (Nespor, 1987). Implications for teacher educators are to have interns choose an area of the curriculum that they want to learn how to teach. Beginning with one area of the curriculum may have the added benefit of making the learning manageable.
4. Guidance—Interns needed guidance from “a more knowledgeable other” to determine how to proceed with their own learning. Implications are for the university professor to become a professional reference for interns as interns take control of their own learning. Professors might listen to what it is the intern is most interested in learning to teach and offer sources such as books, articles, hand-outs, videos, demonstration lessons in the interns’ classroom ,or observations and interviews of other teachers who already know what it is the intern is trying to learn. Regular meetings between the university professor and each intern are necessary for sharing ideas about how to plan and implement whatever it is interns want to teach. University mentors, as more knowledgeable others, should then guide the development of the plan by asking the kinds of questions that interns do not have the experience or knowledge to consider. The plan is then revised, refined, and put into action by the intern. Regular observations of intern teaching by the university professor and the mentoring teacher, with follow up conferences would allow the kind of “deeply intellectual discourse” interns need to learn from their experience. Observations should not be for purposes of evaluation, but instead

should provide the university professor and the mentoring teacher with information about how best to support the intern's learning.

Ideally the professor who works as the interns' guide and mentor should not be the same professor who evaluates the intern's teaching. Since evaluation is an integral part of teaching, interns should be encouraged to self-evaluate as they learn. A collaborative relationship between school and university personnel may make it unnecessary for university professors to evaluate interns. State requirements for licensure call for the school system to do three formal evaluations of each intern during the school year. It may be possible for school and university personnel to agree to share the results of the state evaluations so that interns are only evaluated by university personnel in cases where they receive unsatisfactory evaluations from the school system.

Cochran-Smith (1991) contends that through "discussions of highly contextualized instances of practice that student teachers actually have opportunities to confront the broadest themes of reform" (p. 307). I argue that by guiding each intern through her own "highly contextualized" process of learning how to teach one specific aspect of the curriculum, in a way that connects theory and research to practice in the classroom, she can learn to generalize that process to learning to teach other aspects of the curriculum as well. Based on interns' abilities, interests, and enthusiasm for teaching, they may generalize that process of learning to teaching several other aspects of the curriculum during the internship year. Learning how to learn to teach, and teach

well, in the face of contextual restraints can work to provide interns with the strategies they will need to employ to continue learning as teachers.

Marie Clay (1993) advocates what she calls “a self-extending system” of learning as a way for young children to use strategies to become independent readers. What I suggest is that university professors teach interns strategies for learning how to teach whatever it is they want to teach so that they leave teacher education not only as learners but as learners who have developed a “self- extending system” for continued learning in any context.

Chapter Summary

The experiences of Abby, Holly, and Josie as they engaged in literacy instruction during the second semester of the year-long internship indicate that they ended the internship believing they were still learners. Implications address the need for teacher educators to help interns learn strategies that will help them continue to learn to teach literacy according to current research and best practices throughout their professional teaching careers.

REFERENCES

DISSERTATION REFERENCES

Aaron, I., Chall, J., Durkin, D., Goodman, K., & Strickland, D. (1990). The past, present and future of literacy education: Comments from a panel of distinguished educators, Part II. The reading teacher, 43, p. 370-380.

Alvermann, D. E. (1990). Reading teacher education. In W. R. Houston (Ed.) Handbook of Research on Teacher Education (pp. 687-704). New York: Macmillan.

Anderson, R., Armbruster, B. & Roe, M. (1990). Improving the education of reading teachers. Daedalus, 119, 187-209.

Andrew, M. (1990). Differences between graduates of 4-year and 5-year teacher preparation programs. Journal of Teacher Education, 47(1), 45-51.

Applegate, J. (1986). Undergraduate students' perceptions of field experiences: Toward a framework for study. In J. Raths & L. Katz (Eds.), Advances in teacher education. Volume 2 (pp. 21-37). Norwood, NJ: Albex Publishing Corporation.

Ball, D. L., & McDiarmid, G. W. (1990). The subject-matter preparation of teachers. In W. R. Houston (Ed.) Handbook of Research on Teacher Education (pp. 437-449). New York: Macmillan.

Beisel, S. (1997). Teaching interns' perspectives of the internship. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Beld, J. M. (1994). Constructing a collaboration: a conversation with Egon G. Guba and Yvonna S. Lincoln. Qualitative Studies in Education, 7(2), 99-115.

Bell, B., & Gilbert, J. (1996). Teacher development: A model from science education. London: Falmer Press.

Berliner, D. C. (1988). Implications of studies on expertise in pedagogy for teacher education and evaluation. In New Directions for Teacher Assessment (Proceedings of the 1988 ETS Invitational Conference, pp. 39-68). Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

Blumer, H. (1969). Symbolic interactionism. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc..

Bollough, Jr., R., Knowles, J., & Crow, N. (1992). Emerging as a teacher. London: Routledge.

Bogdan, R., & Biklen, S. (1982). Qualitative research for education. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Bondy, E. (1990). Seeing it their way: What children's definitions of reading tell us about improving teacher education. Journal of Teacher Education, 41(4), 33-45.

Britzman, D. P. (1991). Practice makes practice: A critical study in learning to teach. New York: SUNY Press.

Brookhart, S. M., & Freeman, D. J. (1992). Characteristics of entering teacher candidates. Review of Educational Research, 62(1), 37-60.

Brown, J. S., Collins, A., & Duguid, P. (1989). Situated cognition and the culture of learning. Educational Researcher, 18, 32-42.

Burden, P. (1990). Teacher development. In W. R. Houston (Ed.) Handbook of Research on Teacher Education (pp. 311-328). New York: Macmillan.

Burgess, R. (1985). Strategies of educational research: Qualitative methods. London: Falmer Press.

Calderhead, J. (1996). Teachers: Beliefs and knowledge. In D. C. Berliner & R. C. Calfee (Eds.) Handbook of Educational Psychology (pp. 709-725). New York: Simon and Schuster Macmillan.

Calderhead, J. (1983, April). Research into teachers' and student teachers' cognitions: Exploring the nature of classroom practice. Paper presented at meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, Canada.

Calderhead, J., & Robson, M. (1991). Images of teaching: Student teachers early conceptions of classroom practice. Teaching and Teacher Education, 7, 1-8.

Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986). A nation prepared: teachers for the 21st century. NY: Author.

Carter, K. (1990). Teachers' knowledge and learning to teach. In W. R. Houston (Ed.) Handbook of Research on Teacher Education (pp. 291-310). New York: Macmillan.

Clark, C. M., & Peterson, P. L. (1986). Teachers' thought processes. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), Handbook of Research on Teaching (3rd ed., pp. 255-296). New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Clay, M. (1993). An observation survey of early literacy achievement. Portsmouth, NH: Heineman.

Cochran-Smith, M., & Lytle, S (1993). Inside/outside. Teacher research and knowledge. New York: Teachers College Press.

Connelly, F. M., & Clandinin, D. J. (1988). Teachers as curriculum planners. New York: Teachers College Press.

Craig, M., Bright, R., & Smith, S. (1994). Preservice teachers' reactions to an interactive constructive approach to English language arts coursework. Journal of Teacher Education, 42, 96-103.

Darling-Hammond, L., & Cobb, V. (1996). The changing context of teacher education. In F. Murray (Ed.), The teacher educator's handbook (pp. 14-62). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Duffy, G. & Roehler, L. (1986). Constraints on teacher change. Journal of Teacher Education, 37, 55-58.

Durkin, D. (1991). A classroom-observation study of reading instruction in kindergarten. Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 2(3), 275-300.

Elbaz, F. (1983). Teacher Thinking: A study of practical knowledge. London: Croom Helm.

Erickson, F. (1986). Qualitative methods in research on teaching. In M. Wittrock (Ed.), Handbook of research on teaching (3rd ed., pp. 119-161). New York: Macmillan.

Feiman-Nemser, S., & Buchmann, M. (1985). Pitfalls of experience in teacher preparation. Teachers College Record, 87(1), 53-65.

Ferrante, J. (1998). In M. C. Fjeldstad (Ed.), The thoughtful reader (2nd ed., pp. 328-337). NY: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

Fisher, C., Fox, D., & Paille, E. (1996). Teacher education research in the English language arts and reading. In J. Sikula, T. J. Buttery, & E. Guyton (Eds.) Handbook of research on teacher education (2nd ed, pp. 410-441). New York: Macmillan.

Flowers, L., & Hayes, J. R. (1994). A cognitive process theory of writing. In R. B. Ruddell, M. R. Rudell, & H. Singer (Eds.) Theoretical models and processes of reading (4th ed., pp. 928-950). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Fogerty, J. L., Wang, M. C., & Creek, R. (1983). A descriptive study of experienced and novice teachers' interactive instructional thoughts and actions. Journal of Educational Research, 77(1), 22-32.

Fox, D. L. (1993). The influence of context, community, and culture: contrasting cases of teacher knowledge development. In D. Leu & C. Kinzer (Eds.), Examining Central Issues in Literacy Research, Theory, and Practice (pp. 345-351). Chicago: National Reading Conference, Inc.

Fuller, F. F., & Bown, O. H. (1975). Becoming a teacher. In K. Ryan (Ed.), Teacher Education (74th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Pt. II, pp. 25-52). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Freeman, C. (1995). A literate community. Common threads and unique patterns in teaching and learning. Lanham, Md: University Press of America, Inc.

Goodlad, J. (1990). Better teachers for our nation's schools. Phi Delta Kappan, 72, 184-194.

Graue, E. & Walsh, D. (1995). Children in context: Interpreting the here and now of children's lives. In J. A. Hatch (Ed.), Qualitative Research in early childhood settings (pp. 135-154). Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.

Grommon, A. (1991). Teachers as language learners. A history of English language arts teacher education. In J. Flood, J. Jensen, D. Lapp, & Squire, J. (Eds.), Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts (pp. 380-393). New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Gomez, M. L. (January, 1990). Learning to teach writing; Untangling the tensions between theory and practice. Research Report 89-7. East Lansing, MI: The National Center for Research on Teacher Education.

Goodman, J. (1988a). Constructing a practical philosophy of teaching: a study of preservice teachers' professional perspectives. Teaching and Teacher Education, 4(2), 121-137.

Goodman, J. (1988b). The political tactics and teaching strategies of reflective, active preservice teachers. The Elementary School Journal, 89(1), 23-41.

Goodman, K. S. (1994). Reading, writing and written texts: A transactional, sociopsycholinguistic view. In R. B. Ruddell, M. R. Rudell, & H. Singer (Eds.) Theoretical models and processes of reading (4th ed., pp. 1093-1130). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Gore, J. M., & Zeichner, K. M. (1991). Action research and reflective teaching in preservice teacher education: A case study from the United States. Teaching and Teacher Education, 7(2), 119-136.

Griffen, G. (1986). Issues in student teaching: A review. In J. Raths & L. Katz (Eds.), Advances in teacher education. Volume 2 (pp. 239-273). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Grossman, P. (1992). Why models matter: An alternative view of professional growth in teaching. Review of Educational Research, 62(2), 171-179.

Grossman, P. (1991). Overcoming the apprenticeship of observation in teacher education coursework. Teaching and Teacher Education, 7(4), 345-357.

Grossman, P. (1990). The making of a teacher: Teacher knowledge and teacher education. NY: Teachers College Press.

Grossman, P. (1987). A tale of two teachers: the role of subject matter orientation in teaching. Knowledge Growth in a Profession Publication Series. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, School of Education.

Guyton, E. & McIntyre, D. J. (1990). Student teaching and school experiences. In W. R. Houston (Ed.) Handbook of Research on Teacher Education (pp. 514-534). New York: Macmillan.

Hargreaves, A. (April, 1994). Development and desire: A postmodern perspective. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational

Research Association: New Orleans (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 372 057).

Harris, R. C., & Harris, M. F. (1992). Preparing teachers for literacy education: University/school collaboration. Journal of Reading, 35(7), 572-579.

Harris, T. L., & Hodges R. E. (1995). The Literacy Dictionary: The vocabulary of reading and writing. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Hatch, J. A. (in press). Qualitative research in early childhood education.

Hiebert, E. H. & Raphael, T. E. (1996). Psychological perspectives on literacy and extensions to educational practice. In D. C. Berliner & R. C. Calfee (Eds.) Handbook of Educational Psychology (pp. 550-602). New York: Simon and Schuster Macmillan.

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

Holmes Group (1986). Tomorrow's teachers. East Lansing, MI: The Holmes Group, Inc..

Holt-Reynolds, D. (1991). Practicing what we teach (Research Report 91-5). National Center for Research on Teacher Learning, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI (ED 337 460).

IRA/NCTE (1996). Standards for the English language arts. Newark, DE: International Reading Association & National council of Teachers of English.

Jackson, P. W. (1968). Life in classrooms. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Johnston, S. (1994). Experience is the best teacher; or is it? An analysis of the role of experience in learning to teach. Journal of Teacher Education, 45(3), 199-208.

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

Kinzer, C. K. (1988). Instructional frameworks and instructional choices: comparisons between preservice and inservice teachers. Journal of Reading Behavior, 20(4), 357-377.

Langer, J. (1991). Literacy and schooling: A sociocognitive perspective. In E. H. Hiebert (Ed.), Literacy for a diverse society. Perspectives, practices, and policies (pp. 9-27). New York: Teachers College Press.

Lacy, C. (1977). The socialization of teachers. London: Methuen.

Lewis, C. S. (1950). The Lion, The Witch, and the Wardrobe. New York: Collier Books.

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

Lonberger, R. B. (1992). The belief systems and instructional choices of preservice teachers. In N. Padak, J. Logan, & T. Rasinski (Eds.), Literacy research and practice: Foundations for the year 2,000 (pp. 71-78). Pittsburg, KS: College Reading Association.

McDermott, P., Gormley, K., Rothenberg, J., & Hammer, J. (1995). The influence of classroom practica experiences on student teachers' thoughts about teaching. Journal of Teacher Education, 46(3), 184-191).

McIntyre, D. J., Byrd, D. M., & Foxx, S. M. (1996). Field and laboratory experiences. In J. Sikula, T. J. Buttery, & E. Guyton (Eds.) Handbook of research on teacher education (2nd ed, pp. 171-193). New York: Macmillan.

Morrow, L. M., & Walker, B. (1997). America reads: Ideas on getting a program started. Reading Today, 16, 30-31.

Mohr, M. (1996). Wild dreams and sober cautions: The future of teacher research. In Z. Donoahue, M. Tassell, & L. Patterson (Eds.), Research in the classroom. Talk, texts, and inquiry (pp. 117-123). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Moss, B. (1992). Preservice teachers' reminiscences of positive and negative reading experiences: A qualitative study. In N. Padak, J. Logan, & T. Rasinski (Eds.), Literacy research and practice: Foundations for the year 2,000 (pp. 29-35). Pittsburg, KS: College Reading Association.

Mullis, I. V. , Campbell, J. R., & Farstrup, A. E. (1993). Executive summary of the NAEP 1992 reading report card for the nation and the states: Data from the national and trial state assessments. Washington, DC: National Center for Educational Statistics.

National Commission on Excellence in Education. (1983). A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform. Washington, DC: U. S. Government Printing Office.

National Commission on Teaching & America's Future (1996a). What matters most: Teaching for America's future (1st ed.). New York: Teachers College.

National Commission on teaching & America's future. (1996b). What matters most: teaching for America's future. Summary report (1st ed.). New York: Teachers College.

NCATE Committee. (Fall, 1995). Licensure Programs. (Vol. II, Book 4). Tennessee: Prepared for the Tennessee State Dept. of Education Site Visit.

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

Newman, J. (1987). Learning to teach by uncovering our assumptions. Language Arts, 64(7), 727-737.

Nolen, P., McCutchen, D., & Berninger, V. (1990). Ensuring tomorrow's literacy: A shared responsibility. Journal of Teacher Education, 41(3), 63-72.

O'Donnell, R. C.(1990). English language arts teacher education. In W. R. Houston (Ed.) Handbook of research on teacher education (pp. 705-716). New York: Macmillan.

Padak, N. D., & Nelson, O. G. (1990). Becoming a teacher of literacy: Novice whole language teachers in conventional instructional environments. In J. Zutell & S.

McCormick (Eds). Literacy theory and research: Analyses from multiple paradigms (pp. 99-107). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

Pajares, M. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. Review of Educational Research, 62(3), 307-332.

Patterson, L., Santa, C., Short, K., & Smith, K. (Eds.). (1993). Teachers are researchers: Reflection and action. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Popkewitz, T. (1984). Paradigms and ideology in educational research. London: Farmer Press.

Richards, J. C., Gipe, C., & Moore, R. C. (1995). Sociocultural factors: How context influences preservice teachers and university supervisors in an urban field placement. Journal of Reading Education, 20, 64-68.

Richardson, V. (1996). The role of attitudes and beliefs in learning to teach. In J. Sikula, T. J. Buttery, & E. Guyton (Eds.) Handbook of research on teacher education (2nd ed, pp. 102-119). New York: Macmillan.

Roehler, L. R., Duffy, G. G., Herrmann, B. A., Conley, M., & Johnson, J. (1988). Knowledge structures as evidence of the 'personal:' Bridging the gap from thought to practice. Journal of Curriculum Studies, 20, 159-165.

Roskos, K., & Walker, B. (1994). Learning to teach problem readers: Instructional influences on preservice teachers practical knowledge. Journal of teacher education, 45, 279-287.

Ruddell, R. B., Ruddell, M. R., & Singer, H. (1994). Theoretical models and processes of reading. (4th ed.). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Ruddell, R. B., & Unrau, N. J. (1994). Reading as a meaning-construction process: The reader, the text, and the teacher. In R. B. Ruddell, M. R. Rudell, & H. Singer (Eds.) Theoretical models and processes of reading (4th ed., pp. 996-1056). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Rumelhart, D. E. (1980). Schemata: The building blocks of cognition. In R. J. Spiro, B. C. Bruce, & W. F. Brewer (Eds.) Theoretical issues in reading comprehension: Perspectives in cognitive psychology, linguistics, and education (pp. 33-58). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Rumelhart, D. E. (1994). Toward in interactive model of reading. In R. B. Ruddell, M. R. Rudell, & H. Singer (Eds.) Theoretical models and processes of reading (4th ed., pp. 864-894). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Santa Barbara Discourse Group. (1994). Constructing literacy in classrooms: Literate action as soical accomplishment. In R. Ruddell, M. Ruddell, & H. Singer (Eds.) Theoretical models and processes of reading (4th ed., pp. 864-894). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Sedlak, M. (1987). Tomorrow's teachers: The essential arguments of the report. In M. Sedlak (Ed.), Reforming teacher education: The impact of the Holme's Group Report (pp. 4-15). New York: Teachers College Press.

School Accreditation Committee. (1996). School self-study report. Tennessee: Lakeland Elementary School.

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

Spradley, J. P. (1980). Participant observation. NY: Holt, Rhinehart, and Winston.

Spradley, J. P. (1979). Ethnographic Interview. NY: Holt, Rhinehart, and Winston.

Stansell, J. (1994). Reflection, resistance, and research among preservice teachers studying their literacy histories: Lessons for literacy teacher education. In C. Kinzer & D. Leu, J. (Eds.), Multidimensional aspects of literacy research, theory, and practice. Forty-third yearbook of the National Reading Conference (pp. 448-458). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference.

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

Thomson, S., Beacham, B., & Misulis, K. (1992). A university and public school collaborative approach to preparing elementary teachers. The teacher educator, 28(2), 46-51.

Tisher, R., & Wideen, M. (1990). Review, reflections and recommendations. In R. Tisher & M. Wideen (Eds.), Research in teacher education: International perspectives (pp. 155-267). London: The Falmer Press.

University of Tennessee and Tennessee Partnership School Systems. (1996-97). Handbook for the professional year internship. Tennessee: Knoxville.

University of Tennessee, College of Education. (1995). We're questioning everything: A continuing accreditation report prepared for the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. Knoxville: University of Tennessee.

Venezky, R. L. (1995). Literacy. In T. L. Harris & R. E. Hodges (Eds.), The literacy dictionary (p. 142). Newark, DE: International Reading Association, Inc.

Vygotsky, L. (1978). Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Walsh, D.J., Tobin, J. J., & Graue, M. E. (1993). The interpretive voice: Qualitative research in early childhood education. In B. Spodek (Ed.), Handbook of qualitative research (pp.464-476). New York: Macmillan.

Weaver, D., & Stanulis, R. (1996). Negotiating preparation and practice: Student teaching in the middle. Journal of Teacher Education, 47(1), 27-36.

Weinstein, C. S. (1990). Prospective elementary teachers' beliefs about teaching: Implications for teacher education. Teaching & Teacher Education, 6(3), 279-290.

Westerman, D. A. (1991). Expert and novice teacher decision making. Journal of Teacher Education, 42(4), 292-305.

White, J. J. (1989). Student teaching as a rite of passage. Anthropology and Education Quarterly, 20, 177-194.

Wideen, M., & Tisher, R. (1990). The role played by research in teacher education. In R. Tisher & M. Wideen (Eds.), Research in teacher education: International Perspectives (pp. 1-10). London: The Falmer Press.

Wiseman, D. L., & Many, J. E. (1992). The effects of aesthetic and efferent teaching approaches on undergraduate students' responses to literature. Reading Research and Instruction, 31(2), pp. 66-83.

Wolcott, H. (1995). The art of fieldwork. Walnut Creek, CA: Sage.

Wong, M. J., & Osguthorpe, R. T. (1993). The continuing domination of the four-year teacher education program: A national survey. Journal of Teacher Education, 44(1), 64-70.

Woods, P. (1992). Symbolic interactionism: Theory and method. In M. LeCompte, W. Millroy, & J. Preissle (Eds.), The handbook of qualitative research in education (pp. 337-404). San Diego: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Publishers.

Yinger, R., & Hendricks-Lee, M. (1993). Working knowledge in teaching. In C. Day, J. Calderhead & P. Denicolo (Eds.), Research on teacher thinking: Understanding professional development (pp. 100-123). London: Falmer Press.

Yonemura, M. (1986). A teacher at work. Professional development and the early childhood educator. NY: Teachers College Press.

Zeichner, K. (1980). Myths and realities: Field-based experiences in preservice teacher education. Journal of Teacher Education, 31(6), 45-55.

Zeichner, K. & Gore, J. (1990). Teacher socialization. In W. Houston (Ed.) Handbook of Research on Teacher Education (pp. 329-348). New York: Macmillan.

Zeichner, K. & Tabachnick, R. (1981). Are the effects of university teacher education 'washed out' by school experience? Journal of Teacher Education 32(3), 7-11.

Zimpher, N., & Howey, K. (1990). Scholarly inquiry into teacher education in the United States. In R. Tisher & M. Wideen (Eds.), Research in teacher education: International perspectives (pp. 163-190). London: The Falmer Press.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
SCHEDULES OF CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS

Schedules of Classroom Observations

JOSIE MILLS						
PHASE I	Obs	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.	Fri.
Jan 20	O-1	9:15-10:52				
Jan 30	O-2				9:40-10:55	
PHASE II						
Feb 13	O-3				9:15-11:15	
Mar 3	O-4	8:20-10:20				
Mar 13	O-5				12:50-1:50	
Apr 7	O-6	2:55-4:00				
PHASE III						
Apr 8	O-7		8:55-10:20			
Apr 17	O-8				9:45-10:15	
Apr 22	O-9		FULL DAY 8:40-2:45			
May 9	O-10					8:40-9:20
May 9	O-11					1:00-2:00
Total Observation Time				19 hours and 2 minutes		

HOLLY RAINES						
PHASE I	Obs.	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.	Fri.
Jan 23	O-1				10:00-10:30	
Feb 14	O-2					9:55-10:55
PHASE II						
Mar 10	O-3	8:30-11:30				
Mar 13	O-4				8:45-11:25	
PHASE III						
Apr 7	O-5	11:00-1:15				
Apr 10	O-6				11:00-1:15	
Apr 18	O-7					8:35-10:15
Apr 24	O-8				9:50-11:25	
Apr 28	O-9	10:10-2:20				
May 9	O-10					12:05-1:00
May 12	O-11	Full Day 8:30-2:45				
Total Observation Time				24 hours and 2 minutes		

Schedule of Classroom Observations (Continued)

ABBY ADAMS						
PHASE I	Obs.	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.	Fri.
Jan 23	O-1				11:25-12:27	
Feb 7	O-2					12:55-2:25
PHASE II						
Feb 25	O-3		9:00-11:40			
Mar 20	O-4				12:55-2:10	
Mar 26	O-5			Full Day 8:10-3:15		
PHASE III						
Apr 17	O-6				8:35-9:35	
Apr 18	O-7					8:35-10:15
Apr 28	O-8	8:38-9:50				
May 5	O-9	1:10-2:00				
May 26	O-10	8:20-10:05				
Total Observation Time				19 hours and 4 minutes		

APPENDIX B
INTERVIEW GUIDES

Interview Guide: Group 1

1. Think about what literacy means to you. Tell me about it.
2. How do you think you came to your views of literacy?
3. Think about your own literacy learning. Tell me about it.
Probe: How did it make you feel? What was that like for you?
4. Compare your experiences of literacy learning in school and out of school.
Probe: How did it make you feel? What was that like for you?
5. Compare literacy instruction in your classroom with literacy instruction that you experienced in the same grade, as a student yourself.
6. Think about how you experience literacy now in your daily lives. Tell me about it.
7. Is there anything else you can think of to tell me that will help me better understand your view of literacy?

Interview Guide: Group 2

1. Tell me about your literate self...How does literacy fit into your life?
2. How did you come to value literacy in your life?
3. When you think of literacy instruction, what comes to mind?
4. How did you experience literacy instruction in your primary field placement?
5. Compare your expectations of teaching literacy with your actual experience of teaching literacy in your primary field placement.
6. What have you learned about literacy instruction this year that has been most valuable to you?
7. Is there anything else I need to know about your experience of literacy instruction that will help me write your story?
8. Now that you are nearing the end of this year, tell me about what the internship experience has been like for you.
9. If you could change anything about this experience what would it be? (What would make it better for interns next year?)
10. In general, how does this experience compare to your expectations that you had last summer?

Individual In-depth Interview Guide

1. Tell me about a typical day in your classroom.
2. Tell me how literacy instruction fits in.
3. Think about a recent lesson that you led that involved literacy instruction. Tell me about it.
4. How did you go about planning that lesson?
5. Think of other ways you support literacy development for your students. Tell me about them. Probe: Any other ways?
6. How do you decide what you will teach in literacy?
7. How do you decide what methods to use?
8. How do you decide what materials you will use?
9. Think about literacy goals for your students. What do you want your students to know and be able to do by the end of the school year?
10. What do you want to know about teaching literacy by the end of the year?
11. Compare the way you were taught literacy with the way you now teach.
12. Compare your view of literacy and literacy instruction with that of your mentoring teacher.
13. During the group interview, there was talk about the old way of teaching and the new way of teaching. What do you consider to be the old way of teaching literacy?
14. What do you consider to be the new way of teaching literacy?
15. What have you learned about teaching literacy? How did you learn it? What are you still learning?

16. Another issue that came up in the group interview was that there are different views about the best way to teach literacy. What do you think is the best way to teach literacy?
17. How did you come to that view?
18. How does the way you teach literacy now compare to the way you want to teach literacy?
19. Who has power over how you teach literacy?
20. How do you see technology in relation to literacy?
21. With all the many different methods available for teaching literacy, how will you decide which method you prefer?
22. What are your views of illiteracy?

Individual In-depth Interview Guide (Exit Interview)

1. What would you say you've learned this year about teaching literacy?
2. What was it like for you to teach reading?
3. What was it like for you to teach writing?
4. What other ways did you teach literacy?
5. What influenced the way you taught literacy?
6. How do you think children progress from less able to more able readers?
7. What kinds of things would you do to help an emerging reader learn to read in a conventional way?
8. How do you think children progress from less able to more able writers?
9. What kinds of things would you do to help an emerging writer learn to write in a conventional way?
10. Think about ways you have grown and changed during this experience. What have you learned as a person through the internship experience?
11. What have you learned about the profession? (About being a teacher?)
12. We talked in the group interview about some of the stressors you experienced this year. Can you share an experience that you found to be rewarding or that you feel good about? That had some value for you?
13. What was it like for you to participate in this dissertation study?
14. What else do you think I need to know to better understand how you experienced teaching and learning to teach literacy this year?

Reflective Interview Guide Questions: Holly Raines

These questions are based on fieldnotes from the Jan. 23 classroom observation of Holly Raines in her first-grade classroom.

1. Before I came into the classroom, you met me in the commons area and talked about computer problems. How did the computer problems affect your teaching for the day.
2. When I observed in your classroom you were working with individual children on their homework books. Tell me about the homework books.
3. I noticed that you helped children a number of different ways as they read words and sentences from the homework books. Can you tell me about helping kids read?
4. At one point you said that the word 'machine' was a red flag word. What does that mean?
5. What do you hope will happen for children as a result of working in these homework books?
6. How does this lesson fit with your view of literacy?
7. Is there anything else you want me to know that will help me understand your view of literacy and literacy instruction?

Reflective Interview Guide Questions: Josie Mills

These questions are based on fieldnotes from the March 13 observation of Josie Mills in her fourth-grade classroom.

1. How is reading the *Lion, the Witch and the Wardrobe* coming along?
2. What is it like for you to be out of the basal?
3. How did you learn to use a trade book for teaching reading?
4. How is your action research coming along?
5. I observed last Thursday when students were involved in a social studies lesson. What were your learning goals for students?
6. In your opinion, did this social studies lesson in any way relate to literacy learning?
7. I have observed in your classroom many times now and have been struck by the Hispanic students. What is it like for you to have the Hispanic students in the classroom?
8. How do you think they are doing with literacy learning?
9. I noticed while observing and in looking at your schedule that homework is assigned daily. What kinds of literacy homework do you assign?
10. After observing on Thursday, you talked about how exhausted you when you went home Wed. evening. Can you talk a bit about your experience of exhaustion?

Reflective Interview Guide Questions: Abby Adams

These questions are based on an observation in Abby Adams' fourth-grade classroom on Monday, May 26, from 8:20-10:05.

1. Talk about your decision for the activity preceding the story.
2. Talk about your decision to have students discuss the title and illustrations before reading the story.
3. In what way do you think vocabulary introductions help the reader?
4. How did you decide which students to pick for reading aloud?
5. What's your purpose in asking questions throughout the read aloud?
6. What was your purpose in planning the follow-up activity?
7. I noticed your mentoring teacher was involved by sitting in a student desk with students, watching the activities, and at times, adding to the discussion. I've seen her do these same kinds of things on several different occasions. How does that make you feel?
8. It appears that your mentoring teacher takes in interest in your teaching as you teach. I'm wondering if you and she ever have time to talk about the lesson when it is over.
9. This was a whole group reading lesson, which I know is the way reading is taught in your room, for the most part. What do you see as the pros and cons of whole group reading instruction?

VITA

Cathleen Allred graduated from high school in Mannheim, Germany. She holds a Bachelor of Science degree in Early Childhood Education and a Master of Science degree in Learning Disabilities from Columbus State University, Columbus, Georgia. In August 1994, she enrolled in the doctoral program offered by the Holistic Teaching/Learning Unit of the New College of Education, The University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Her professional career includes 13 years of public school teaching in grades K-2 in Georgia and Virginia. She has also taught developmental reading courses at Pellissippi State Technical Community College, Knoxville.

After graduation Cathleen will join the faculty at State University of West Georgia in Carrollton. She has accepted a position as Assistant Professor of Language Arts and Reading in the Early Childhood/Elementary Education Department of the College of Education.