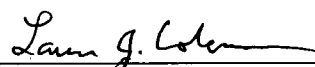


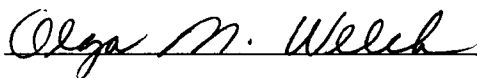
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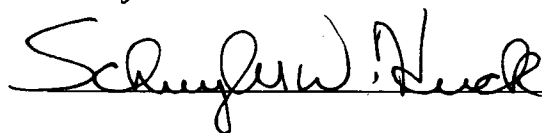
I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Marie E. Peine entitled "I'd Just Be Wantin' To Go On': Gifted Students Talk About Waiting in the Regular Classroom." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Education.

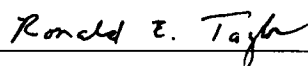


Laurence J. Coleman, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:







Accepted for the Council:



Associate Vice Chancellor and
Dean of the Graduate School

**"I'D JUST BE WANTIN' TO GO ON":
GIFTED STUDENTS TALK ABOUT WAITING
IN THE REGULAR CLASSROOM**

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

**Marie E. Peine
August 1999**

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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to Emelie Peine, Mary Anne Peine, David Kear, Katy Clabo, Brian Myers, Michael King, and the many other gifted students who met in my classrooms at numerous schools in the Sevier County School System. Wanting to know, willing to wait, they persevered.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I could not have completed this dissertation without the help and support of many people. Even though I cannot list their names, I am very grateful to the gifted students and staff at Brown Carver Elementary School and Shannon Vista Middle School for their willing cooperation and assistance with my research.

Dr. Larry Coleman, my major professor, supported my project from its inception. He is a valued colleague and friend who has guided my thinking about gifted education for many years. Dr. Olga Welch, Dr. Ron Taylor, and Dr. Sky Huck each contributed time and expertise to my research efforts through coursework and comments. I appreciate their work on my behalf as members of my doctoral committee.

Finally, I am indebted to my husband, John, for his willingness to give me time, ideas, and support as I scattered my thinking and things of research around our home and our lives.

ABSTRACT

Gifted and talented students ask, "Why do we have to sit and wait in the regular classroom for other kids to learn stuff?" This study uses grounded theory techniques to examine the meaning of sitting and waiting in the regular classroom from the perspective of able learners

Sixteen intellectually gifted students, one boy and one girl in grades 1-8 participated in the study. The students attended schools in a suburban community in the Southeast.

Semi-structured interviews, field notes of classroom observations and conversations with teachers and school administrators, and student maps of a typical school day were the data sources for the study. Data analysis involved open, axial and selective coding to produce a grounded theory.

The core category for the gifted students was, "Waiting is boring; sometimes, waiting is fair." A set of propositional statements provides elaboration of the theory. The significance of this research is that it uses the voices of students to reveal the meaning of "sitting and waiting" that is at variance with conventional discourse on the phenomenon. The study also suggests a new avenue of inquiry for providing informed research about life in classrooms.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

STUDY CONTEXT

The classroom is a familiar setting for everyone. A typical room has a teacher, students, desks, textbooks, chalkboards, pencils, assignments, a clock, and today, perhaps computers and dry-erase boards. In addition to these physical features, this setting has other common characteristics. One is that children are generally placed in a classroom according to an age/grade arrangement. At the beginning of the school year, most six year-old children will be in first grade; most seven year-old children will be in second grade, and so on. Another characteristic is that many classrooms are organized around a heterogeneous grouping plan, resulting in students at a variety of ability levels. The number of children at various ability levels is thought to approximate a normal bell curve. So, the greatest number of children will be of average ability, with a much smaller number of low and high ability students represented. Yet another characteristic of classrooms is that the curriculum is for the most part, textbook driven. The grade level textbook and its culminating assessment, the standardized, grade level based achievement test, frame the curriculum for the academic year.

All of us have spent time in a classroom. However, not all of us have spent our time there in the same way. The classroom is my workplace. About ten years ago, a group of students came to class and asked me this question: "Mrs. Peine, why do we have to sit in the regular classroom and wait for other kids to learn stuff?" The question was a recurring one. Some times the words were different, but all of the questions and comments had a similar tone: "Every English[grammar] book starts out

the same, "This is a sentence." Another question was, "If $2+3$ is always going to equal 5, why do we have to learn that every year?"

I teach gifted students in a special education resource room. The children with whom I work are certified as intellectually gifted under the special education criteria of the state of Tennessee. In order to receive services as intellectually gifted a child must meet two of the following three criteria established by the Tennessee Department of Education: 1. Intellectual functioning and ability which measures at least two standard deviations above the mean; 2. Superior academic or achievement ability which measures at the 96th percentile or above in one or more academic areas; 3. Superior intellectual ability demonstrated by the child's ideas or projects related to one or more academic fields (Tennessee Department of Education, Special Education Manual, 1993).

These criteria are rather straightforward and direct. With this information available, identification and programming decisions proceed according to a somewhat predictable pattern. Children are assigned to the gifted resource room for a certain amount of time during the school week. The majority of their time is spent in the regular classroom.

I have been working in special education/gifted for 15 years. My experiences include teaching in the regular education setting as well. In my career I have also been a member of advisory and policy making groups that considered a range of educational issues as diverse as program evaluation, curriculum development, system-wide grading policies, and school facilities planning. Working in various levels of school operations, from large group meetings to individual conversations with teachers and parents, I have developed a sense that an uneasy association exists between gifted education and regular education. A discussion of my concerns about this tension are presented in

"Practical Matters", an essay published in The Journal for the Education of the Gifted, Fall, 1998. The next four paragraphs are a brief summary of the ideas that are presented in my essay. Each of the paragraphs begins with a generalized statement, or educational maxim, that is widely accepted as an operational guideline for the classroom. The general statement is followed by my explanation of the shades of meaning that have developed around each of these maxims in the field of education. These shades of meaning shape the regular classroom where gifted children spend most of their time.

All children can learn. What this usually means is that all children should learn what is in the curriculum for their particular classroom, and usually those groupings are decided by age. Most teachers know that there are, at the minimum, about four different levels of achievement and ability in any given classroom. Yet, instruction generally focuses on students who cluster near the middle range of achievement. It is regular classroom teachers who are accountable for the "real" learning of the school year that is measured by the annual standardized achievement test. When gifted students are pulled from their classrooms for "fun" learning experiences, some classroom teachers may become resentful or suspicious of the time that gifted students spend in special education.

All children are gifted. Usually, the statement is qualified by adding "in some way" or, all children have a talent. Schools do a good job of supporting the development of some of those gifts and talents with competitive sports teams for the athletically gifted, band and chorus for the musically gifted, and student council and a variety of school organizations for those who have gifts of leadership. These activities and programs are generally accepted methods of supporting the special talents of children in school. Programs that support intellectual or academic talents do not seem

to receive such general support. In fact, these programs may be called to task as elitist or inappropriate (Margolin, 1996; Oakes, 1985; Sapon-Shevin, 1994). If we assume that gifted children are effective "doers" of what we expect in school--the acquisition and application of knowledge--our lack of support for special opportunities to practice their talents seems inequitable.

Students in special programs have special abilities and talents (see all children are gifted, above). A correlating assumption for the regular classroom is that gifted students will get good grades, that is, all A's and B's. This is generally, but not always true. Problems occur when students in gifted programs do not get good grades, and students who are not in gifted programs get better grades. Teachers become skeptical of the standards for the program and the program content. They may even begin to question whether or not the students in the program are really gifted.

Gifted students will get it on their own. Again, in many cases this is probably true. Gifted learners are assumed to be doing okay because they usually score at the top or near the top levels of achievement in standardized tests. If we are letting them get it on their own, are we fulfilling our obligations as teachers or facilitators of new learning? Additionally, gifted students who are left to get it on their own may become bored and frustrated learners who exhibit behavior problems.

No one segment of the school program is responsible for the ambiguous nature of our understandings about gifted children, but inasmuch as they affect the classroom atmosphere for these learners, then the ambiguities become a part of my attempt to investigate what is meant by sitting and waiting in the regular classroom. Gifted children in the regular classroom is the context for my study. Two pieces of research from the field of gifted education add shape to this context. The first is that, "Most academically talented students have already mastered 40%-60% of the required

curriculum offered to them in elementary school" (O'Connell-Ross, 1993, p. 19).

Scholars have been discussing this point for nearly a century. "For gifted children, drill should be decreased by about 50%" and "explanation should be reduced by about 50%, in amount, and needs to be given in much less detail than to ordinary pupils" (Whipple, 1919, p. 120). These children already know much of the material that will be presented in the classroom. The second area of research concerns instructional strategies. Teachers vary the content, method, or both of instruction less than 25% of instructional time in a classroom (Moon, 1997). Little differentiation of instruction is done in the classroom to meet the needs of gifted and talented students--who already know much of what is being presented.

The question, "Why do we have to sit and wait in the regular classroom for other kids to learn stuff?" seems to represent a singular coalescence of the characteristics of a classroom, the nature of gifted learners, and current research information about able learners in the regular classroom. The problem for investigation is: what do we know of the experience of gifted children in the regular classroom? The combination of the nature of the classroom, the characteristics of gifted children, and the research about the instructional anomaly they present in the classroom creates a somewhat disparate picture of what schooling is like for these young, able learners.

For some researchers, the topic for a study comes in an epiphany. For me, it came from a retrospective consideration of my experiences with gifted children. The most significant impetus for this study, however, was the question, "Mrs. Peine, why do we have to sit and wait in the regular classroom for other kids to learn stuff?"

Strauss and Corbin (1990) suggest professional experience as a source of researchable problems. "Professional experience frequently leads to the judgment that some feature of the profession or its practice is less than effective, efficient, humane,

or equitable" (p. 35). When my students ask me, "Why do we have to sit and wait in the regular classroom for other kids to learn stuff?", the question suggests that something in the practice of the classroom is less than effective or equitable.

My study is not intended to be a report of classroom practices, nor is it to be a study of what teachers do. It is not intended to suggest a value for any type of classroom strategies or materials. I do not wish to characterize some teachers as less effective or more effective than others. Nor is my study to be considered as an evaluation of the particular schools that granted me access to gather data from students and staff members. Since the study is qualitative, the findings are not considered to be generalizable. That is, the reports of students from my study sites are not necessarily applicable to other school settings. However, the concerns expressed by the students who came to my classroom about sitting and waiting in the regular classroom were recurrent, so my interest is in finding out what is going on here. What does it mean to sit and wait?

The purpose of my study is to find out what gifted children mean when they talk about sitting and waiting in the regular classroom. I would like to find out what "sitting and waiting" means. Nothing in the literature I have examined relates directly to this issue, so I propose to develop grounded theory about waiting to learn. The literature reports that gifted learners know a considerable amount of what they will be expected to learn in any given school year. We know that classroom curricula are intended for so-called average learners. These two pieces of information make the classroom a catch-22 setting for gifted children. Therefore, the purposes of my study are to describe the experience of the regular classroom using the voices of gifted children and to develop grounded theory about the meaning of waiting to learn in school for this group of students.

In order to understand the student experience, it seems that we should ask them to describe that experience for us. Qualitative research techniques provide a format for me to investigate this experience, but an examination of the research literature indicates that the field has not utilized these techniques, or any other techniques to any great extent, to query students about their classroom experiences. Two explanations are possible concerning this gap in our research. The first is the ambivalent feelings that we have about intellectual excellence in society in general. Schools tend to replicate this ambivalence by expecting no more than average achievement in the classroom while professing that all children should perform at their highest potential. A second explanation is that we really do not consider the opinions of children to be credible. The reason for this may "lie in an ancient sense of egotism in adults. Adults know so much more than children and explain so much more precisely that children are, in contrast, limited. This leads to the unexamined assumption that children do not really know what they think . . ." (Cullingford, 1992, p. 6). I think that we think that children cannot really be trusted--they just tell us what we want to hear. So, we don't credit their concerns as legitimate. Or, perhaps, we really do not want to hear what they have to say.

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The theoretical framework for my study sets the stage for consideration for my work in a specific body of scholarship. My view of the classroom is that it is an interactive setting. Interactions occur constantly among students, teachers, curricula, and the hardware of the classroom. Emotional, intellectual, and physical interactions are also part of the classroom setting.

The classroom as an interactive unit, an ecosystem, is suggested by the work of Roger Barker in the 1960's. Barker was interested in coordinating the study of the psychological environment, a person's life-space, and the physical environment. The classroom is an ecological environment, a real life setting that includes interacting elements. Barker examined the opportunities and constraints in an environment as a way of understanding behavior. He called this new domain of study ecological psychology, "a science of things and occurrences that have both physical and behavioral attributes" (1968, p. 19). More formally, it was, "The study of the interdependent relationships between the goal directed actions of persons and the behavior settings in which these actions occur" (Wicker, 1979, p. 16). Barker defined a behavior setting as, "A bounded, self-regulated and ordered system composed of replaceable human and non-human components that interact in an ordered sequence of events" (1968, p. 27; Wicker, 1979, p. 12). For Barker, the classroom was a behavior setting. It had a precise geographical and temporal locus, and it had psychological components. Barker was interested in the behavior of people in real-life settings, so he conducted his research in schools, at community events such as meetings and athletic contests, and in other places where people gathered, such as churches and stores. Barker viewed the setting as a powerful environmental determinant of behavior. His theory was that, "The behaviors of children can be predicted more accurately from knowing the situations children are in than from knowing individual characteristics of children" (Wicker, 1979, p. 6).

Barker's work also provides a historical context for my study in that he described "self-regulating processes" in behavior settings. These processes were mechanisms or responses used by the participants in any setting to maintain the equilibrium of activity in that setting. The responses included deviation countering

mechanisms and vetoing mechanisms (1968, pp. 13,14). The idea that students use certain techniques to monitor their interactions with peers is an on-going topic for study in education. Current research discusses self-regulating processes, coping mechanisms, that gifted students use in the classroom (Coleman and Cross, 1988; Cross, Coleman, and Terhaar-Yonkers, 1991; Lutz and Lutz, 1980; Sadker and Sadker, 1994).

The readings in ecological psychology broadened my conception of the sense of place of a classroom. That the classroom is not only a place for children, but it is also a place of children. What is going on in this setting is likely to remain obscure if we are not listening to what children have to say.

"Why do we have to sit and wait in the regular classroom and wait for other kids to learn stuff?" is where my study begins. The study is an attempt to discover and understand the specific experience of a selected group of students. This question suggests a research methodology and procedures that permit me to observe the students as they participate in classroom activities. I would like to go one step further than description in the analysis, to the generation of theory. My intention is to conceptualize the connections and interactions of gifted children in the regular classroom in the form of grounded theory about waiting to learn.

The grounded theory process originated with Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss. They describe grounded theory as the discovery of theory from data (1967). A subsequent collaboration between Strauss and Juliet Corbin resulted in Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded Theory Procedures and Techniques (1990). I used this text as my guide for understanding the procedures for a grounded theory study. Strauss and Corbin define grounded theory as "a discovery of theory from data that

has been systematically gathered, organized, and conceptualized. Grounded theory researchers are interested in patterns of action and interaction . . . in discovering process . . .and in relationships" (1990, p. 278).

Grounded theory is a general methodology that is grounded in systematically gathered and organized data. "Data collection, analysis, and theory stand in reciprocal relationship with each other" (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p. 23). Grounded theory techniques can be used to develop different levels of theory, but most grounded theory research aims to develop substantive theory. This is theory that fits a specific situation and context; the theory is grounded in time and place. Theory that is generated from data can be easily understood and applied by laypersons involved in the area to which the theory is applied and who share a similar interest.

RESEARCH PROBLEM

The purpose of my study is to investigate the experience to which gifted students refer when they talk about sitting and waiting in the regular classroom. The following research question guided my investigation: What is the meaning of sitting and waiting in the regular classroom for gifted learners? The research subquestion is: How do gifted children describe this experience?

SIGNIFICANCE

I believe that the purpose of research in education should be to inform those who manage schools and classrooms, from both a theoretical and a practical standpoint. I think there is an important connection missing between research and classroom practice; times when a practitioner's tacit knowledge is not regarded as

accountable by researchers, and times when theoretical foundations are ignored by practitioners. I would like to bring the ideas and ideals of research closer to what happens in classrooms.

This study is not the first research project that makes the classroom central to a problem or concern. Some research on life in the classroom discusses what students do in school. Waiting to learn has not been an issue in that body of research. What the research does tell us is that the possibility exists that gifted learners are not fully engaged in the process of learning as represented by regular classroom expectations. My study provides us with information from the perspective of the learner about those experiences. The study uses the voices of gifted students to describe an aspect of what they are doing in classrooms.

Historically we have often considered children to be miniature adults, and "their lives as faulted or incomplete versions of the adult world" (Mehan, 1979, p. 203). In Learning Lessons, Mehan discusses the "culture of children" as a legitimate focus for considering the interactions that occur in a child's experience. My study uses the voices of students to describe the place and time of their learning. I hope to provide a literal insight into the culture of school children as they participate in classroom activities. The meaning of what being in the classroom means to students needs to be incorporated in the planning and implementation of school activities.

This study is important because it can inform on both practical and policy levels. When I think of public education, the classroom is my first image. When I think of the classroom, curricular expectations, student work, teachers and their methods, and assessments come to mind. Considering all of these elements, the possibility exists that there is a contradiction between what we say is happening in the classroom and what is happening from the student's perspective. For example, a student who achieves

at the 99%ile is considered successful. Yet, if that same student is concerned about waiting to learn, with inadequate opportunities to advance in the classroom, then a discrepancy is here for study. An examination of classroom expectations, procedures, and practices, from the student's point of view can provide information that modifies the practitioner's view of the classroom. The findings might lead to more effective use of time, adjustments to the curriculum, and modified approaches to instruction.

Increased understanding of the classroom could help in the determination of policy. At the policy level, the current puzzle of educational reform includes these terms: national standards, charter schools, inclusion, and value added assessment. From a policy standpoint, reform needs to be informed. Considering policy and the agents of reform, local boards of education and building level administrators are people who are the decision makers. These are adults who have experienced the classroom. They tend to see learning from this experiential base, and from evidence of progression through textbooks and curriculum, an orderly sequence of classroom activities, and the annual completion and reports of standardized achievement tests. The type of discourse for reform suggested by my study is not reflected in test scores, homework, attendance records, or other norms of how success in school is measured. Our understanding of the classroom is less complete if we have not considered what the experience of school means to children. If learning opportunities are diminished by waiting, then policy makers need to know that.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

Chapter I presents an introduction to my study that includes a brief overview, the theoretical considerations, and the significance of the study. Chapter II provides a literature review about the major constructs of the study that are interwoven with the

site descriptions of the two schools from which the study participants were drawn. Chapter III introduces the research methodology and a discussion of the specific techniques of grounded theory research as they are to be utilized in the study. Chapter IV presents the data analysis. Chapter V provides a discussion of the findings and implications of the study.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW/SITE DESCRIPTIONS

The literature review presents the important constructs of my study as they are discussed in the research literature. Those constructs are school organization and time in schools. I have organized the chapter so that each of these topics is presented as it relates to the project study sites. The chapter begins with a brief rationale for the selection of the two schools which the study participants attended. For purposes of confidentiality, the name of the community and the names of the schools and students as they are discussed in the text are fictitious. The rationale is followed by a description of each school. In the next section of the chapter, the topics of the literature review are defined and then discussed in relation to a particular school building or study site. The chapter concludes with a summary of my readings.

RATIONALE FOR STUDY SITES

Access to a study site and participants is the primary concern of every researcher. Glesne and Peshkin (1992) suggest that the selection of a research site is often built into the research question (p. 23). For my study, the research question specifically mentions gifted children. My first criterion for a study site was that the school(s) include identified gifted children in grades 1-8 as part of the student population(s). The problematic portion of this criterion was to find identified students in grades 1 and 2. Since standardized achievement tests are not given in my region in grades 1 and 2, there is no automatic screening information available for the initial search for potentially gifted students. Consequently, few schools identify or provide services for gifted children at these early grade levels. From my experience and

discussions with a group of scholars, I identified additional characteristics that I wished to use as criteria for participant selection for the project: grade level, gender, and community. The rationale for these criteria is given in Chapter III, Research Methods.

Considering logistics and time limitations, I established a personal standard for time to get to the study site as 2-3 hours of driving. This consideration limited my geographic range, but I was permitted access to two schools that could support my four research criteria: identification of students as gifted, grade range, gender, and community. I did not consider particular socio-economic or diversity levels in demographics as a site selection criterion.

I conducted my study in two schools located in Shannon Vista, a suburb of a medium sized community located in a southeastern state. Principals at each of the schools signed an Informed Consent Form to indicate their agreement to participating in my study. Shannon Vista has a population of approximately 2,540 households. Almost 75% of the households consist of married couple families with a median family income of \$42,100. Sixty-two families live below the poverty level; thirty nine of these had school-aged children (1990 census data). This demographic information is similar to that of many suburbs across the nation.

Brown Carver Elementary School

Brown Carver is the traditional red brick school building. It is situated on a small bluff that overlooks a part of the suburb in which the K-5th grade students live. A school has been located on this site since 1935. A fire, rebuilding, additions, and

modular units shape the current school configuration which houses nearly 725 students in thirty classrooms (SACS Accreditation Report, 1998). The school motto is "Brown Carver - A Positive Place To Learn For Everyone."

Inside the school, the hallways are lined with art work, and numerous student projects representing every grade level are on display: self-portraits, illustrated stories, rockets, tessellations, Wright Flyers, log cabins, lunch box derby vehicles, Me Quilts from various classrooms, Pet Rocks, a Space Creatures panel, exhibits from several classroom field trips, and six life-size figures from the book, Tuck Everlasting. As I look at the exhibits, several students stop to talk with me about their projects. They are not very tall people, and the feeling here is, well, elementary.

The ethnic composition of students at Brown Carver is primarily Caucasian, with less than 2% of the students belonging to other groups. Males, 52.5%, outnumber females, 47.5%, in the student population. Students are primarily from traditional middle to upper-middle income homes. The educational level of most parents, one or both, is post-secondary. The socio-economic composition of the school results in ineligibility for Chapter I Reading and Math programs. With only 11% of the student population considered low income, the school does not qualify under the National School Lunch Program to serve breakfast. Seventy students receive free or reduced-price lunches.

Almost one-third of the student body at Brown Carver Elementary qualifies for special education services, with more than half of those students identified for the gifted program. Other special education services include services for learning disabilities or other learning differences, and speech remediation. Average daily attendance is calculated at about 96%. The school population is classified as stable.

The exit/transfer rate is less than 3%. Entering transfers usually remain at Brown Carver for the rest of their elementary education (SACS Accreditation Report, 1998).

With the emergence of the middle school concept in the mid-1960's, many K-8 elementary schools became K-5 schools. At Brown Carver, this change occurred in 1964. The curriculum in an elementary school is designed to teach the basic aspects of many content areas, rather than detailed aspects of a few subjects. Classroom teachers in an elementary school usually have instructional responsibilities for one group of students (Wolf and Loomer, 1996, p. 5).

Shannon Vista Middle School

About 2 1/2 miles northeast of Brown Carver Elementary School is Shannon Vista Middle School. The student body at Shannon Vista is primarily composed of students who matriculate from Brown Carver Elementary School and one other elementary school in the county system. Shannon Vista has existed as a middle school since 1965 and houses 620 students in grades 6, 7, and 8. The school is a two story brick building with classrooms in a modified U-shaped arrangement around a large, grassy entrance area. The hallways at Shannon Vista are lined with lockers. The school has never had a motto.

Nearly one-half of the student population, 45%, qualifies for special education services. Two hundred of those students are certified as intellectually gifted. Other special education services include classes for students with learning disabilities or other special needs. The demographic information about Shannon Vista Middle is very similar to that of Brown Carver Elementary. Most parents are well-educated and affluent. In 47% of the families, both parents work. The population of the school is primarily Caucasian with 1.52% being minority students. There are 600 students

enrolled at Shannon Vista. The average percent of students who qualify for free and reduced lunch is approximately 11%. The average daily absentee rate is 3.3% (SACS Accreditation Report, 1997).

The middle school concept is a relatively new one in terms of educational organization. The middle school is described as a school of some three to five years that focuses on the needs of students who are in-between elementary school and high school. Proponents of middle schools identify this period of children's lives as transescence--the period in human development which begins in late childhood prior to the onset of puberty and extends through the early stages of adolescence (Alexander, Williams, Compton, Hines, Prescott, and Kealy, 1969; Tye, 1985; Wiles and Bondi, 1981). Three elements serve as guidelines for the development of the middle school program: personal development, education for social competence, and skills for continuous learning (Alexander, et al., 1969; Wiles and Bondi, 1981). The characteristics of a model middle school include interdisciplinary teaming, flexible block scheduling, exploratory courses, and advisory programs (Wiles and Bondi, 1981, p. 66). These aspects of the middle school model were not evident at Shannon Vista. The school seems to be organized around a model that more closely resembles a junior high school with a departmentalized framework.

SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

Schools are considered to have both vertical and horizontal organization patterns. The vertical dimension of school organization deals with policies for moving students through the school setting from point of entry to point of departure. The

horizontal dimension of school organization is the pattern(s) by which the teaching staff works to plan and implement effective curricular experiences for children (Alexander et al., 1968).

Vertical Organization

Vertical arrangements include grade classroom configurations, usually a K, 1, 2, 3, 4 grade, and so forth, and non-grade classrooms. Both Brown Carver Elementary and Shannon Vista Middle schools are organized according to a grade plan. Brown Carver has students in grades K-5, and Shannon Vista has students in grades 6-8.

Students at Brown Carver and Shannon Vista are placed in grade level classrooms primarily according to chronological age. This age-grade grouping has been a popular method of school organization since the middle of the 19th century (Spring, 1990, p. 28). In this type of grouping for classrooms, a certain package of knowledge and skills are considered appropriate for mastery at each grade level. Children are expected to progress through the classroom material at a fixed and presented rate of subject matter and achievement each school year. Subject matter is packaged grade by grade. A certain amount of material is to be learned by all of the children in a classroom in a year's time. A child's progress in a graded classroom is seen as unified; advancing in a rather regular way in all areas of development, working close to grade level in all subjects (Huey, 1965; Wiles and Bondi, 1981).

Horizontal Organization

The horizontal arrangement of a school defines how students are grouped for instruction. These are the operating procedures that exist for dividing student populations into instructional groups. Horizontal patterns of organization include self-

contained classrooms, team teaching, departmentalized instruction, and grouping plans (Alexander et al., 1969; Collier, Huston, Schmatz, and Walsh, 1976). There is no consistent horizontal organizational pattern that describes the elementary setting. Schools do not necessarily follow any one pattern, even within a particular school. Brown Carver Elementary School is therefore a typical school from this standpoint. Shannon Vista is somewhat atypical of most middle schools in that the organizational pattern for classrooms follows a structured ability grouping pattern that is departmentalized.

Self-Contained Classrooms

Horizontal organization of classrooms at Brown Carver Elementary is done with self-contained, heterogeneous classrooms and ability grouped classrooms, for certain subject areas. The self-contained, heterogeneous classroom is the most widely used organizational pattern for elementary schools in the United States. In the self-contained classroom, the classroom teacher is generally responsible for grade level management tasks and for instruction in core academic subjects. The heterogeneous aspect of the classroom assumes that students of all ability levels will be represented in the classroom population (Collier et al., 1976). For special area study, students are usually platooned to a variety of separate classrooms for development of specific skills. At Brown Carver Elementary, this group of special area studies is called related arts and includes physical education, art, music, library, and guidance. Self-contained classrooms are found in the kindergarten, and grades 1, 2, and 4.

Departmentalized Organization

Classrooms at Shannon Vista are age-grade classrooms. The staff is organized in teams, but the team focus is a departmental, content area arrangement. With this structure, teachers are considered to be specialists in a content area. Specialization assumes that the teacher will have the knowledge to lead her students more deeply into the structure and substance of the subject matter. Certain classes are offered for students at certain grade levels. For example, the curriculum specifies local and state history for seventh grade students. Seventh grade students also complete a state-mandated writing assessment which is the focus of much of the curriculum for sixth and seventh grade English classes. There is a limited amount of flexibility in the area of mathematics, in that an 8th grade student might be enrolled in pre-algebra, which is generally designated as a 7th grade subject area for advanced students.

Ability Grouping

Students in grades 3 and 5 at Brown Carver Elementary who have demonstrated high ability and achievement in math and reading are grouped together for separate class sessions in those two subject areas. The grouping is organized around data from standardized achievement tests, classroom grades, and teacher recommendations. Aside from math and reading, these selected students travel through the rest of their day with an age-grade, heterogeneous class.

At Shannon Vista Middle School, students are grouped, starting in the 6th grade, by ability for math. This grouping is based on grade history, teacher recommendation, and math achievement scores at the 90%ile or above. Once a student is placed in a specific group for math, that group of students travels together for the majority of the school day. A separate group is selected to attend classes in accelerated

reading. Students are placed in accelerated reading on the basis of reading scores, teacher recommendation and love of reading. Some students who are in accelerated math might not be in accelerated reading, and vice versa.

Concurrently, students at the school who are not in the high ability math groups are grouped into average and low ability, or skills level groups. In seventh grade math content for the high achievement grouping is pre-algebra. Eighth grade math is Algebra I. Teachers who work with the high ability groups report that they make more diverse learning activities available to those students. In all content areas except mathematics, the same texts are used for all groups as the foundation for expectations. For example, students in English at the eighth grade level are expected to master diagramming of complex sentences in addition to the regular English requirements of the curriculum. Students in science in some classrooms do more hands-on and group projects, an enrichment strategy.

Few topics in education foster such acrimonious debate as the subject of grouping, specific ability grouping vs. heterogeneous grouping. Ability grouping is the practice of organizing students into instruction based on certain ability and/or achievement levels. Critics of ability grouping claim that it is socially inequitable; that it is based on faulty assumptions about ability; that it is academically ineffective; and that the non-cognitive effects are negative (Oakes, 1985; Slavin, 1987). Supporters of ability grouping cite research that shows achievement gains for students in all groups when the curriculum is adjusted to pupil ability, and slight evidence that indicates that students in lower ability groups may gain some self-confidence when they are grouped with others who are achieving at similar levels (Kulik, 1993).

My review of the literature about ability grouping indicates that except for critics that advocate the same, common curriculum for all students (Oakes, 1985),

supporters and critics of grouping tend to generalize terms that leads to inaccurate representations of what ability grouping represents. In many articles, ability grouping is quickly equated with tracking, and the two terms, as represented in the literature are not synonymous. However, in practice, the difference may not be as clear-cut.

Tracking is a grouping practice found most commonly in secondary schools in which students follow a specific curricular track, for example, college preparatory, vocational/technical, or general curricula paths (Brown, 1993; Oakes, 1985). Ability grouping, on the other hand, is the clustering of students for particular instruction based on a demonstrated level of achievement or ability for that instruction (Brown, 1993; Kulik, 1993).

Interestingly enough, an examination of randomly selected writings from gifted education shows that the field does not advocate ability grouping, per se. Instead, this body of readings suggests readiness, skill, time, interest, and motivation as some considerations for forming groups of learners (Gallagher and Gallagher, 1994; Robinson, 1993; Shore, Cornell, Robinson, and Ward, 1991; Van Tassel-Baska, 1992). There is general agreement on one standard for grouping between the moderate critics and supporters of grouping plans. This standard is that grouping should be flexible. Membership in groups should be flexible with guidelines for entry and exit to any given group. The grouping plan at Shannon Vista is not flexible.

The principal at Shannon Vista used this rationale for his grouping decision. In 1980 the county school system introduced calculus into the high school math curriculum. In order to move college bound students through the math sequence that included calculus, pre-algebra was added to the 7th grade curriculum, and algebra was added to the 8th grade curriculum. Since 85% of the students at Shannon Vista proceed through the college bound courses in high school and eventually go to

college, the math requirement has significant implications for scheduling at the middle school level. The principal also maintains that the grouping plan he uses reduces discipline problems because there are fewer opportunities for interaction (and therefore frustration from lower level students) between the students of the various levels of classwork. The principal also reported that parent response to the grouping plan is very positive.

Based on my experience in several schools in my system and from the two schools in this study, I conclude that, in general, grouping policies seem to be a matter of administrative philosophy. The school level administrator adheres to a certain grouping ideology, and that is the one that is followed in a school. At Brown Carver Elementary, teachers at each grade level are given wide latitude for decision making about grouping. At Shannon Vista Middle School, the principal determines student schedules, which directly affects grouping.

Gender

My primary resource for gender research was Failing at Fairness: How Our Schools Cheat Girls, written by Myra and David Sadker in 1994. The Sadkers incorporate research reports about gifted girls in their work. The researchers maintain that younger females tended to speak in "clear, strong, authentic voices". As they grow older, they tended to monitor themselves more to comply with adult descriptions for "good girl" behavior. "They tend to mask their feelings and ideas with the phrase, 'I don't know'" (p. 90). "They want to better approximate what others want and desire, or look like some ideal image of what a woman should be" (Brown and Gilligan, 1992, p. 218). "For a gifted girl, being asked a question[in class] was a no-win proposition. If she got it wrong, she looked dumb. But if she got it right, then people would dislike

her for being too smart" (Sadker and Sadker, 1994, p. 91). Carol Gilligan (1992) discussed the importance that females attach to relationships, but at age 7-14, they are at a relational impasse. According to Finders (1997), academics are perceived as opportunities to document peer allegiances. Caring about learning is considered a sign of weakness - a mark of a little girl who still needed to align herself with adults (p. 78). Finders also cited the classroom management strategy of using girls as "spacers" between misbehaving boys; a technique that further isolates girls in the learning setting. There were no overt markers of gender issues at either Brown Carver Elementary School or Shannon Vista Middle School.

TIME IN SCHOOLS

The manner in which time is organized in our schools is a reflection of our cultural perceptions of time. Western civilization derives its notion of time from Christianity. For Christians, time is linear and has meaning because of the order of events that take place in time. It was in Western religion that bells were first used to designate and differentiate time(s) (Burke, 1978) As time is regarded as a sequence of events, then that characteristic influences the institutions that develop in a culture.

A glossary of educational vocabulary contains terms that are time related. Goals are broad general statements of purpose that are timeless in nature. Objectives are measurable and are to be accomplished within a specific timeframe. The school year is divided into discrete segments for assessment; six-week, nine-week, and semester units. The school day is organized around periods of time for specific content instruction. Linear expectations are also visible in behavior requirements; straight lines of students in the hallways, line up at the water fountain. Traditional classrooms have students desks in straight lines.

Edward Hall (1983) discusses time a little differently. He looked at the organization of time as it affects social interactions. Hall called our organization of time monochronic. Monochronic time has as its focus the scheduling of separate items, one thing at a time. Monochronic time is tangible, scheduled, compartmentalized, and arbitrary. It focuses on the schedule rather than social interaction. Monochronic time uses external controls, such as school bells, to adjust systems in order to cause change to occur (p. 33).

When a child enters school, the culture comes on full force. Time becomes a factor in all of her activities. One of the first lessons of school is that time is to be used to finish a task (Nash, 1979). Schools instruct her how to make the system work. Bells tell everyone when to begin learning and when to stop. Time is imposed. Internal rhythms, classroom dynamics, and effectiveness of learning and teaching are subordinate to the schedule. Regardless of the schedule, about 30% of her time in school will be spent in a non-academic manner: waiting for the class to get quiet, passing out papers, taking attendance, morning announcements, preparing for lunch, sharpening pencils, changing classrooms or moving from one content area to another; and lining up to leave or return to the classroom (Cullingford, 1992).

The school day for students at Brown Carver begins at 8:25 a.m. and ends at 3:00 p.m. In general, time is allotted to specific subject areas following this pattern: language arts and reading--2 hours, math--1 hour, related arts--1 hour, science and social studies, on alternating days at some grade levels, have 40 minutes to 1 hour depending on the grade level. In addition, students at each grade level have thirty minutes for lunch and thirty minutes for recess. The State Department of Education has recommended guidelines for time allotted to specific subject areas, but the specific hours used per subject area is a local decision, a district-level mandate. Gifted students

at Brown Carver receive special education services through a resource room, pull-out model. That means that the students travel to a separate classroom for a certain amount of time per week. The amount of time varies according to the grade level of the students, from one and one-half hours per week for first graders to four hours per week for fifth graders.

The school day at Shannon Vista is 7:45 a.m.-2:15 p.m. Students have a 15 minute homeroom followed by seven instructional periods of 45 minutes with 30 minutes for lunch. Student schedules include five academic classes: math, literature, English, science, and social studies. One period is provided for related arts classes and one period for music, band or vocal. Related arts classes are physical education/health, library/guidance, computer technology, and industrial arts. Students are enrolled in each related arts area for one nine-week period. A unique feature of the schedule at Shannon Vista is that there are no bells that ring to signal the end of an instructional period, but they do end after 45 minutes of instruction. In lieu of ringing bells, you occasionally hear the principal on the school intercom announcing that it is time for the next period classes to begin. Occasionally during my visits at Shannon Vista, I saw students standing in the halls outside some classrooms waiting for a certain class to be dismissed. This seemed a rather inefficient use of their time, but the absence of noisome bells was a pleasant feature of the middle school.

Gifted students at Shannon Vista receive special education services through a resource room, pull-out model. They have two periods of specialized time in the resource room. Some, but not all, of the gifted students have an additional period for accelerated reading.

Time for learning in schools is structured around standards for instruction that allot certain amounts of time for certain content areas. Studies of time and learning

suggest that the curricular expectations of content that is presented in the age-grade classroom is not appropriate for advanced learners (Gettinger, 1984; Stallings, 1980; Walberg, 1988). Walberg writes that "substantial variations in the time needed to learn suggest that the same instructional content and pace will not be optimal for typical classes of students since some students may already know what is taught, and some may be incapable of learning it until they master prerequisite skills" (p. 83). The 1994 report from the Commission on Time and Learning states that, "Under today's practices, high ability students are forced to spend more time than they need on a curriculum developed for students of moderate ability. Many become bored, unmotivated, and frustrated. They become prisoners of time" (p. 15). Recent research reports that there are few modifications of the curriculum done in the classroom. Teachers differentiate instructional material or methods only about 25% of the instructional time for above average learners (Moon, 1997).

In graded classrooms, such as these at my study sites, a certain package of knowledge and skills are deemed appropriate for mastery at each grade level. A certain amount of material is to be learned by all of the children in the classroom by grading period timeframes. Subject matter is packaged grade by grade and subject by subject. Progress is determined according to what the student has completed by the end of the school year (Huey, 1965; Wiles and Bondi, 1981). Instruction is usually offered according to a fairly rigid schedule. Classes last for a specific period of time or for one class period. Standardized tests that mark the end of one segment of the academic year are also timed. The assumptions of the graded school arrangement is that learning is content specific and can be scheduled into specific time blocks or periods. Time is a discrete resource both for instruction and for assisting student with learning. These

time restrictions may inhibit the development of individual student strengths and weaknesses and interests and intensify the lack of awareness of individual student needs.

SUMMARY

This literature review provides us with an orientation to place, the school and the classroom. Both schools that are study sites have classrooms that are structured according to rather traditional organizational patterns. Although each of them has unique features that hint at particular administrative philosophies, the dominant organizational arrangement for student instruction is the age-grade classroom.

The age-grade classroom, with 180 days to master the grade level material, grading periods, and schedules that move students from content area to content area for study, provides us with an orientation to time. The question, "Why do we have to sit and wait in the regular classroom for other kids to learn stuff?", is about time in the classroom.

In the classroom, material and expectations focus on the average student. In the case of classrooms where ability grouping is the organizational guideline, the bell curve still represents the different levels of achievement found among students. Research tells us that advanced students will know approximately 40%-60% of the material that will be presented to them during a school year, and that there is little modification of content or method for above average learners. The possibility exists that gifted students are sitting and waiting in the regular classroom.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

INTRODUCTION

My choice of methods for investigating the question, "Why do we have to sit in the regular classroom and wait for other kids to learn stuff?", evolved from the parameters of that question: gifted students, regular classroom, and sitting and waiting. My own school and teaching experiences were also a factor in my choice of methods. I needed ways to gather data that would help me understand the experience of sitting and waiting from the students' perspectives. The question that I asked myself was, "What is going on in their classes?"

My basic task was to describe the phenomena of sitting and waiting as it is experienced by gifted children in the regular classroom. Because a description of sitting and waiting does not lend itself to standardized measurement, I selected interpretive techniques as the method for investigating the research problem. Questions for the interview schedule were piloted at a summer residential camp for gifted students where I was a teacher.

The research design and my selection of research methods was influenced by the assumptions from my experience as presented in Chapter I and the literature review. Readings in ecological psychology (Barker, 1968; Wicker, 1979), the paradigm of naturalistic inquiry as presented by Lincoln and Guba (1985), grounded theory as discussed by Glaser and Strauss (1967), and qualitative methods as described by Strauss and Corbin (1990) were significant sources for the development of the research design and the data analysis.

Lincoln and Guba discuss specific characteristics of naturalistic inquiry that provided me with a framework for my study of sitting and waiting, for "the doing of research" (1985, p. 38). Their discussion of setting, instrument, tacit knowledge, qualitative methods, sampling, inductive analysis, grounded theory, tentative application, and trustworthiness provided me with mental signposts for planning and organizing my study. The Lincoln and Guba characteristics also prompted me to analyze my own place in this research project.

I became involved in gifted education when my daughters were identified as gifted at ages 7 and 9. Their teacher in the gifted classroom left the system during the school year, and I was hired to fill her position. For three years after starting my job, I completed coursework to become a certified teacher in special education. Before I knew it, 10 years had passed. In that interim, I was named the Tennessee Teacher of the Year in Gifted Education and was the regional Middle School Teacher of the Year. I served on two state level task forces for gifted education. One task force developed curriculum for gifted students. The other group redefined the eligibility criteria for certifying students as Intellectually Gifted. I have been the president of the Tennessee Association for the Gifted, TAG-TENN, the state advisory/advocacy group for gifted education. Currently I am associated with gifted education in a supervisory position, coordinating the system-wide gifted program. I am also the consultant in charge of special education in a large, comprehensive middle school. In that position I work with students, parents, teachers, administrators concerning special education issues. I am also responsible for the building level interpretation and implementation of the new components of Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, or IDEA-'97.

I brought these skills and knowledge to this research project. My experience represents a special resource for understanding the interactions and values in the study.

However, this same experience can be an incubator for bias, so I constantly reminded myself that tacit knowledge can be the warden of prejudgement. My attempts to reduce bias involved selecting a study site where I was not known to the participants, construction of a study with multiple data sources, and use of member checking to support the trustworthiness of my interpretations of the data (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

PARTICIPANTS

The participants in my study are gifted children in grades 1-8. The primary criterion for choosing this broad range of participants was my desire to design a narrative that demonstrated some continuity of the classroom experience for gifted learners. A brief description of each of the study participants is included in Appendix D.

The sampling strategy that I selected was purposive sampling as described in Lincoln and Guba. The objectives of this sampling procedure are (1) "to increase the scope or range of data," (2) to increase the likelihood that a full array of multiple realities will be uncovered," and (3) "to maximize the investigator's ability to develop grounded theory" (1985, p. 40). This is also the recommended sampling strategy for studies in which detailed information is desired but resources do not allow in-depth study of a sufficiently large group to justify inferring to populations. The selection of gifted students as my purposive sample seems likely to provide me with the cases from which I can learn the most in my investigation of sitting and waiting.

Age

I decided to examine the breadth of the school experience rather than to focus on the depth of experience at one or two grade levels. The 1-8 grade range also reflects the range of students that I came to know in my own work in the field. I had some initial concerns that very young children might not be able to articulate their feelings about a topic as abstract and formless as waiting. It was one of my very young students, however, who came to me one day and asked, "If $2 + 3$ is always going to equal 5, why do we have to learn that every year?" In the identification of young gifted children, verbal skills are often a major area of strength, so I decided to include them in the sample.

Gender

In addition to the specific grade range used as a criterion for my sample, I also made gender a criterion for selection based on my tacit knowledge of the gifted classroom. My observations are that girls and boys tend to bring different types of information and differing skills and styles to a learning activity, especially when group discussion is part of the lesson. Scholars with whom I discussed my observations suggested that I include an analysis of gender differences as they relate to the topic of sitting and waiting in my study. The ideas about gender bias in classrooms represent a significant issue for research. For my study, I acknowledge their importance in the selection. Other than identification of participants, gender is not an overt component of the data collection methods.

In a deviation from the recommended procedures for grounded theory research, the size of the sample was determined a priori. The rationale for this decision was that my interest in grade level continuity and gender issues might

reduce the possibility for redundancy in the data. The sixteen students in my sample, one boy and one girl in grades 1 - 8, were selected from the special education caseload lists of intellectually gifted students at my study sites. A preliminary list of participants was determined by selecting names from the caseloads of the teachers of the gifted at the cooperating schools. The selections were made in my presence but were done by teachers of the gifted in order to protect the confidentiality of gifted students who were not selected. Each of the students was advised by their teachers of the nature of the project and letters of Informed Consent were given for both parents and students to sign. One student from the original list declined to participate, so an alternate was chosen. Parents were invited to call me or visit me at school if they had questions or concerns about the project. Once a student list was confirmed, I visited with the classroom teachers of the students to discuss the project and to get their Informed Consent for classroom observations. Samples of the Informed Consent Forms that I used are provided in Appendix E.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Lincoln and Guba cite the issue of trustworthiness as a major concern of critics of qualitative research. They suggest five techniques that make it more likely that credible findings and interpretations will be produced from a study. One of these techniques is triangulation by different methods (1985, p. 306). I used three different collection modes: interviews, field notes (observations), and student maps.

Interviews

"The way people talk about their lives is of significance, that the language they use and the connections they make reveal the world that they see and in which they

act" (Gilligan, 1982, p. 2). Since the purpose of my research project is to have gifted students describe the experience of sitting and waiting in the classroom, I selected interviews as the primary data source.

The purpose of an interview is to find out what is on someone else's mind. Taylor describes the qualitative interview as an opportunity to "capture the participant's understanding and meaning of things" (1994, p. 273). Interviews vary in the degree in which they are structured. On a structured/unstructured interview continuum, my model is located about at the mid-point. I used a semi-structured design as described by Bogdan (1982, p. 2). I developed an interview guide (See Appendix A) and had one initial prompt written on a 4 X 6 inch index card for the respondents to read. The prompt was, "Mrs. Peine, why do we have to sit and wait in the regular classroom for other kids to learn stuff?" The interview guide allowed me to focus on a particular topic for discussion, but gave me the freedom to ask questions for probing particular responses as they were given. The questions of the interview guide were organized to begin with a general question, "Tell me about your typical day at school," and conclude with a specific question, "Tell me about a time during your school day when you feel it is okay to sit and wait." At the conclusion of each interview, I had students re-read the quotation on the prompt card and encouraged them to add anything about the quote that they felt they had not covered adequately.

During all 16 interviews, I used the guide as a broad outline for the topics that I wished to discuss with the students. The interviews were tape recorded. The average length of the interviews was 30 minutes for young children and approximately 45 minutes for older students. All of the interviews took place in a quiet, private room in the school(s) which the students attended.

Before each of the interviews, I used a few minutes to become acquainted with the participants, discuss the nature of the research project, and assure them that there were no right or wrong answers to the questions that I was going to ask. In the case of very young children, grades 1-4, I discussed the Informed Consent Form and gave them the opportunity to acknowledge verbally their agreement to participating in the research project.

Field Notes

I collected field notes from classroom observations and informal discussions with classroom teachers and school administrators. Field notes also included student schedules and school handbooks. The purpose of the classroom observations was to get a good feeling for the here-and-now of the students' experiences. The field notes were used as coordinating information for the descriptions that students supplied in their interviews. I examined the similarities between the student reports of their experiences and what I saw and was told by teachers and administrators. The field notes were also used to understand the "community" that is found in these particular school settings.

Prior to the observations, I met with each classroom teacher and briefly explained my research project. If the teachers agreed to have me in the classroom, I obtained their agreement with an Informed Consent Form. I observed each student at least twice. If I was interested in seeing certain classes that students had mentioned in interviews, then the observations were more closely coordinated with the specific class schedule of the participant. Some observations were completed prior to the interview and some were completed after the interview. In each case, students were aware that I was observing them since I had introduced myself to all of the students prior to

beginning any steps of the data collection. Only one teacher noted my presence in the classroom to the class. She used me as an example of "life-long learner" which was a concept that she had introduced to the students at some time prior to my visits to the school.

For each of the observations, I was seated so that I could observe the non-verbal as well as the verbal participation of the student in the classroom lessons. I used "running notes" to record my observations (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p. 275). The observation periods were approximately 30 minutes for elementary students and a class period for the middle school students. The actual length of time of these observations varied according to the type of classroom. In self-contained classrooms, the observations were completed during a subject area period that varied from 30 to 45 minutes. One subject area for observation was selected because it filled a time space when I was in the school building. The other subject area was selected because it had been mentioned during the interview process. In some cases, both of the subject areas had been mentioned in the participant interview. In elementary classroom that were ability grouped, the observations lasted for a study session, usually about 45 minutes. The criteria for selecting the ability grouped classes for observation were the same as for the self-contained classes. In the middle school, all participants were observed in three classes. Each of the class periods were approximately 45 minutes long. Since there were no bells at the middle school, the length of a specific class period might be slightly longer or shorter. I observed students in classes in which they said they had the experience of waiting, and in classes that they had not mentioned in the interview. For the other field notes, conversations with teachers and administrators, I used a log in which I recorded the information as soon as possible after the actual conversation. I spent seven school days at Brown Carver Elementary

School conducting interviews and completing observations. I was at Shannon Vista Middle School for five school days. I returned to each school for an additional day to complete the member checks.

Roger Barker suggests that it is important to include the "environment of a behavior" (1968, p. 4) as part of the study procedures. Lincoln and Guba (1985) also discuss natural setting as an important characteristic of a study design. My field notes are my record of the setting. To a broader degree the natural setting characteristic is also exemplified by conducting the data collection in the student schools rather than having the students come to another setting for the interviews and map drawings.

Student Maps

The characteristic of natural setting was used as a rationale for the production of student maps as indicators of a particular environment. The final data source for my project was student maps. I identified the maps as a data source after reading about how children's drawings can give us insights into how young people conceptualize their world (Armstrong, 1995; Goodnow, 1977; Krampen, 1991). The maps provided participants with an alternative way of representing their school environment.

The maps are drawings of a typical school day that were completed by each of the participants. "Drawings are examples of communication" (Goodnow, 1997, p. 12), and "signs of the way that children interpret their environment" (Krampen 1991, p. 6). To ask for a map as a drawing "forces children to search for some way of not only indicating the presence of objects, but the relationship between them" (Goodnow, 1997, p. 18). Goodnow views the drawing of a map as the production of "living

geography", organized in terms of what is important to the individual. Maps also provide alternate samples of the students' descriptions of the school/classroom environment - they are graphic representations of the behavior setting.

For the map drawing sessions, students came to an empty classroom in small groups. The six students at Shannon Vista Middle School all came at the same time. The middle school students completed their maps during one class period of 45 minutes. The students at Brown Carver Elementary saw me in two groups; one group of primary grade participants from grades 1 - 3, and a second group of upper elementary grade participants, grades 4 and 5. Each of the two groups were given as much time as they needed to complete the maps. The primary-age group worked for 40 minutes. The upper level elementary students finished in 30 minutes. I had students come in small groups to help them be more at ease in my presence.

The maps were produced based on the following prompt: "Draw a map that shows me your typical school day." I gave an additional instruction for students to include a map key or legend so that as I looked at the maps I would be able to mentally follow them through their school day. While students were drawing, I did an observation, recording their comments about the assignment and comments about their school day. Samples of student maps are found in Appendix C.

DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

The guidelines I used for data analysis are presented in Strauss and Corbin (1990), The Basics of Qualitative Research. The authors discuss a method of analysis by which data are broken down, conceptualized, then put back together again in different ways. Coding is the central process which they suggest for building theory from data. They describe three types of coding; open, axial, and selective coding.

Strauss and Corbin maintain that "the lines between each type of coding are artificial", and that "the different types do not necessarily take place in stages" (p. 58). Making comparisons and asking questions are the analytic processes used in all three types of coding, but the nature of the process is somewhat different in each type. Each type of coding serves a particular purpose in the analysis, and the use of each of the methods provides different results. The following narrative is a description of each type of coding and its application to my data.

Open Coding

Open coding is "the process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualizing, and categorizing data" (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p. 61). Conceptualization is the first step of this segment of the analysis. Incidents, ideas, events, and descriptions in the data are examined and given a name that represents a phenomenon. Strauss and Corbin suggest, for the initial stages of analysis, a line-by-line examination of the data. This strategy fragmented the data for me. I found that each of the different queries from the interview schedule provided a comfortable clump of data for analysis. Each interview generated numerous conceptual labels which I recorded as code notes in the margins of the transcribed interviews.

The next step in my analysis was to identify clusters of concepts that might be grouped together; those that had common characteristics or could be in some way related to each other. The phenomenon represented is given a name that is abstract enough to include the characteristics of the concepts in the grouping yet concrete enough to accurately portray the nature of the category. Similar concepts have common characteristics or attributes that are the properties of the category. In addition to properties, categories also have dimensions; that is, properties can be

located along a continuum. Names for categories may come from readings, from experience--the tacit knowledge described by Lincoln and Guba (1985), or from the words and phrases of the participants themselves. The important thing, according to Strauss and Corbin (1990), is to name the category, even if you change it later, because a name gives you a concept from which to work analytically.

In my analysis of the field notes, I used the same coding procedure. However, in these data I looked more specifically for concepts that supported those that I had identified in the interviews. For instance, I tried to be sensitive to concepts that noted properties or dimensions of the interview concepts. For the student maps, I used a rubric taken from the coding of the interviews that indicated a dimension or property of a specific concept. The rubric is shown in Appendix B. The maps posed a special challenge for analysis, since much of the information to be gained from them was implied rather than shown explicitly. For example, one element of the coding rubric was the presence or absence of any type of evaluative information about classes. If the map suggested a negative quality to a class in which students reported that they experienced waiting, then that information was included as part of the category development in the analysis.

The development of categories with properties and dimensions are described as discrete processes, but, in fact, during the coding procedure, properties may be found in their dimensional form. For example, "I usually get things fast," coded as quick learning, implies a dimension. Specific concepts move toward more general categories, then toward specific dimensions and properties, then back again toward more general categories. In open coding, the procedure is breaking up the data, then putting it back together as categories with properties and dimensions. The final process in open coding is the naming of the categories and subcategories.

Axial Coding

In axial coding, the data is put back together in new ways, by making connections between a category and its subcategories. As with open coding, asking questions and making comparisons of the data are the basic analytic procedures used. However, there are four analytical steps occurring almost simultaneously, so it is a more complex process: (1) Relating subcategories to categories by denoting the nature of the relationship between them; (2) verifying the statements of relationship against the data; (3) continual development of categories with properties and dimensions, and 4) investigating the differences and similarities among and within categories (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, pp. 98-99).

Strauss and Corbin suggest the use of a schematic that they call a paradigm model for this segment of the analysis process. The model has six components that help define the sets of relationships that provide the links between subcategories and a category. The components are the **phenomenon**-- the central idea, event, or happening of a category; **causal conditions**--the events or incidents that led to the occurrence or development of a phenomenon; the **context**--the setting, dimension, or conditions of actions related to the phenomenon; **intervening conditions**--elements of a broad structural nature, the variables that facilitate or constrain the action or reaction to a phenomenon; **action/interactional strategies**--the process or methods used to respond to the phenomenon, and; **consequences**--the outcome of the response to the phenomenon (1990, pp. 99-107). Strauss and Corbin show a simplified version of this model in the following schematic from page 99:

(A) CAUSAL CONDITIONS -> (B) PHENOMENON ->
(C) CONTEXT -> (D) INTERVENING CONDITIONS ->
(E) ACTION/INTERACTION STRATEGIES ->
(F) CONSEQUENCES.

Axial coding gives us several major categories with their important properties, dimensions, and associated relationships. As in open coding, the process of axial coding is one that involves constant comparisons and questioning about the data and the development of categories. There is a continual shift between the use of inductive and deductive thinking processes in the analysis.

Selective Coding

Selective coding is the final procedure in the analysis of data. This is the process of selecting a core category, relating it to the other categories, validating the identified relationships, and filling in categories that need further refinement and development. "The core category is the central phenomenon around which all the other categories are integrated" (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p. 116). The core category is the one around which the story line of the research report is developed. The four steps of the analysis process are repeated with the new organization of the data: identifying relationships, verifying relationships, developing properties and dimensions of the major categories, and investigating differences and similarities between the categories. This final relational process with the categories results in the "rudiments of a theory" (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p. 133).

Grounded Theory

"A grounded theory is one that has been deductively derived from the study of the phenomenon it represents" (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p. 23). This is theory that is "systematically worked out in relation to data during the course of research--theory as process" (Glaser and Strauss, 1969, p. 9). By this they mean that each level of analysis produces ideas at a progressively higher level of abstractness than the material being

analyzed. The building/tearing apart/rebuilding, or the inductive/deductive processes of the coding strategies results in grounded theory. In a study that begins with raw data, such as mine, the initial result is substantive theory (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p. 174).

SUMMARY

This chapter on methods presented my understanding of the data collection and data analysis procedures as described by Glaser and Strauss (1969), Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Strauss and Corbin (1990). I interspersed my description of the procedures with specific details from my study that provided points of reference for the narrative. These details included a portrayal of my place in the study in terms of what my experience brought to the study. I introduced the participants and the methods of their involvement in the study as it related to data collection.

In the section on data analysis procedures, I discussed my interpretation of the coding procedures: open coding with the naming of categories accompanied by the identification of properties and dimensions; axial coding with the accompanying paradigm schematic; and selective coding and the explication of the core category. The final section looked at grounded theory as it represents the culminating aspect of the process of analysis. Chapter IV will present the results of the analysis portion of the study as it is set in the framework that I have described.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

Two threads of content are woven together in this chapter. One thread is my narrative; the description of how I actually did the data analysis. The second thread is the narrative that the study participants provided; their descriptions of waiting in the regular classroom. The chapter consists of an introduction to the analysis, a description of my methods of analysis, and a discussion of the results of the analysis through the open coding and axial coding processes. Since selective coding tells the story of the findings, that is in Chapter V.

INTRODUCTION

Strauss and Corbin suggest that each researcher adapt their procedures when doing data analysis, and I found that to be the case. For my examination of the data, I used the procedural guidelines for analysis that Strauss and Corbin present in Basics of Qualitative Research (1990): initial conceptualization of the interview data, combination of the concepts into categories, analysis of the categories for properties and dimensions, and recombination of the information from this analysis into final categories. I found the demarcations between different types of coding to be just as nebulous as Strauss and Corbin (1990) reported they would be.

In the analysis process, I used the participant interviews as the foundational information. By that I mean that I did the examination of the interviews through the first two steps of the analysis, then I added the field notes to the process. The field notes substantiated (or not) information from the interviews, created a richer texture to the students descriptions of their classrooms, and provided clarity for the properties

and dimensions of the categories. The final data source in the analysis was the student maps. The maps provided specific information about some properties and dimensions of the categories and supported broader constructs in the design of the theory that emerged from the study.

This description of the analysis process sounds very sequential, but in fact it was not. After the initial examination of all three data sources, the analysis evolved into a fluid intermingling of the information and the processes.

OPEN CODING: CONCEPTS AND CATEGORIES

Open coding is the initial phase of analysis that involves labeling phenomena and developing categories with descriptive properties and dimensions. I began by reading through all of the interviews. Immediately, I was certain that each of these stories was so unique that I would not be able to find enough conceptual labels to portray the singular information that was contained in each participant's story. With repeated examinations of the data, I was able to restructure the information under headings that followed the suggested format of Strauss and Corbin (1990).

Labeling Phenomena

I began the coding with the transcribed interviews. I did a check-through reading of the interviews as I listened to the tapes to confirm that the transcriptions were accurate and to fill in any gaps that were indicated on the printed copies. Next, I did a reading of each of the interviews to become familiar with the flow of the information that was in the copy.

I attempted to do the line by line coding that the authors suggest as a method for the beginning analyst. Line by line did not work for me. It fragmented the flow of

information that the participants were providing. I found that there were clumps of data that could be described with a concept label. Some of these clumps were sentences; some were paragraphs. Initially, it was also difficult for me to identify the concept labels. It seemed that the participants' words were much richer than my concepts. Strauss and Corbin advise that this may be the case, and they stress the importance of the labeling process. "It is not unusual for beginning researchers to summarize rather than conceptualize data" (1990, p. 64). The example from their text demonstrates the importance for concepts rather than summaries as a technique that is more inclusive and descriptive of the data. My first analysis generated an average of 20 to 25 conceptual ideas per interview. A sampling of the concepts that I identified includes: pre-instruction knowing, boring, seatwork, assignments, pace, group work, unconnected information, and bookwork.

After completing my first analysis of about eight interviews, I began to notice that there were concepts reoccurring with some frequency. I read through the interviews at least two more times, identifying new concepts and examining existing conceptual labels to determine if they were adequately done.

When the coding was completed, I listed the conceptual labels from each of the interviews and pulled together the terms that were the same, noting the frequency of occurrence for those terms that appeared more than once. The second step of the concept clustering was the grouping of similar terms, those labels that seemed to have strong conceptual connections. What remained were terms that were less closely related conceptually, but with more or less common denominators that centered around instruction.

The coding of the field notes was done using the same basic procedures. Many of the concept labels for these data were terms that were similar to the labels from the

interviews with the addition that in some cases there was a time frame provided as noted with actual time periods in the notes from observations. For example, "10:20, [25 minutes into a science class of 50 minutes] David takes out a book to read", or "Roberta socializes with friends for 6 minutes."

As early as the research design stage of my study, I intended for the field notes to provide corroborative information (or not) about the students' perceptions of waiting. If a participant reported that waiting occurred in social studies class, then I went to the social studies class to see what the waiting might look like. In the analysis, I found that my intention was well-directed. I was able to observe situations that certain elements of the interviews supported. For example, Rachel talked about waiting in her 7th grade science class because "the teacher goes over things a lot and I already know 'em." As I observed her in that class, I charted her waiting one day for 22 minutes. Sometimes I did not see supporting evidence in a particular classroom. The coding of the field notes was a specific catalyst for the development of the properties and dimensions of the categories.

The student maps were the final data source I examined in the coding phase of the analysis. I intended to develop a rubric that indicated the presence or absence of characteristics that had been identified by the coding of the interviews and the field notes. At this point in the analysis, I found little correlation between what I saw in the maps and what I had identified from the first two data sources. My initial reaction was that my prompt for the maps, "Draw a map that shows your typical day at school", was inappropriate for my research question. I found very limited information in the maps except for the concept "boring" as it had been used by the students to describe waiting. I decided to forgo the analysis of the maps at this stage and examine them again once I had more comprehensively developed categories.

Naming Categories

The next phase of open coding is the naming of categories. Categories emerge from the combinations of similar or related concepts that have been identified in the data. Fourteen categories emerged from this part of the process: new concept introduction, prior knowledge, repetitious instruction, concept review, obvious questions, student inattention, methods, work quicker, organization of work, groups, teacher gone, lining up, teaching model, setting change.

In the school setting, aspects of time are a significant factor that mediate learning. "The school clock governs how administrators oversee their school, how teachers work through the curriculum, and how material is presented to students and the opportunity they have to comprehend and master it" (Prisoners of Time, 1994, p. 8). The aspect of time that is relevant to my study is about waiting. What I saw represented in the initial categories of my study was that different kinds of waiting occurred at different times during a class period.

I organized the fourteen categories round three broad themes. The three themes that emerged were school/classroom structure waiting, instructional waiting, and assignment waiting. At this point in the analysis, I characterized the themes using these brief definitions: **School/classroom structure waiting** is distinguished by the particular school rules or classroom practices that students mentioned as causing them to wait. **Instructional waiting** is the time designated in the classroom during which a new concept is introduced or concept review is part of the instruction. **Assignment waiting** is that portion of the instructional period that is designated for seatwork, workbooks, or homework. The following schematic represents the data organization in theme/category/subcategory form:

School/Classroom Structure Waiting

- Teacher gone
- Lining up
- Teaching model
- Methods
- Setting change

Instructional waiting

- New concept introduction
 - prior knowledge
 - repetitious instruction
- Concept review
 - obvious questions
 - student inattention
 - methods

Assignment Waiting

- Work quicker
- Organization of work
- Groups

Properties and Dimensions

The final phase of open coding is the identification of the properties and dimensions of the categories. During the coding of the observations, I began to notice that in some classrooms and during some segments of the instructional period I had been able to see instances of the types of waiting that participants' described in the interviews, and in other instances I never saw the waiting that had been described. For example, several participants spoke about the waiting that occurs at the introduction of a new concept to the class when they already knew the concept. In many cases, especially at the middle school level, a portion of the student grade for a grading period is based on the maintenance of a notebook. This notebook contains notes based on teacher lecture and work samples such as definitions, exercises done during class, homework assignments, and quizzes and exams. So even though the students know the material, they will still be doing the assigned notetaking and homework because it

is required in order to get a "good" grade. The students talked about waiting during this instructional time, yet, I was unable to observe any waiting during the introduction of new concept to the class, the notetaking time. In contrast to that scenario, I observed students during this new concept introduction time who sat at their desks and listened, or appeared to listen, who reported in the interviews that they already knew the concept. They wished the "teacher would just give us the assignment so we can start working." To me this indicated that they were waiting, but that I was unable to note any characteristics of waiting. Gradually, I came to realize that observability was a property of waiting, and that the dimensions of observability extended from none to some.

I identified nine properties with dimensions to explain the categories. The properties were grade level, type of class, pace, activity, type of work, boring, observable, gender, and subject area. I organized the properties with dimensional indicators on a chart and plotted the information from the data. The format for a chart on one of the categories, instructional waiting, is shown in Figure 1.

The design and use of the charts provided me with a visual reference point for the data that helped me see context, conditions, and the significance of the relationships between the properties of the categories. The charts also provided a reference point for my final step in the open coding operation. I logged into the charts actual quotes from the interviews and information from the field notes that gave body and substance to the properties and dimensions, and therefore the categories that I had identified.

subject area

Reading ----- Math ----- English ----- Science ----- Social Studies

grade level

One ----- Eight

type of class

Self-contained ----- Content

pace

Slower ----- Faster

activity

Sitting ----- Doing

type of work

Independent ----- Group

boring

Yes ----- No

observable

Yes ----- No

gender

Male ----- Female

INSTRUCTIONAL WAITING

Figure 1

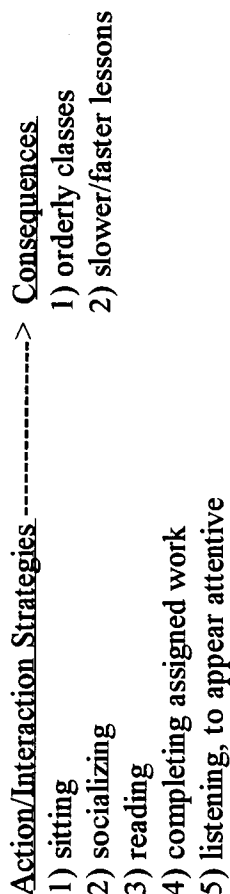
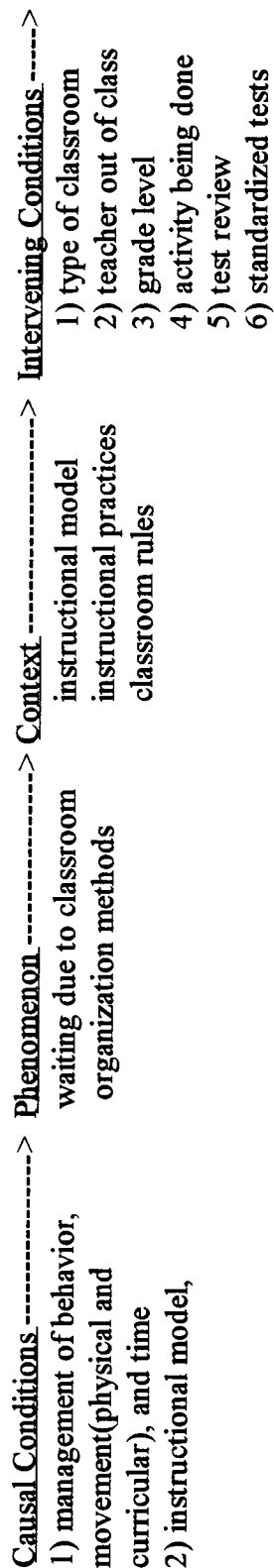
AXIAL CODING: THE PARADIGM MODEL

The purpose of axial coding is to develop sets or relationships and linkages between subcategories and a category. Strauss and Corbin suggest the use of a schematic, the paradigm model for this aspect of the data analysis (1990, p. 99). The component headings in the model are, (a) Causal Conditions, (b) Phenomenon, (c) Context, (d) Intervening Conditions, (e) Action/Interaction Strategies, and (f) Consequences. I converted the theme headings from the open coding procedure to category headings; Classroom/Structure Waiting, Instructional Waiting, and Assignment Waiting. I named the previously titled "category and subcategory" topics as subcategories. I used the component headings of the model to reorganize this data.

The method that I used in axial coding was a modified visualization exercise. I sat in a quiet place with the data that I had organized to this point and pictured myself back in the classrooms that I had visited. This technique helped me recreate the experience of the child in the classroom as I had participated in that experience. It also helped me recapture a sense of what was going on in a particular grade level or school. Once this step of the analysis was complete, I had a clearer picture of the story that I wanted to tell from the data. The next section of Chapter IV is a narrative discussion of the categories and relationships of the axial coding process. Each discussion is accompanied by a schematic of the categories that is an outline of the ideas that are shared in the discussion.

Classroom Structure Waiting (Figure 2)

"The behaviors of children can be predicted more accurately from knowing the situations the children are in than from knowing individual characteristics of the



CLASSROOM STRUCTURE WAITING

Figure 2

children" (Wicker, 1979, p. 6). As I reorganized the information clustered in the categories in this phase of my analysis, I returned to this quote by Roger Barker. The nature of the classroom does indeed seem to be an important factor in the behavior of children. In the analysis, my thinking kept returning to the idea that there are some universal characteristics of classrooms that contribute to the phenomenon of waiting for students. The classroom rules, the arrangement of student desks, the way that the teacher presents a lesson--these are the context of classroom structure waiting. But even though many classrooms are similar, they are also different, especially when observed through the lens of the student experience. Students talked about specific characteristics of classrooms. "The teacher doesn't talk in a dead voice" (5th grade). "She has us line up according to what we are going to buy in the lunch room. Since I just get milk, I am one of the first ones in line. I'm also one of the first ones to eat, so I have lots of time to wait at lunch while other kids are going through the line and eating" (3rd grade). "A scientist doesn't solve problems alone, so when the teacher puts us in groups to work, it's like the real world and ideas are just shooting out" (8th grade).

The causal conditions of classroom structure waiting are explicit and implicit. The purpose of rules is for the management of student behavior, the management of the physical movement of students, the management of movement through the curriculum or the lesson, and the management of time. Classroom rules are generalized school-wide or they may be specific to one teacher's classroom. Classroom rules may be written down, or they may be understood. For example, students in most classrooms are "expected to be in their seat when the bell rings", or "ask permission to leave your seat." However, in one classroom, students may be allowed to do things

quietly with their friends when they have finished their work, and they do not have to ask permission to leave their seats. At Brown Carver Elementary and Shannon Vista Middle Schools, there were some classrooms where quiet socializing between students was permitted when they finished their assignments. The students did not ask to leave their seats, and they were not reprimanded when they did so. In other classrooms, this was not the case and students were expected to sit quietly at their desks until the class was dismissed.

A second causal condition for classroom structure waiting is the instructional model used by the teacher. At both schools in my study, the teachers use a teaching model that is composed of three basic parts. The first is the Set, or the introduction of the lesson. The second part is the instruction which has four basic consecutive phases for presenting information or processes. The "I do one" phase during which the teacher models the learning. Next is the "I do one, you do it with me" phase in which the teacher works an example and the students work along with her. Third is the "you do one, I'll do it with you" phase in which the student is responsible for the example and the teacher provides assistance and direction as needed. The final phase is "You do one." Here the student works an example independently. After this fourth presentation of the material, the teacher assigns practice work or seatwork as students call it, monitors students as they work at their seats, then concludes the lesson with Closure, a strategy that reviews the concept. The model has a core assumption that all students are at the same place in their learning. There is no place in the lesson where the teacher asks about the student level of understanding. For students who have previous experience with the material or who have a fast rate of learning, the four phases of the instructional element of this model sometimes cause this response: "I want the teacher to get done so we can go on.", or "Give us our homework, so we can

work on it while you explain it." Since this instructional model provides the framework for teacher evaluation, most teachers utilize it for shaping and presenting their lessons. One idiosyncratic aspect of using this model is that it is important for all the students in a class to be on the same page during the instruction. On two occasions, I saw students reprimanded for "working ahead" in the material to be taught during that class period. If they hadn't been working ahead, they would have been waiting.

The classroom rules, the instructional model, and instructional practices combine to shape the context of classroom structure waiting. Some specific instructional practices which influence the context in positive or negative ways that were mentioned by students or observed included group work, reviewing graded exams as instruction, the kind of work they were allowed to do in classes and even the way students were seated at lunch.

The data revealed several different intervening conditions to consider as factors influencing the action/interaction strategies of the students. In their interviews, students often mentioned an intervening condition, then described what they might be doing in that circumstance, an action/interaction strategy. In order to maintain the integrity of the student comments and the flow of the narrative, I have reported these two components of the paradigm model together rather than separately, as they are shown in Figure 2. For example, students at nearly all grade levels mentioned waiting when the teacher was called out of the room. Their concern was for the times that the teacher left the room without giving an assignment. Carl, in the 5th grade said, "Like if the teacher has to go out of the room for something, and that means you're just sitting there, and you're not, like they're just getting ready to assign you something, and they're called out of the room for a phone call. Maybe they don't get back for five minutes or more. Then you just have to sit there, wait, see what you had to do, and

you couldn't do nothing. So you just have to sit there and it seems like a long time." In the 8th grade Cathy said, "It's okay to wait when the teacher's not in the room, and they're stuck in a meeting somewhere because then we can just talk." The teacher being out of the classroom is an intervening condition. The action/interaction strategies reported by the students are sitting and socializing.

The type of classroom is a factor that has an impact on interaction in the classroom. In the middle school, students were placed in classrooms according to a certain level of math achievement and traveled with the same group of students all day. In the elementary students were grouped by achievement in math and reading and heterogeneously grouped for all other subjects in grades three and five. Kristi, a 5th grader in both ability grouped and heterogeneously grouped classrooms described the classes like this: "Some classes are sort of mixed with some people who aren't as smart, some people who are average, and some who are in the gifted class. The people in the gifted class usually have to wait on some of the other people."

Grades 1, 2, and 4, were organized as self-contained classrooms. The self-contained classrooms in my study used a heterogeneous grouping pattern. Students at all achievement levels were members of the class. The information reported by the teachers, supported by observations in classrooms, was that more time was spent with students who had difficulty with the material than with students who were able to complete assignments without assistance. In a first grade classroom the teacher talked about a low achieving student who also had "attentional problems." "You'll see me working with Steve in the front of the class, because he has a lot of problems getting his work." As I observed the class during a lesson, I noted that Jim, the participating student, completed his work fairly quickly without assistance, while the teacher returned to Steve's desk four times for individual instruction. As Steve was working to

complete his assignment, Jim first sat quietly looking around the room and then took out papers and did some drawing. In a second grade classroom, Roberta looked around the classroom then moved to the desk of another girl and began a quiet activity while the other students were finishing their work. In classrooms where students were grouped by ability, I saw the time utilized by group projects or extensive written assignments in packets or textbook work. I also saw some of my participants not involved in a group task. When I queried them about this, they responded that they had finished their part of the assignment, and they were waiting for the other kids in the group to get done, so they could make the group report. Much of the group work that the students reported was not the type of assignment in which each student had a task to perform in order to contribute to a group effort, as in cooperative learning. These groups were assigned to complete a chapter review with each member having an assigned question to answer. The intervening condition, group work, is discussed more fully in the assignment waiting section of the chapter.

Test review was problematic for several of the study participants. They talked about the way teachers use tests that have already been graded as an instructional tool by going over the test item by item in class time. Teachers use this strategy to review information and clarify concepts that may have been learned incorrectly or misunderstood. Students who score well on tests are often impatient with this review technique.

Practice sessions for the mandated, state-wide achievement tests were mentioned by upper grade students as a time during class when they might be waiting. Teachers use practice tests to spot concepts that students haven't mastered or to highlight information that will be on the test that the class hasn't covered yet in the year. Cathy in the 8th grade said, "I passed all of the things the first day, so I had to sit

there for the next three days [in that class] and find something to do." Carl, in the 5th grade talked about the actual day of the test: "Well, I'm pretty good at math and I finish the tests early. One day I forgot my book so I just had to sit there."

An additional action/interaction strategy that students mentioned was listening. For classroom structure waiting, I have listed this strategy as (5) listening to appear attentive. As reported by a 7th grader, "I'd be listening with the outskirts of my attention." Students also listened just enough so that they would be aware of when it was their turn to respond to a particular item during a review session as the teacher called on students in a predictable fashion, such as going up and down the rows of seats in order.

The consequences of classroom structure waiting for the students in my study seem to be orderly classes. Orderly in the sense that, at least at the middle school level, there are few disruptions during class time caused by behavior issues. On the other hand, students have a sense that some classes move more quickly and other classes move more slowly because of the pace of the lessons, the type of activity being done, and classroom rules that require students to follow certain procedures in the classroom. Slower classes have more repetitive work. Faster classes are those in which new information is presented more often, or where activities are more hands-on.

Instructional Waiting (Figure 3)

The context for instructional waiting is that time during the class period when new material is presented. New material is usually in the form of content or process. The phenomenon of waiting occurs because students already know the material, or they learn it more quickly than other students in the class. Cathy, an 8th grader, described it like this: "Most of the time we already know kind of what's going on, and

Causal Conditions ----->	Phenomenon ----->	Context ----->	Intervening Conditions ----->
1) prior knowledge of material	Instructional	classroom time when new	1) length of presentation time
2) rapid understanding of new material	Waiting	material introduced or next day review of material	2) misbehavior, inattention
			3) meaningful content
			4) classmate questions
			5) teaching strategies
			6) gender

Action/Interaction Strategies ----->	Consequences ----->
1) listening, for information	1) boredom
2) flipping through book	2) lack of movement through material
3) watching	3) impatience
4) rereading/reworking	4) 20% lost instructional time
5) daydreaming	5) frustration
6) self-assignments	6) equitable

INSTRUCTIONAL WAITING

Figure 3

we get things really fast, and the other kids are still trying to learn what they are doing." Adam, in 6th grade said, "Like sometimes in math some of the other kids don't get it and I do. I would just sit there while the teacher helps them. Like in starting a new chapter and somebody doesn't understand . . . she writes it up on the board, and they still don't understand, so she goes through it again until they do understand."

Mitzi, a first grader, talked about math and reading: "I already know all the problems", and "I know all the words." Across grade levels, students described an inherent sense they have about their rate of learning, that they learn material faster than many other students in the classroom. Rachel, in 7th grade, seemed to sum it up best when she said, "The teacher says what we're learning, and we already know what to do, and we learn it, and we've got it all down and some of the others haven't gotten it, then we're ahead of them."

The students describe roughly seven intervening conditions that facilitate or constrain instructional waiting. Kristi, in the 5th grade, talked about the amount of time that teachers spend introducing new material: "They just like repeat things and keep on going over and over it, and it gets kind of boring after awhile." From the 8th grade, Cathy reported, "After she's tells us about what we are studying, I'm like, give me my homework so I can work on it while you're explaining it." Cathy also talked about the teaching strategy of starting the next day's lesson with the review of a concept that was introduced the previous day. "Sometimes we have to go over it again the next day, and I am sitting there like, 'Can we just check it please; I already know how to do it.'"

Three students give examples of student behavior that can have an effect on the flow of a lesson and change the instructional time into waiting time for them. David, 7th grade, said that "Sometimes people ask questions that are, well, kind of

obvious. We've gone by the stuff, and the teacher has to go back and explain it all again. That's the big time when I sit around and do nothing. It happens, probably, once or twice a week that I have to sit and wait for them to catch stuff." With a slightly different twist, the same type of experience was reported by Karen in the 4th grade. "When we're reading our story, my teacher will like talk about some words in there that maybe we don't understand, and that we need to know for like a test that's coming up. Then someone will raise their hand and have a comment and it just seems to start. We kinda get off the subject, and if you're not interested, you just have to sit there." "In some of my classes" [7th grade] said Rachel, "the kids don't pay attention when the teacher is talking, so he ends up having to repeat a lot of the stuff, even the directions for tests." Jennifer, in the 6th grade, talked about her teacher the previous year who "spent a lot of time just having to discipline children." She felt that this was a waste of her time, and the class moved a lot slower. During the previous year, Jennifer had been in a heterogeneously grouped classroom. She liked the ability grouping used in the middle school better because, "I feel more challenged now. Challenged to do my best and stay up there with my classmates who are in the higher percentage."

Another condition in a class that affected the students' perceptions about waiting was whether or not they thought the content was meaningful or repetitive. For example, "History is just the same boring stuff over and over. You've always had the same, same, same, same events happen." On his map Doug characterized history class with a drawing of Old Faithful, and wrote that "It just keeps erupting every day of the year." When I asked Doug if there was some time in his day when it seemed like it was okay to wait, he responded with this analogy: "I'll use an example like band, when you're waiting for the director to work with the trumpets. You can sit there and look at your part while he's working with the trumpets. Then he goes over to the

trombones, and you're still waiting. But after he works with the trombones then you get up and the whole band performs. You get to put it all together, and so that's okay to wait there." The implication from his comments seemed to be that in the content areas, you don't get to put it all together, and so that makes the waiting more troublesome. He finished his comparison by saying that, "In band, you just glide on through. You go from piece of music to piece of music. In science class you have to wait to do an experiment or to get your day at the computers. A lot of times you just have to be patient, you just can't keep going on like in band."

I identified gender as an intervening condition when it became apparent from the data that the voices of young women were heard in more assertive and negative tones about instructional waiting. They most frequently used the word "boring" to describe their feelings about this type of waiting. All of the young women used the term boring to describe experiences of waiting as compared to five of the young male participants. The concept was best expressed by Rachel, a 7th grader; "It's boring just sitting there. I want the teacher to get done so we can go on." Richard, in the 4th grade said, " It's like you have nothing to do 'cause you already read all the stuff that you have to do and you're waiting for the other kids."

Action/interactional strategies are processes the students use to get through the time while the teacher is presenting material they already know. The strategies are purposeful and goal oriented. They help the students "just work through to the end of the day" (Doug, grade 8). Some of the strategies are observable, but others are not so obvious. In his 7th grade classes, David said, "I just kind of sit there and listen and see if there's anything that I can get out of it that I don't already know about it." Mitzi, a first grader said, "I just sit and wait for the stuff I don't know yet." David had another strategy for waiting. "I'd read ahead, or I'd be flipping through the textbook for the

class." "I'd be just kind of watching and not completely paying attention" (Jennifer, 6th grade). Some students reread assignments or check their work while classmates are finishing their instructional practice items. Greg in the 3rd grade said, "I'm a fast reader and when we read pages silently, I finish fast, so a lot of times she makes me read it again because she doesn't think I've finished it." Greg continues, "I get bored after I've done that . . . and I'd be daydreaming."

Two study participants said that they didn't wait in the classroom. One was Jimmy a first grader. Jimmy talked about his subjects and did say that he was usually one of the first people in his class to finish his work. I asked him what he did when he was finished and he told me that for math, some of the work he was assigned was packets of worksheets that were kept in his desk. According to Jimmy, "I have to do drawings on the backs of all my math papers, so I always have plenty to do." Nick in the second grade also reported that he worked more carefully than the other students in his class, so it took him longer. He did report that he finished work early sometimes, so he'd be "thinking about my game that night."

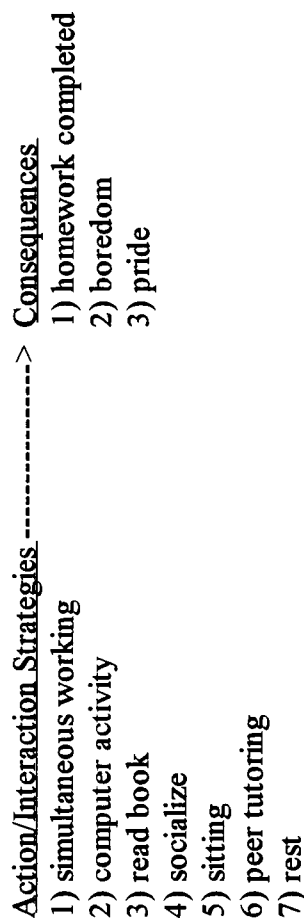
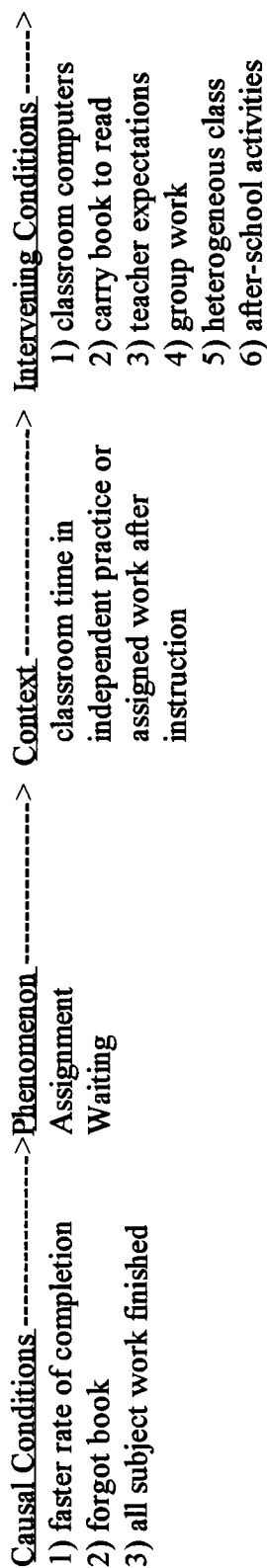
Consequences are the results or the outcomes of the action/interaction strategies. Boredom was mentioned most frequently as an outcome of waiting. "It's boring just sitting there. I get bored. Sometimes the beginning of class just seems to go on for ever and ever" (3rd grader). One of the students estimated that he was waiting for about 20% of his instructional time. Students become impatient with the pace of the class. "I just want the teacher to get done so we can go on." Doug in the 8th grade talked about a lack of movement through the material. "You already know the stuff, but the other people are trying to learn it and you can't advance." Two thirds of the participants talked about waiting as a negative experience for them.

On the other hand, even though he talked about waiting as negative, Greg, a 3rd grader said sometimes he didn't mind waiting. "I'm kind of glad because I usually have a book I'm wanting to finish, so I say, 'Take your time.'" Jennifer, 6th grade, said, "I don't think it's a really big deal. I mean, you just, I guess you just sit there and learn it again. I guess it doesn't hurt to, you know, make sure you know it." In the 4th grade Karen contributed this thought: "It makes me feel kind of proud to know that I can answer a lot of the questions in class." David, a 7th grader, thought that the way things were done was fair. "Well, we're slightly held back, but it's pretty much so we'll be even in the class and so that we'll have equal opportunities and things like that."

Assignment Waiting (Figure 4)

The phenomenon of assignment waiting occurs during the classroom time that is scheduled for extended practice, or seatwork, after the introduction of a new concept or process. Assignment waiting has three major causal conditions. One is the fact that many gifted students finish all assigned work at a faster rate than other students in the class. "The workbook pages go pretty fast because they're fairly easy." The second and third conditions are somewhat related - students who have all of their seatwork and homework assignments completed and have forgotten to carry a book to read.

The context for assignment waiting is very similar to the definition. This is classroom time that is designated for working on the practice assignment. Instruction has been completed. The task for students is usually to complete a series of questions, problems, or worksheets that support the lesson of the day. This type of waiting can be very visible to the observer, especially if the student has forgotten "my book to read." On the other hand, if the student thinks ahead, as many of the students in my



ASSIGNMENT WAITING

Figure 4

sample do, they "are always looking toward the end of the day." They also "try to have it so I can get my work done at school, especially if I have a game that night," or "It's Wednesday and I know I'm going to church."

After school schedules and classroom computers are the strong inhibitors, and therefore intervening conditions, of assignment waiting. All of the study participants talked about their after school activities, from piano lessons to gymnastics to ad hoc musical groups to organized practice for interscholastic academics or athletics. In order to pursue these activities, they begin to plan strategies for completing seatwork at school so they don't have to take it home as homework. Some teachers, however, require that work in their classroom be in their subject area, Other teachers allow student to complete any work that they have with them. "When I'm done and turn something in, I do other homework." Kim, a 3rd grader, said, "If I have other work to do, and I'm bored, I'd be doing my work."

Classroom computers ameliorate assignment waiting. Fourth and fifth grade classrooms at Brown Carver Elementary School have five computer stations as part of a state-wide effort to bring technology to schools. Students report that they often "play computers" when they have finished their seatwork assignments. However, Richard, in the 4th grade who talked about using the computers quite a bit added that "When I finish worksheets or a test early and I can't go to the computer, and I've already done my reading, I have to sit and wait for awhile."

There are certain teacher expectations that affect assignment waiting. Students talked most about group assignments as an intervening condition of assignment waiting. Student groups here are not cooperative learning groups in which every member of the group has an assigned task for contributing to the group goal. The learning groups that students described and that I observed were formulated after the

instructional phase of the lesson to facilitate the seatwork. Typically the teacher would put together a group of four students to "find the answers to questions 4-8 at the end of the chapter and report what you find to the class. You have 15 minutes to complete the assignment." Karen, a 4th grader, reported that this was when she most often waited. "When we have group questions, they don't say anything, and finally I say, 'Well this is it.' Then they[the other group members] don't give any opinion, and then they're like, 'Whatever.' I spend a lot of time waiting to get our group done, especially after I do one of the questions. Then, it seems like it takes the other groups a long time too, so we have to sit and wait."

The practice of heterogeneous grouping leads to assignment waiting as well. Karen in the 4th grade reported that "You're waiting for people to get done with their work. You've already gotten done and you don't have another assignment and you can't move on to the next subject until the class is ready. So you're waiting, and you just have to sit there." Roberta in the 2nd grade said, "There are kids in the class who have a lot of trouble with math. After we finish the math, we have to wait for them to finish, and it takes awhile. They don't finish their workbooks very fast either."

An example of action strategies that participants use for the assignment dilemma is illustrated by an observation that I did in an 8th grade social studies classroom. The students were seated in the classroom and the teacher listed the activities for that day's class period. He told the class what the workbook pages would be for that assignment and then began his lecture. The assignment was to complete a certain number of pages from the social studies workbook. These workbooks are consumable, but at Shannon Vista Middle School, they are not used directly by the students. Instead of writing in the workbooks, the students are required to copy the material out of the book onto separate sheets of paper. As soon as the teacher

assigned the workbook pages, students began working on them. At one point in the lecture, the teacher reminded students that they were to be attentive to the lecture and begin the workbook pages "in a few minutes." Students continued to work on the written assignment. Three or four minutes later, the teacher directed the students to "close your workbooks if you're working on them now, and listen to the rest of the lecture." Instead of closing the workbooks, the students put the workbooks on their laps, with their notebooks on the desktop and continued to work. The lecture was followed by a video. Students continued to work on the workbook assignment during the video, even though the classroom lights were lowered to rather dark. When the video was over, the teacher gave some brief concluding comments, and there was about 5 minutes left in the class. The students who had continued to work were finished with their assignment and had some time for socializing or working on other assignments.

Computer activity, reading a book, socializing, peer tutoring, resting, and sitting are action/interaction strategies that are utilized by students in the assignment waiting segment of their class periods. Jennifer, in the 6th grade, reported that she "liked to have the time to rest, especially during the class period right after lunch."

The consequences of assignment waiting can be positive, no homework. Karen mentioned that it made her feel proud that she could know a lot of answers and get her homework done." The consequences can also be negative, boredom, especially if you don't have a book with you to read. If you aren't allowed to talk, then "You just have to sit there."

Student Maps

The coordination of information from the student maps was the final portion of my analysis. In their maps, students expressed their school day time in a mostly linear, sequential fashion. In the interviews they described the day as activities and/or subjects that followed in a progression. The maps were a graphic representation of these descriptions (see sample maps in Appendix C).

I completed the analysis of the student maps by designing a rubric, see Appendix B, that indicated the presence or absence of certain fields of information that corresponded roughly with the developed categories. Four fields of information were included: (1) Movement--the map indicated any type of movement through the school day, static or dynamic; (2) Specific hour--the map showed specific times or time periods, yes or no; (3) Evaluative--the map indicated any evaluation as to the quality of time spent, yes or no; (4) Time/Space indication--any indication in the map that related certain times to certain places or school spaces, yes or no.

In general, the student maps of the school day provided information about the progression of the school day. In the Movement field, all the maps had some type of representation of movement, either by using directional arrows, dots or circles for paths, or numbered chambers that showed a sequence of activities. Maps that showed a specific hour for an activity or class started with 5th grade students, except for Karen, a 4th grader. The evaluation of classes as boring, fun, or okay, was a component of the maps drawn by students at grades 6, 7, and 8. A factor in this evaluative component may be that this group of six students met together to complete their maps. They had a wide ranging discussion about their classes as they did their maps, compared to the two groups of younger students who were mostly silent as they did their map drawings. Relating time to a space, in field 4 of the rubric, all of the

maps had this relationship. The students listed the time they were in a certain place. This time coordinated with a place or setting, or the time was related to a space where a certain activity occurred.

At the elementary school level for students in self-contained classes, grades 1, 2, and 4, the maps showed a progression of activities inside the classroom with mention of activity time, related arts or lunch, that was outside the classroom. The maps of students who changed classroom settings for ability grouped instruction, grades 3 and 5, were different in that they designated one classroom as a focal point with movement shown by classroom (female, grade 3), by class time (male and female, grade 5), and by sequence (male, grade 3). The maps of primary level students showed the school day as a gameboard (female, grade 1), and as numbered, sequential boxes (males, grades 1, 2, 3, and female, grade 2). The only common component for all of the elementary maps, grades 1-5, was playtime or the playground.

In middle school, the participants described their school day in terms of specific periods and class subjects. These maps also provided evaluative comments and/or symbols in the map keys or legends about some classes that corresponded with the comments about "boring" as a descriptor of waiting. They gave a generally supportive picture of the meaning of what was going on during their school day. From this perspective, the maps served as the third aspect of triangulation for the data.

SUMMARY

The coding procedures represent the mental equivalent of the visual process of assembling a puzzle. They reminded me of the way my family completes our omnipresent Christmas puzzle. We dump all of the pieces onto a large table then begin to assemble them in clumps according to some criteria, such as color or some other

distinguishing characteristic, maybe text. Once these clumps are situated, we begin to fit the pieces together into larger segments. The larger segments are moved around the table as they seem to fit into different sections of the total puzzle. Sometimes large segments have to be spatially reoriented to fit into the bigger picture. You might hear, "Yeah, so maybe that's where that goes." This exclamation may signify the placement of one puzzle piece or the placement of a larger puzzle segment to fit into the larger whole of the puzzle.

Coding involved the constant reorganization of the data into clumps of information that came to be represented first as themes, categories, and subcategories, and finally as categories and subcategories. I often experienced the, "So maybe that's where that goes" phenomenon. Each phase of the coding process required inductive/deductive analysis and processing to construct my understandings of the meaning of waiting in the regular classroom for other kids to learn stuff.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS

INTRODUCTION

Chapter V consists of two sections of information. One section is the presentation of the findings of the study, and the second section is a discussion of the possible implications of the study. The findings focus around a core category that emerged from the selective coding process (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). It is the core category that provides the framework for a grounded theory statement and shapes the story line of the study.

The core category is important because it is "the central phenomenon around which all the other categories are integrated" (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p. 116). The core category is the heart of the matter, or the portion of the study that contains the concepts or germinating material for all of the other concepts of the study, much like the core of a piece of fruit. This category is the structural center of the study and provides the context for the grounded theory. In this sense, the core category is very concrete; it functions as a focal point. This category is also abstract in the sense that it provides the skin, or a semi-permeable boundary within which the other categories combine to represent the whole story.

I recognize that other interpretations of these data are possible. My findings represent information that is applicable to this specific setting as interpreted through the lens of my particular experience. The implications section is a discussion of the findings of my project as they relate to topics that can be understood from the data but have not necessarily been expressed.

As I considered the information from the previous steps of the analysis, my thinking went full circle to the original question which inspired my study: "Why do we have to sit and wait in the regular classroom for other kids to learn stuff?" The three major constructs in this question are regular classroom, learning stuff, and sit and wait. From a research perspective, I had reshaped the question to read, "What is the meaning of sitting and waiting in the regular classroom for other kids to learn stuff?" The three categories that emerged from the analysis were classroom structure waiting, instructional waiting, and assignment waiting. I saw relationships between the constructs of the students' question and the categories of my analysis: regular classroom--classroom structure waiting, learning stuff--instructional waiting, and sit and wait--assignment waiting. Although the construct/category relationships did not represent a perfect conceptual match, they provided me with an analytical format for selecting a core category.

The location of the core category, the context, is the regular classroom and the structures and procedures that are operationalized there for instruction. Most readers are very familiar with classrooms, so I hesitate to be too descriptive here out of concern about being redundant. The fact remains that the classrooms described in the participant interviews and those same classrooms in which I did observations were similar to each other and very much like the classrooms of our experiences. In my study, the regular classroom is the traditional age-grade classroom with grouping variations of heterogeneous or ability grouping. The participants in my study are gifted students, and the phenomenon for investigation is sitting and waiting. These findings suggest that the classroom is not only a physical setting for instruction, but also an mediator of time for learning as experienced by gifted students.

Gifted students in the regular classroom are expected to follow the timelines and expectations of the general pattern of an instructional sequence. These procedures and expectations have as their consequence varying amounts of time during which students state that they are not involved in the learning process; they are waiting to learn. The core category for gifted students is, "Waiting is boring; sometimes, waiting is fair."

To examine this statement, I will discuss three propositions. Each proposition about waiting is introduced by a story from the data and then described in the words of the study participants. The findings follow this discussion. The propositions are somewhat interrelated in that each represents the cumulative experience of a classroom. But, each proposition stands alone as a particular kind of experience for gifted children in the regular classroom.

FINDINGS

Already Knowing

"Most of the time we already kind of know what's going on, and we get things really fast" (8th grader).

Proposition 1: Students enter any given classroom at different levels of achievement and at different levels of readiness for learning the lessons of the classroom. In general, classroom procedures for instruction ignore these variations among students. Gifted students are jeopardized here because their needs tend to be unrecognized.

"I'm pretty good at math and science. I lived in England for two years, and I was in one of the higher classes there I think. I went up a grade actually while I was there. So I had a lot of higher math and science things there that they don't teach here

'til you're in a higher grade. My mom says I get it from my grandfather. He was really good at math too. I've been in competitions here, like the Math Bowl, so I have had some after school tutoring to expand my math. In my science class I learn some things, but my mom's a biologist and my dad's a chemist so I have a good science background. A lot of it, I'm just re-learning it" (7th grader).

In my study, at every grade level, students talked about already knowing. An eighth grader reported that "History is just the same thing, the same events happening over and over. Golly, I've heard this so many times before." He continued: " You already know the stuff, but other people over here are trying to learn it, but you already know it."

From seventh grade: "Assignments start out fairly simple to get the people that don't know it, but I know a lot of the stuff already. I can do the work faster." Also from the seventh grade, "I wish the teacher would just get done explaining so we could go on. Sometimes I get annoyed because they just keep going over and over it."

In the sixth grade: "Sometimes some of the other kids didn't get it, and I would. Like when we're starting a new chapter and she explains it and some kids don't get it. So, she'll write it on the board, and they still won't understand. So she'll have to go through it again until they do."

A fifth grader put it like this: "People ask for a lot of repeats on the stuff that we're learning. The teachers have to repeat things and keep on doing things over and over, and it gets boring."

In the fourth grade: "It takes longer for some kids to learn stuff maybe because it's harder or they don't understand it."

Third graders talked about reading: "In reading they are learning stuff that I already know." There was also this report from a third grader: "I'm a fast reader. A lot

of times when we read silently I finish fast. She makes me read it again because she thinks I haven't finished it."

One second grader said, "In math some kids just don't get it . We have to wait for them to finish, and it takes awhile."

And finally, the first graders who report, "Math questions go pretty fast because they're really easy questions to answer." Another first grader said, "Math is boring; I already know the problems, and in reading, I know all the words. I learned them in kindergarten."

In addition to assigning all students in the class the same work to complete, I observed two techniques of instruction that students mentioned as troublesome. The first technique is teacher insistence that all students be working on the same page or problem of an assignment when a concept is introduced or reviewed. In two different elementary classrooms, I noted students who were reprimanded for working ahead. One student asked for permission to color ahead on a map in a social studies assignment. Another student worked ahead on a math assignment after being told, "Everyone put down your pencil after you finish the first four problems so we can check them before we go on."

Middle school students had a strategy for coping with requests to stay on the same page. They consistently worked ahead, but they did not call attention to it by asking questions out of the lesson sequence. In situations where the teacher was going around the room in a predictable way for student answers, they counted ahead in the text for their response item and were able to answer the assignment question correctly while working ahead.

The second teaching strategy, also used particularly at the elementary level was, "Hold up your hand when you have the answer. I'll be waiting to see your hands,

so I know that everyone has finished." This is a practical method of monitoring the progress of all students, but for gifted students this technique prolongs segments of a lesson which they already know. They sit with their hands raised waiting for others to understand. A related technique at the middle school level was "When you are finished with the quiz, turn your paper over on your desk, and we will check them when everyone is finished." Students reported that they couldn't do other work in these cases because they might be accused of cheating. So, they had to wait for everyone to finish the quiz, then check the answers before they could move on to other material. A seventh grader put it like this: "You get sort of used to it[waiting]. It's happened so many times that when it starts, you don't really notice it. You don't really see what's going on because you're so used to it happening before."

There are two issues represented in these data. Both issues are discussed in research from the field of gifted education. The first is that gifted students may know as much as 40%-60% of the material that is to be covered in a grade when they enter that grade (Gallagher and Gallagher, 1994; O'Connell-Ross, 1993:). The second issue is that gifted students learn material more quickly than other students (Shore, Cornell, Robinson, and Ward, 1991; Van Tassel-Baska, 1992). This research is contradictory to an accepted model in education that concepts need to be repeated numerous times, over several lessons for students to have mastery of the concepts. The model that guides practice is that after the teacher introduces a new concept, there are three successive explanations of the concept with a different level of student involvement at each explanation. This model provided the general pattern for instruction in the classrooms at my study site. This model is not necessarily appropriate for gifted

learners. In many cases they master concepts quickly and are ready to move on to new material. An important consideration here is that teachers don't seem to pay attention to what kids know.

I considered the use of ability grouping in the two schools of my study as a positive response to the needs of high ability learners. The research on ability grouping (Kulik, 1993) reports that these classroom arrangements are most beneficial for students when instruction is designed to match the criteria for the formation of the group. However, in my study, some classroom teachers were not certain of the criteria that were used to place students in their advanced classes. Teachers of the students in the high ability math groups for third and sixth grade reported that, "I think it is achievement, grades, and teacher recommendations, but I'm not sure." If teachers are not familiar with the grouping criteria, then instruction proceeds along some pre-arranged sequence that is not reflective of the knowledge of the special abilities of the group. The teacher of the third grade group was not certain that she philosophically supported this type of grouping, but she said that she really enjoyed working with this group of learners.

Instructional practices that the study participants talked about and those which I observed do not take into account advanced levels of learning or differing rates of learning. Teachers in my study reported that they expected students in the advanced classes to cover the classroom material at the same pace as average students. The difference was for students in the advanced classes was that they were assigned "more extensive work for projects and reports. They were expected to show more initiative and understanding of assignments, and to do more writing" (third grade math teacher, 7th/8th grade English teacher, 5th and 6th grade reading teachers, and 6th and 8th grade science teachers).

In my current position as coordinator of all of the special education programs in a middle school, teachers are very quick to come to me with problems of students who are having difficulty with the classroom material. They are much less likely to be concerned about students who are doing the assignments with ease. Students who "get it" are expected to continue through the material without assistance, and in some cases they are assigned as peer tutors for those who are not "getting it." Some of the students in my study did peer tutoring voluntarily because, "My friend is having trouble with this, so I help her. The quicker she gets it, the quicker we can move on" (8th grader). An apparent lack of knowledge about achievement levels and abilities of gifted learners is a major hurdle for the possibility of advanced achievement in the curricular requirements of a classroom and increases the possibility that students are waiting to learn.

The evidence for already knowing crosses all grade levels and includes information from both the boys and girls in my study. Girls tended to be more assertive in their desire to move on, while the boys were more inclined to suggest that they adapted to circumstances of waiting with adjusted doing.

Adjusted Doing

"I'd be drawing or playing with my protractor" (5th grader).

Proposition 2: There are times when gifted students are not doing what the teacher expects the class to be doing. Waiting is boring so students develop strategies for working through times in class when they have nothing to do in the assigned work.

A seventh grade science classroom was studying the eye. The lesson began with the teacher asking students to get out the worksheet that had been assigned the previous day for students to label the parts. Rachel, the student I was observing, took

out her worksheet with the labeling assignment completed. Not all of the students had finished this assignment, though, so the teacher gave the class five minutes to finish their work. Rachel sat looking at her eye diagram while the other students worked. The teacher handed out the quiz, and Rachel finished in about 2 minutes. She waited while others finished, then the papers were given to other students for checking. Papers were returned and students calculated their scores which were reported to the teacher. The next portion of the assignment was to be able to describe the function of each part of the eye. This had also been an assignment from the previous day, but the teacher said, "Some of you weren't here yesterday, so we'll review this." Rachel put her drawing on top of her notebook and followed along. As the teacher went around the class asking different students for definitions, some were not necessarily following the work. The teacher told the class to "put all of your other work away and finish these definitions." He went around the class randomly asking students for the definitions. Boys were usually called on first, then girls were called on to correct or complete the answers that the boys had provided. Rachel volunteered each time to provide a definition, but she was not called on. The teacher reminded the class that there would be a major test on this tomorrow. For the rest of the class period, students were talking with each other. The teacher said that Rachel was the best student in the class.

When I asked Rachel about this class in the interview, she responded, "In that class, some of the kids don't really pay attention, so we end up repeating a lot of the stuff." She also said, "I'm always sort of listening for things that I might not have heard before, but mostly I'd be looking at the teacher and thinking about other things, like my next class. I'd really like to be going on to the next topic." What I saw Rachel

doing was looking at the teacher, going through her purse, stacking and restacking her books on her desk, and finally reading a different book than the class text.

Reading a book was the most common activity mentioned by the participants as the way that they used classroom time when they had finished their work. "And if I didn't have a book, I might be looking around the room to see what my friends are doing or wanting the clock to hurry up so I wouldn't have to wait much longer" (4th grader).

All of the students except Jim in the first grade reported that they carried a book with them to all of their classes to read. Jim talked about drawing when he finished his work. "Whenever I finish my work, I draw. Math questions are usually pretty easy, so when I finish I have to draw on the backs of all my papers. Or sometimes I play with my little eraser things." Cathy in the 8th grade said, "I doodle; I like to draw." Fourth and fifth graders talked about "playing on the computer."

Another strategy used by students to fill up the time was "working on assignments from other classes or subjects" (4th, 6th, 7th, and 8th grades). In the 3rd and 5th grades where students were ability grouped for math and reading, teachers followed the practice that students would work only on the subject that was being taught in the classroom. In this scenario, one third grader reported that, "I would be walking around the room the long way to get to the pencil sharpener or asking the teacher to go to the bathroom." A second grade girl said that her teacher allowed students to talk with each other when they finished their work, so, "I would be looking around to see who else was done and figuring out something to do with them."

In some cases the only strategy was to sit and wait. A first grader said, "You have to wait sometimes; there's nothing else to do." Or as an eighth grader put it, "We were doing test review for three days. I got them all right the first day. So, for the rest

of the time, for two days, I had to sit there and find something else to do." She also said, "I just sit there and wait for him[teacher] to finish. I might kind of lay my head down and sort of sleep, just be sitting there." My other eighth grade participant said, "There's a lot of times when you just have to be patient. You just sit there while they're trying to learn it." He also said, "Why do I have to sit here and wait on these people to catch up with me? Why do I have to sit here and read this book when I could be doing some work at my own level?"

I have a teaching colleague who works with Advanced Placement calculus students at a local high school. Her comment about my research project was this: "I remember that my mom told me always to have a book with me so that I would have something to do when I finished my work. So I did. As it turns out, I am a really good reader, but just think of the other things I could have been learning when I was reading."

Two students from the sample reported that they did not sit and wait. One of these students was the first grade boy who gave himself the assignment of drawing on the backs of all of his math papers. Jim completed much of his work before the other students in the class, but he gave himself something to do when he had finished. He implied that until he got all of this drawing done, he wasn't finished with his work. The second student who reported that he did not wait in the classroom was a second grade boy. Nick said that it took him longer than some other students to finish his work because he didn't rush through it. Both of these young men also talked about times during the school day when they finished their work before other students. In those cases, they would be drawing or "thinking about my ball game that I would have after school." However, this time to them was not waiting.

Students at all grade levels commented that sometimes they find other things to do when they have completed their work, but there are also times in the classroom when they "Just have to wait." As with the case of waiting in Proposition 1, students who already know the material, waiting in Proposition 2 is "boring" if students do not have an alternative strategy for using the time that is left in a class period. Jim, in the first grade, said, "Boring is when you're sitting there with nothing to do and your brain is saying, 'This is boring, this is boring, this is boring.'" Sometimes students have no choice. Classroom procedures dictate the manner in which time will be utilized. Even with the discrepant cases of the first and second grade boys, these students often finish their work ahead of the other members of the class. When this happened, the study participants pretty much followed the classroom rules, and they found something else to do, they did nothing, or they found something to do that made it appear as though they were following the rules. Gifted students make choices in the classroom; choices about how they will use their time.

Being Fair

"I think it's just as fair that everyone else should understand the things as well as I should. The whole class should understand something before you move on to something else" (7th grader).

Proposition 3: Waiting has value. These gifted students express dissatisfaction with the pace of their schooling, yet, they have a sense of some broader social context about school; that waiting places them within a framework of general achievement for all, and a personal context that waiting has some personal value.

The story for Proposition 3 is not as much about the students as it is a story of how I came to realize that the participants saw positive aspects to waiting. At the

outset of the study, I had a mental set that waiting was more or less negative, in fact, really more negative than anything else. When the students in my classroom asked about waiting in the regular classroom, it seemed to be a complaint about the pace of what was happening in class. They were frustrated and bored. "Boring" was a word I heard a lot.

As I was doing the analysis, I found the word "boring" peppered throughout all of the interviews. Based on the pilot interviews, I had determined that "boring" was a significant descriptor used by gifted students in discussions about school. As I conducted the interviews, I was scrupulously careful about not introducing the word boring in any of my questions or probes. So, when the word appeared as frequently as it did in the interviews, my mental set about the negative aspects of waiting seemed to be supported. Because the preliminary coding supported "boring", it took me some time to hear that the students were saying that there was a positive side to waiting, too. As part of the interview schedule, I included a question that asked the participants to think about a time that they thought it was okay to wait. I anticipated responses such as when we're getting ready to go out for recess, when we're lining up for lunch, or when we're getting ready to go home. In fact, students did mention those times.

Reading and rereading the data and sorting through conceptual labels that had positive connotations brought me to the interpretation that waiting had some value to the study participants. No student used the term value to describe waiting, but one student used "fair." Once "fair" was out there it seemed to be a useful label for interpreting the comments from other participants.

A fifth grade girl said, "Nobody has the same IQ, so they're probably not going to learn as fast as you. You just have to wait for them to learn or else they will never learn."

A third grade girl and the fifth grade boy said that when they had extra time, they helped students who were having trouble with the lesson. "Especially," said the third grader, "when we're working in groups because nobody can be done until everybody is done."

The seventh grader concluded his comments by saying, "That's pretty much so that we'll be even in class, and so that we'll have equal opportunities and things like that."

Waiting happens in school, and it has value because there is something beneficial that students perceive as happening for them because of the waiting. It's almost as if, since they are often bored because they have learned the material or work quickly, then the fact that they can get something out of the situation is fair to them.

"I think, 'Take your time' because I've got this book I've been wanting to finish," was how a third grader replied. "It makes me feel kind of proud to wait," said another third grader. Both of these students have a personal stake in the outcome of waiting.

A first grade student said, "Sometimes it feels good not to have anything to do." This thought was echoed by a sixth grader, "Sometimes I like to sit in class and kind of rest."

The idea of "fair" as a construct of waiting is not mentioned by as many study participants as are constructs of already knowing and adjusted doing. However the interviews contained the essence of this idea across grade levels and gender.

Waiting is fair bring us to an interesting paradox about educating the gifted; the excellence/equity debate. Every student used the word boring at least once during the interview session. Fourteen of the sixteen students in my study reported that they waited for others to learn in the classroom. Thirteen of those said waiting was boring.

Six of the thirteen said that waiting was boring, but that they had this other thing going on over here that should be considered when we talked about waiting. They want to be moving ahead through the content at their own rate, but everyone in the classroom has the right to learn what they know, or they find value in not working all the time. And so we have returned to the setting of the classroom with a particular sequence for instruction that provides the structure for learning.

The sequence of instruction defines what is actually happening in the classroom. This sequence is formulated around the assumption that all students are starting at point A as far as knowledge of content is concerned, and that all students will get to point Z at the same rate. All of the classrooms that I visited used the introduction of content with three practices model as the instructional sequence. There were subtle variations in using the model: introduction of the material with a filmstrip, or in a packet of material, or on an overhead; or two practice items completed in a small group setting. In each case, all students were given a written assignment to complete which was coordinated with the lesson, their homework.

From a teacher's perspective, it is important to remember that the teaching model that I observed is the basis for teacher evaluation. If you don't do instruction this way, then you will not get a good rating for teaching performance. The evaluation format does include a specific component that addresses higher order thinking. This component is just one of eighteen topics in six competency areas that is included in the evaluation model. If you don't do most of the eighteen topics then you are not considered to be a good teacher. The evaluation model is more concerned with what the teacher is doing than with what a student might be doing.

An additional point of concern that appears in the data is the lack of awareness that teachers have about the criteria for students who are placed in the advanced

classes. This is an institutional issue. Decisions about placement are made at one level and the criteria are not clearly communicated to classroom teachers. They, in turn, do not have a basis for making specific curricular decisions about any students in the classroom.

IMPLICATIONS

The challenge in considering the implications of the findings of a grounded theory study is to present the implications without slipping into generalizations. In this case, what I have presented as the descriptions of waiting in the regular classroom by gifted students at Brown Carver Elementary and Shannon Green Middle Schools is not assumed to be the case for gifted students in other elementary and middle schools. Lincoln and Guba (1985) maintain that "the only generalization is that there is no generalization" (p. 110). It also seems that it would be very easy to confuse the implications of the findings with applications of the findings. "Applications can be only tentative since the contextual realities of other settings may not be similar" (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p. 42).

An important factor in the development of these implications is tacit knowledge; understandings that I have from working in all kinds of classrooms for fifteen years. I have spent time in elementary through high school classrooms and in regular and gifted classrooms as a teacher and as an observer. These experiences influenced the research project from its inception to its conclusion and especially in determining the implications. Able learners seem to be near the bottom of the list of concerns for improved schools (Peine, 1998).

Implications are what we come to understand from the data even though it is not necessarily expressed. There are implications from my study for the students who

participated, for the field of education, and for research. In order to set the stage for the implications, I would like to share some general observations about the students who participated in this study.

These were really nice young people. They were not pretentious about their gifts. "Well, I have like this photographic memory or something, so I pretty much get things the first time I see them," said an 8th grader. They did not use the interview process to report negative information about specific teachers. They presented a rather matter-of-fact chronicle about their school experiences. From this viewpoint, the study implications are understandings of the unexpressed that are included here to move our thinking toward a different level of awareness of what the regular classroom is like for gifted students.

Waiting is there. This is a chronic condition for gifted students in the regular classroom. One of the study participants estimated that he waited for 20% of the time that he was in class. That calculates to 204 hours of waiting per school year and 1,632 hours of waiting from first grade through eighth grade. If this were a medical issue, we would see someone about it. Students assume they will be waiting. They find out about waiting as early as first grade. "I already know all the words." In the eighth grade the concern is similar. "I know what I'm doing, just give me the assignment and let me start working."

Gifted students know the system. They have figured out how to work within the existing instructional structure to get done what is important to them. I saw them calculate the pattern of recitation so they knew which question would come to them in the oral response portion of a lesson. They know how to work to maximize the available time in a classroom so they can get the assignment done before the class period is finished.

Gifted students have dual processing skills. They are able to listen and doodle, work and recite, and appear to be attentive while they are completing other work. Teachers who require "all pencils down," or "all eyes on me" are not capturing the full attention of the gifted students in the classroom. But, they have enough of the attention that the students will be able to recite, rephrase, or both, whatever is happening in the class.

The institutional rhetoric of schooling acknowledges student differences, but doesn't really provide the training for teachers to respond to what might be done to accommodate those differences. Classroom management techniques and expectations for performance generally point toward the average learner and the standardized assessment that occurs near the end of the school year. For students who would "be just wantin' to go on," there is no map to get them somewhere else, so they sit with their engines idling.

Teachers are not always aware of the "gifts" of the gifted students in their classrooms. They report that they are "really good students for the most part." These students will often have their hands up to respond to classroom questions. But, "I can't always call on Rachel, even if she is the only one who has her hand up. I know that she gets frustrated." The implications are that once you are placed in a class, the expectations for achievement are for the entire class, regardless of what you know or do not know. Students in the eighth grade algebra I class who already knew the material or who "got it quickly", worked at the same pace as the rest of the class. Instructional methods pretty much ignore variations among students. In a classroom of 27 students, there are 28 different things going on during a lesson. Some of these variations can be clustered together to include the average happening, but the students at either end of the happenings continuum are pretty much on their own. If students

are perceived as "getting it", then the attention is focused on those who "aren't getting it." Some teachers in the study were not necessarily aware of the criteria that able learners had met to gain entrance to the advance classes in elementary school, and the same held true for some advanced level math classes in the middle school. When this is the case, there is little incentive for presentation of any advanced content. A teacher reported, "We move along at the same speed in the text as the regular class. The students do more problem solving assignments." In general, teachers do not modify instructional material or pace of assignments for able learners in the class. The current research reports modifications occur less than 25% of the class time (Moon, 1997). During my visits to twenty-one classrooms at the study site, I did not observe any unique instruction or classroom activities that were organized for able learners. In classes that were grouped as all able learners, instructional practices followed the same pattern. Every student listened to the same lectures, worked in the same materials, and had the same assignments as all other students in the class.

Gifted students are articulate explainers of their classroom experience. They relate what and how they are learning to their perception of how things are done in the world outside school. "In real science, people don't make discoveries by just sitting and listening to people tell them stuff. They actually have to go out and pick stuff up with their hands and do the work" (Cathy, 8th grade). The implication is that some of what they do in class is artificial. The students in my study expressed the idea that much of the material they were learning seemed unconnected to how they saw the world operating. For example, learning the same things over and over in social studies was a negative experience. Solving problems using hand-on techniques in science, on

the other hand, was "the way problems are solved" in the real world and was reported as a positive experience. By making curricular experiences meaningful, we might lessen both the fact and the perception of waiting.

When we talk to young people, they don't just tell us what we want to hear. Teachers probably don't want to hear, "I already know this." "This is boring," is not a popular observation for a student to make. Since students are pretty forthright about sharing these types of thoughts, the idea that they tell us just what we want to hear doesn't really seem indicative of the way students responded to the topics of this inquiry.

We don't really listen to what young people have to say. We don't listen with our eyes. "Have you ever had this experience[of waiting]?" "Yes." The six year-old's eyes sparkle with directness. "Yes." The nine year-old's eyes dart around the room coyly, implying a confidence to be shared. "Oh, yes." The eleven year-old sits up straighter in her chair, ready to tell the story. "Yes, lots of times." the thirteen year-old slumps in his chair as if the weight of waiting makes some experiences things that he drags around with him. This thinking is not readily apparent unless we take the time to be attentive.

Students can't change the system. Young people are the biggest stakeholders in the educational enterprise, but the system incorporates them according to a pre-organized plan that includes schedules, curriculum, and minimal expectations. Appropriate behavior is a measure of performance. Get the stuff done that is supposed to be done.

Research efforts to document the student experience are minimal. The significance of my project is that it opens the door for an new initiative to understand what the experience of school is like for students. As adults we are fairly far removed

from the doing of school as it is known by students who are six to thirteen years old. Our understanding of the classroom is less than complete because we have not considered what the experience of school means to children. If learning opportunities are diminished by waiting, then educators need to believe that and policy makers need to know that. Examinations of classroom expectations, procedures, and practices from the student's point of view is an entire body of information that has yet to be gathered. My study is a beginning.

Gifted children in the regular classroom describe waiting as boring and fair. In one neat package, gifted children have connected two concepts that are at the heart of debates in gifted education and general education, fast learners/regimented curriculum. This is an issue that needs cooperation from both teams on the playing field of school, educators of the gifted and regular classroom professionals. If a wide receiver can run 40 yards in 4.5 seconds, we don't force him to run it at 6.5 seconds. What are we thinking when we have students repeat concepts four times to learn something, when they could have learned it in two?

Reflections About Research

For two spring seasons I have watched the hummingbirds and the indigo buntings reappear at the cedar tree outside the window at my desk. At times, I have wondered if this project would reach its conclusion, and here it is. I had not expected the research process to be so hard. In retrospect, I had no reason to think it would be otherwise.

I was intrigued by the realization that when I went to the schools to collect my data, I was an outsider. On the first day I walked into a gifted classroom as a teacher, I felt as though I belonged there. I have always connected easily and fairly quickly with

gifted children. Not to have that connection was sobering for me, and in the replay of my first two interviews, I sensed the difference between Marie Peine, the teacher and Marie Peine, the researcher. I think I was actually nervous. The feeling dissolved eventually, but it surprised me nonetheless. In my next research project I will allot more time for data collection, partly to minimize the sense of disconnection. I will also be more of a listener and less of a question asker.

I found it very challenging to take the Strauss and Corbin model (1990) for analysis and make it my own. I read the interviews so many times, that I have portions of them memorized. The inductive/deductive thinking pattern that supports the coding procedures is not a pattern that I use consciously, if at all, on a regular basis. The analysis requires that you use it consciously. I was encouraged when I realized that I was thinking about my thinking and then writing about it.

Working with the Paradigm Model (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p.99) was especially difficult for me. The components for the model are presented in a linear fashion with arrows to show the direction of analysis. This representation is artificial. I found that the analysis progressed in a more circular way with quite a bit of interaction between the different component parts. My biggest AHA! of this experience was when I actually operationalized the model to organize my data. I'm still not certain that I have used it in a way that they would approve, but it finally made sense to me.

I would change the prompt for the student drawings. I would try this statement; "Draw a picture for me of a classroom in which I might see you waiting." Since the classroom became the focus of the analysis, this type of drawing would possibly provide more information about what waiting was like for these students. The maps gave me a sense of the students' views of their days as linear, but the information

that I took from the maps was a limited amount compared to the other data sources of interviews and observations.

I did not expect it to be so hard to actually write this paper. I always told my students when they were having trouble writing that they should "just get something down on paper, because you can revise something, and you can't revise nothing." I needed to take my own advice more often. The chapters averaged two rewrites each after the initial product. Two chapters look nothing like their first manifestation. I just threw them out and started over. Part of the problem was to have chunks of time in which I could focus on the topic of gifted children in the regular classroom. The rest of the problem may have been the consistency of my application to the project. I seemed to work in spurts rather than methodically. An interesting aspect of the writing is that it is almost as difficult to conclude it as it was to begin it.

In 1985 I began a series of classes in gifted education at the University of Tennessee for my certification as a teacher in special education. The text for these classes was Schooling the Gifted by Laurence J. Coleman (1985). At that time I was a neophyte in the field, so this was simply the text for the courses. As I consider the title of that text in the context of my experience in the classroom and as a researcher, I conclude that for many gifted children, we do simply send them to school.

We need more research that involves students. To understand their experience, we need to talk to them. This is volatile time for public education. Parents express their dissatisfaction with schools by using alternative schooling options. Students in my study expressed their dissatisfaction by being passive. These students descriptions of waiting tell us that some of their time in the classroom does not seem productive to them. As we think of students who are sitting and waiting in classrooms, and therefore in schools, we also need to consider, "Just think of what I could have been learning."

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

STUDENT INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Tell me about your typical day at school.
2. Over the years some of my students have come to me with this question: "Mrs. Peine, why do we have to sit and wait in the regular classroom for other kids to learn stuff?"

What does this mean to you?

Have you had this experience?

How do you handle that situation?

What might I see you do while you are sitting and waiting?

Would anything be happening that I wouldn't be able to see?

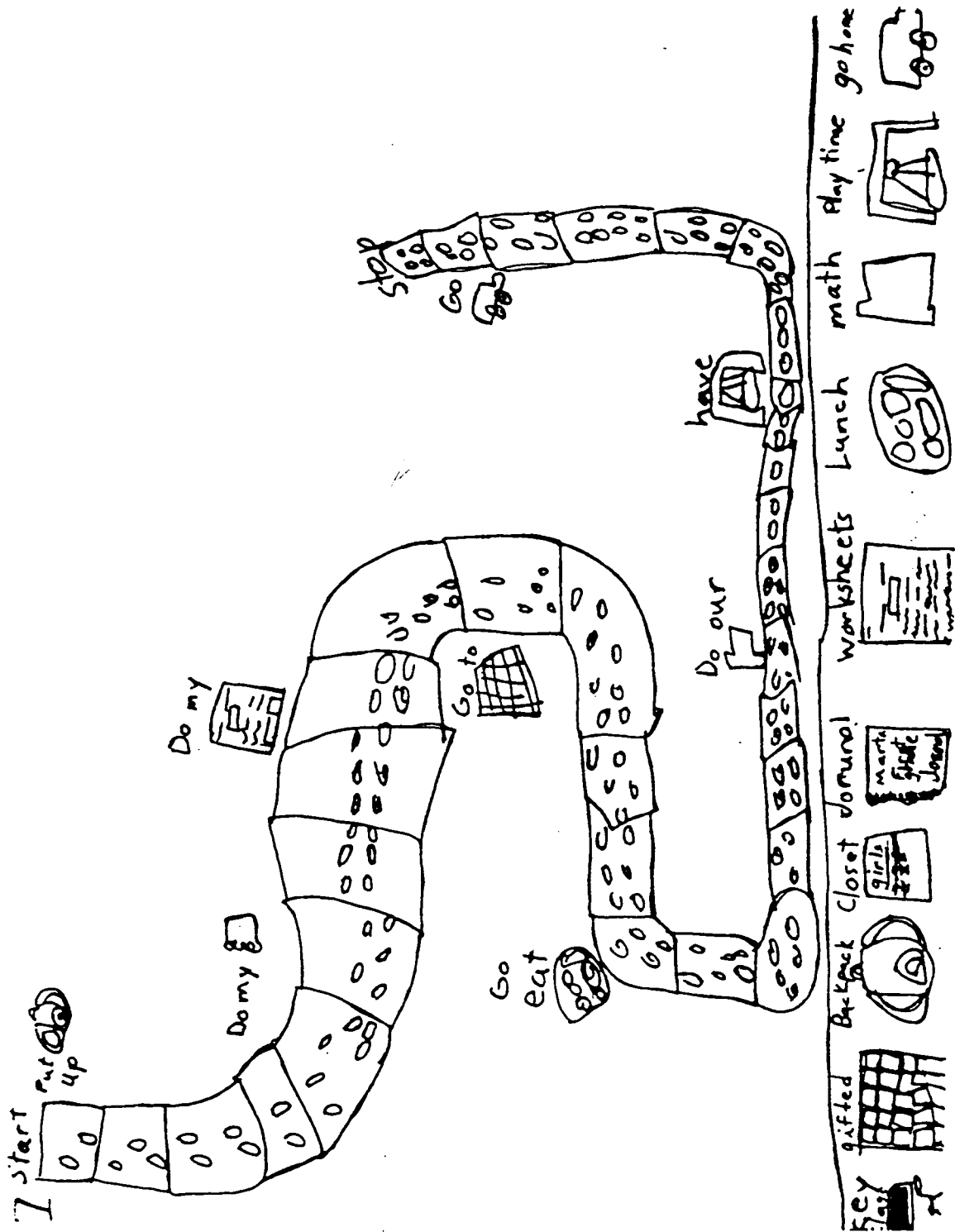
3. Do some parts of your day seem to go slower than other parts?
4. Can you tell me about a time during your day when it seems okay to wait?

APPENDIX B

MAP ANALYSIS RUBRIC

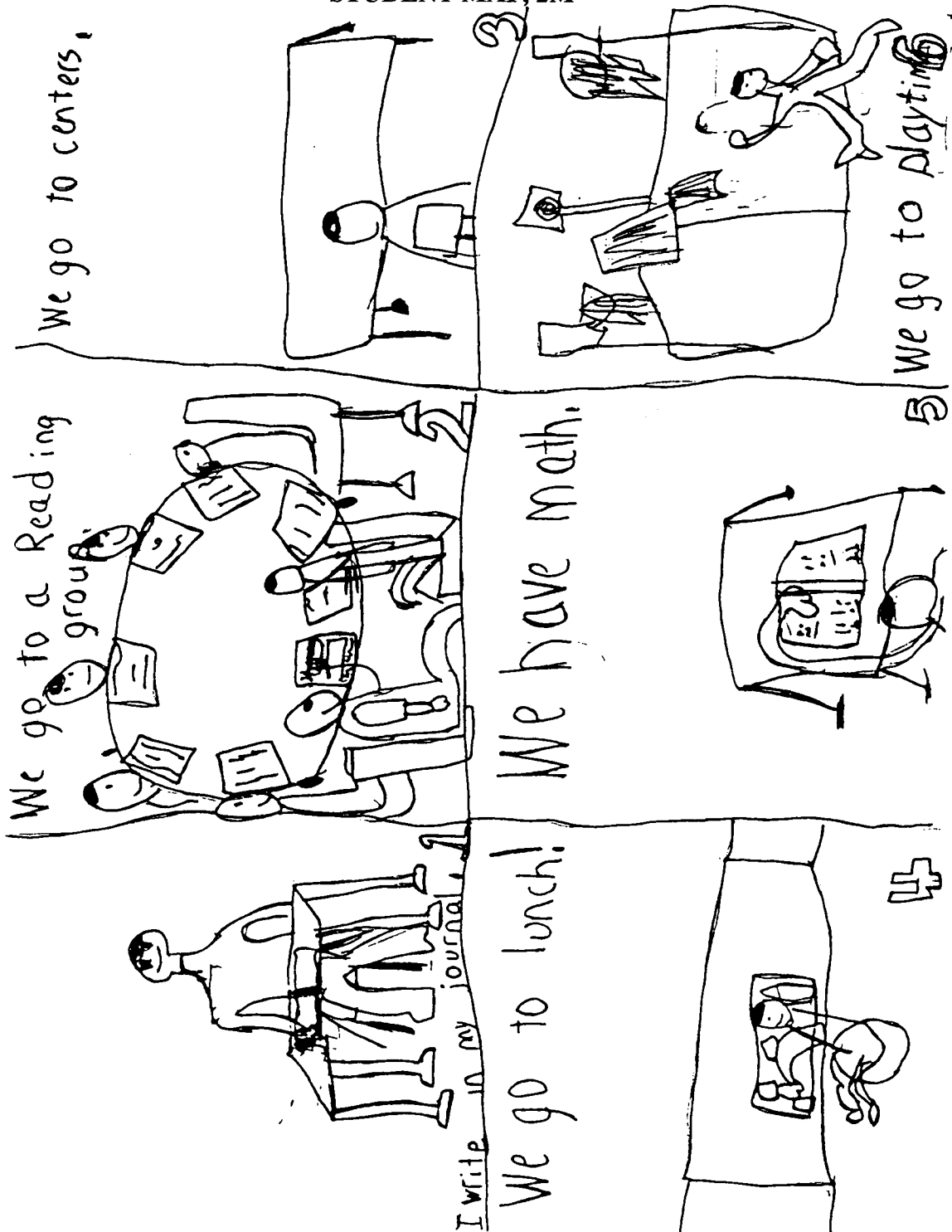
Student	Movement		Specific Hour		Evaluative		Space/time	
	Static	Dynam	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
1F		X		X		X		X
1M		X		X		X	X	
2F		X		X		X		X
2M		X		X		X	X	
3F	X			X		X	X	
3M		X		X		X		X
4F		X	X			X	X	
4M		X		X		X	X	
5F		X	X			X	X	
5M		X	X			X	X	
6F		X	X		X		X	
6M		X	X		X		X	
7F		X	X		X		X	
7M		X	X		X		X	
8F		X	X		X		X	
8M		X	X		X		X	

APPENDIX C-1
STUDENT MAP, 1F



APPENDIX C-2

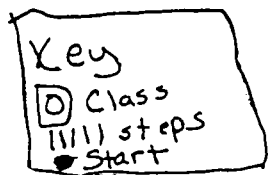
STUDENT MAP, 2M



STUDENT MAP, 4F

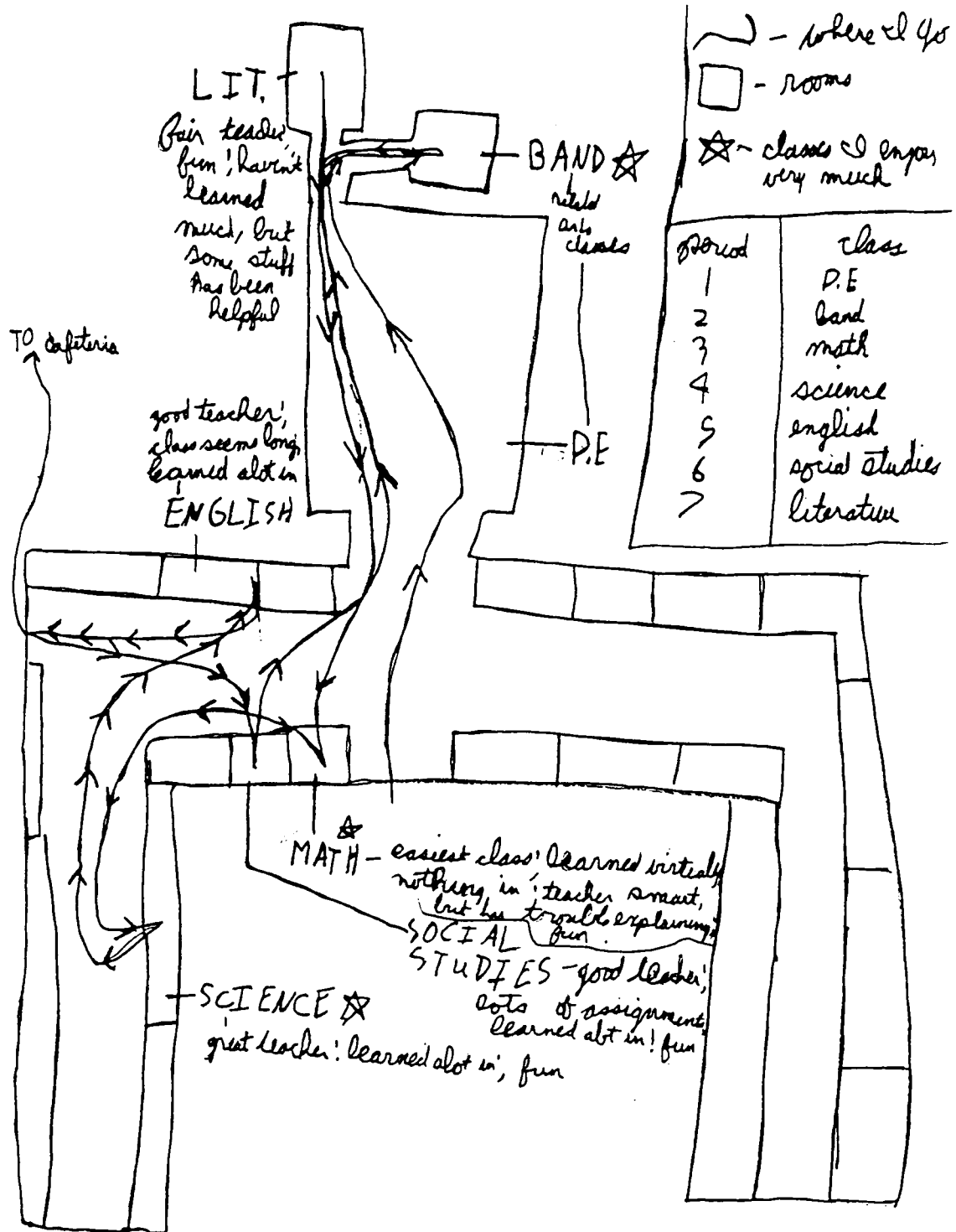


STUDENT MAP, 5M



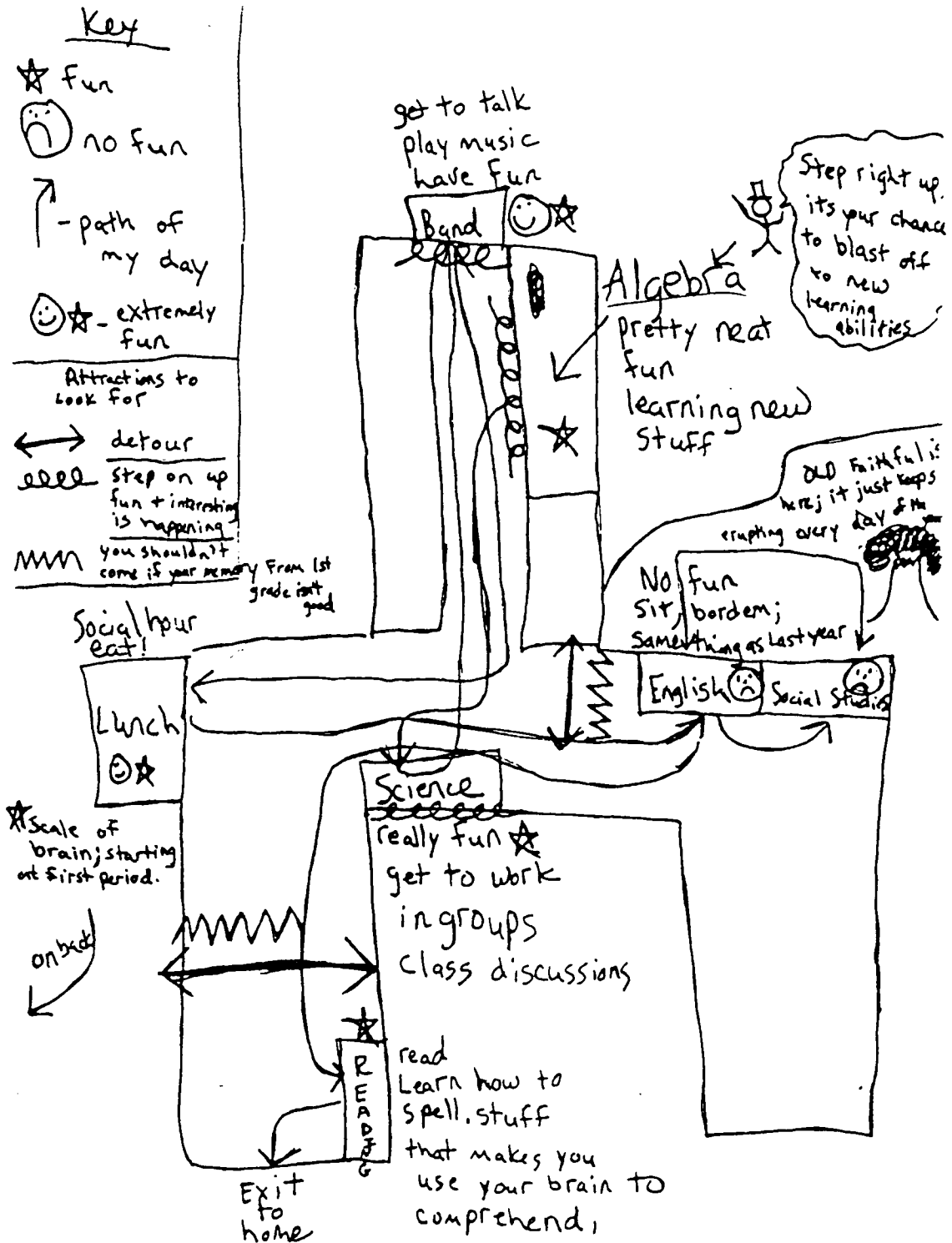
APPENDIX C-5

STUDENT MAP, 7M

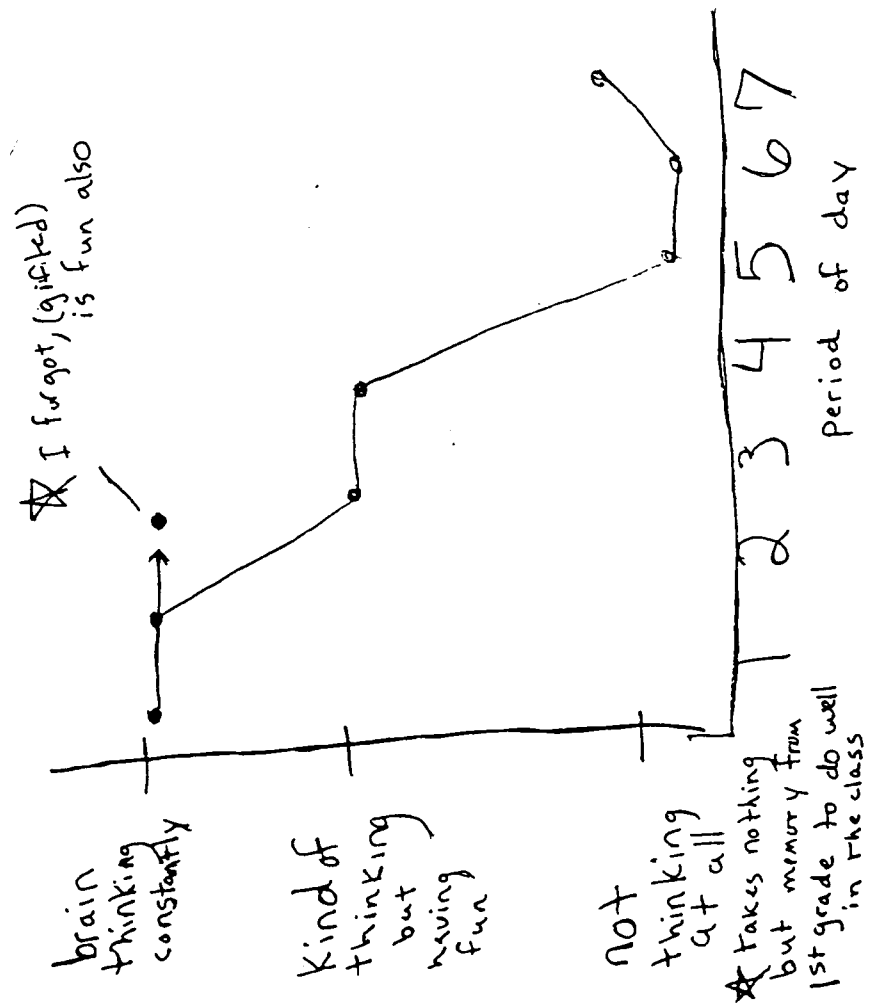


APPENDIX C-6a

STUDENT MAP, 8M-SIDE 1



APPENDIX C-6b
STUDENT MAP, 8M-SIDE 2

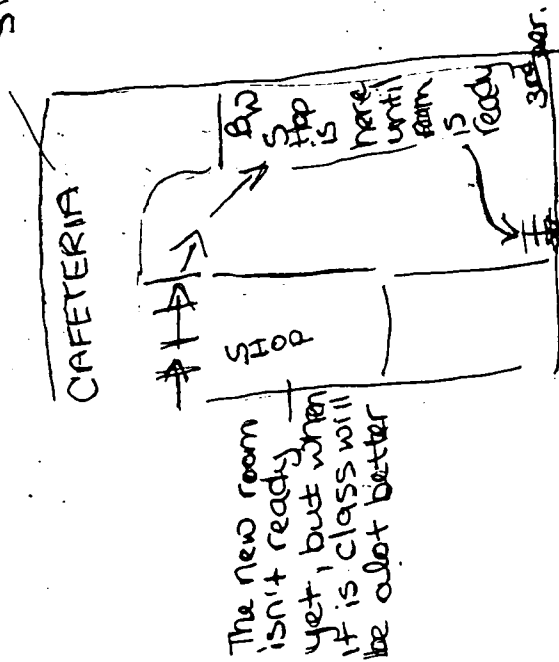


STUDENT MAP, 8F

APPENDIX C-7b

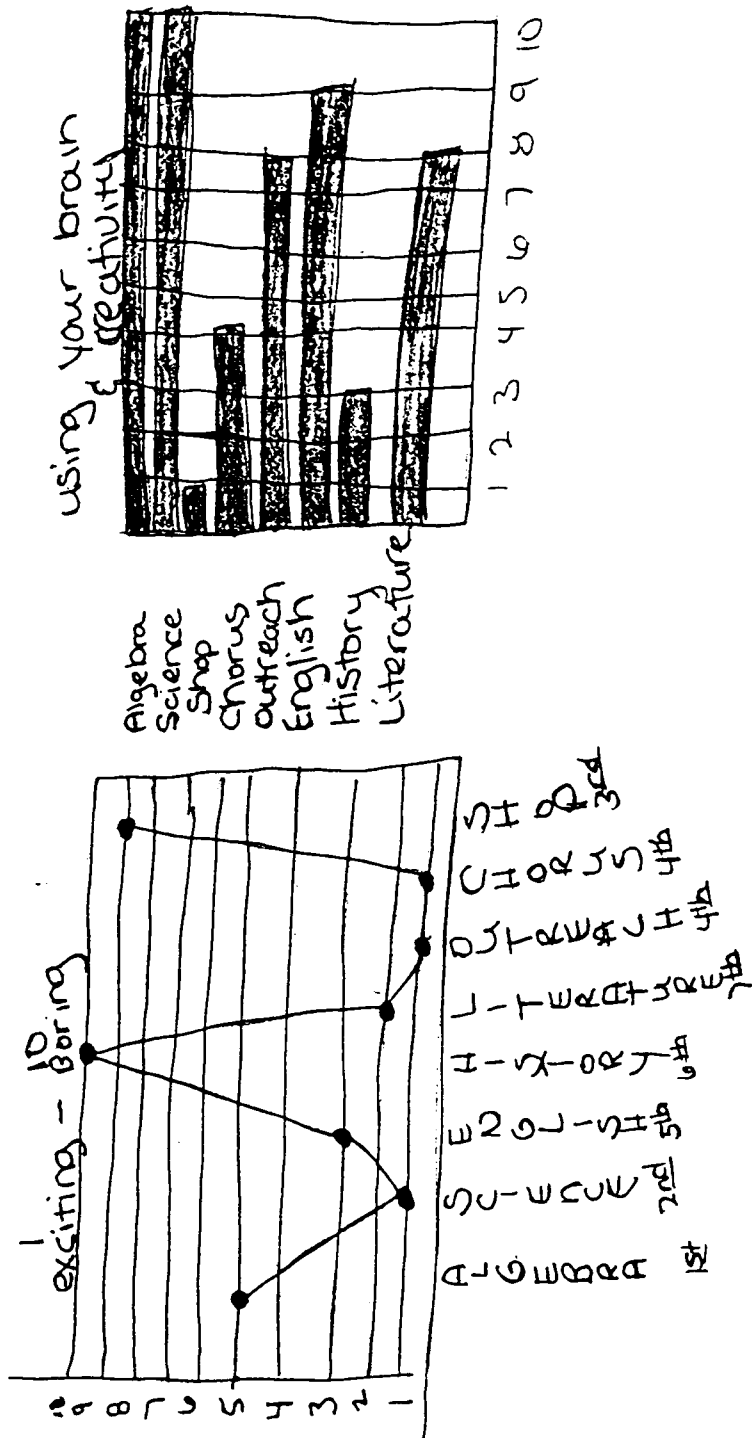
STUDENT MAP, 8F-SIDE 2

Two different class is and you
sides. Your class and you
assigned a side and you
assigned to sit (sometimes because they're
now in your friends)
from your friends
in different classes



APPENDIX C-7c

STUDENT MAP, 8F-SIDE 3



APPENDIX D

DESCRIPTIONS OF STUDY PARTICIPANTS

Mitzi was a first grader with sparkle. Her wish for school was that she could "teach" the students in her classroom some of the things that she was learning in her classes for the gifted. She was a vocal contributor to classroom discussions, often providing information that came from family travels. During my visits to her classroom she was usually the student who volunteered first to pass out papers and booklets for class work.

In our interview, Jim said what he wanted to say, then that was it. There was little elaboration to his responses. He sat near the front of the classroom on an aisle and was attentive to all the lessons. His sheets of drawings covered his desk at the end of an instructional segment. His approach to classroom activities was involved, but somewhat detached.

Roberta was the talker in this group of informants. She worked very quickly in the classroom and was usually the first one out of her seat to socialize quietly at the end of a lesson. Roberta was a very fluid oral reader and often volunteered to answer questions in class. She was the only participant who received any behavior reprimands in the classroom.

Nick described himself as slow and careful. Even his conversation had an "I'm considering this carefully" quality to it. He worked independently at centers in the classroom and often offered assistance to other students who had questions. As the class lined up for lunch or the restroom, he did not socialize, but instead looked at materials in the various classroom learning centers that he had not visited during the day.

Kim was a thoughtful, rather quiet young person. In the classroom she did not hesitate to participate; she just didn't say much. She was a part of the high ability group class in the third grade. She worked quickly when work was assigned. In group work she was generally the organizer, even though that task was not assigned to her.

Greg was a garrulous third grader. He was protective of his teachers during the interview and said, "I'm not going to mention any names." Greg tended to wander around the classroom when he finished his work, although he did not disrupt other students. The best part of the day for Greg was playtime.

Karen was the clock watcher of this group of study participants . Her desk was in the back row of her fourth grade classroom. She volunteered to answer many questions and was always correct when the teacher called on her. Karen's teacher said she was a superior student who caught on quickly to most of the topics that they covered in the classroom.

Richard had a very mature sense of humor. He shared an original ending he had written for a fable during one of my observations. It was very clever. When the teacher asked questions in the classroom, he always had his hand up to volunteer. If he wasn't called on to respond he would often answer sotto voce, along with the selected child.

Kristi, a fifth grader, was rather reserved. When she was among the group selected to participate in my study, her teacher of the gifted expressed some concerns that Kristi might not have much to say. She did fine. Kristi traveled to several classrooms during the day with her ability grouped peers. In two classrooms she was right in the middle of the room. She worked quickly and always seemed to have other things to do when she finished class work.

Carl, also a fifth grader, was one of the tallest students in his class. He was the only participant that mentioned a particular topic as a favorite interest. That topic was the Civil War. He did not volunteer to answer many questions in class, but he was always prepared with the correct response when other students had been incorrect.

Jennifer was an effervescent sixth grader. She sat near the front in all of her classes and was quick to volunteer answers. She also was very quick to socialize with classmates when there was a lull in classroom activities. She reported that Shannon Vista was the "best school ever", and that "all of my teachers are great!"

Andrew was very quiet and reserved in the interview, speaking in very low tones. His behavior in the sixth grade classrooms mirrored these qualities. He sat on the outside row of the classroom seats and was usually the last person to get his materials on his desk at the beginning of a class period. He responded to few questions and spent some of his time gazing out the window.

Rachel, a seventh grader, was also very quiet. She had a rather placid demeanor and said, "There's nothing much special about any of my classes." Depending on the class, she was in the front (science), middle to the side (social studies), and back row (math). Rachel was a good listener, but she did not seem to have much work to do when the other students were working.

David, was the tallest person in any of his classes. As a seventh grader he had received National Recognition in the Duke Talent Identification Program for his scores in mathematics on the Scholastic Aptitude Test. He worked quickly in all of his classes and was often observed reading a book when he finished his assignments.

Cathy was an outgoing eighth grader who talked about her many after school activities. She was a member of many school athletic teams as well as editor of the class newsletter. In the classroom she did not participate to any great degree in discussions, but was attentive and always working on assignments.

Doug was the musician of this group. He was widely regarded as an excellent guitar player and singer. In the classroom he was gregarious and volunteered frequently in response to teacher questions. He liked classes that had a "flow" because those classes "seemed like they were going somewhere."

APPENDIX E-1

STUDENT PARTICIPANT FORM FOR INFORMED CONSENT

The purpose of this research project is to understand the experiences of gifted children in regular classrooms in public schools. I will be asking you to describe a typical day at school, and I will be asking you questions about your school experiences. I will talk with you for about an hour. I will ask you to draw a map for me that shows me what a typical day at school is like for you. I will also be observing your classroom sometime while you are there. You will not be asked any personal questions. If you agree to participate and then decide that you don't want to, you can drop out of the project.

If you agree, I would like to tape the discussions (interviews) that we have. Only my teacher and myself will know what you say to me or what you draw. I will make written copies of what you say for my report. **If I use your words in the report, they will be written so that no one can tell that you said them, and no one will know what school you attend. If you mention a certain teacher in your interview, I will not tell the teacher or anyone at the school, and I will not include that information in my report.** I will keep the tapes and any information I have about you, your maps, and information that I collect about your classroom in a locked cabinet in the office of my teacher at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. When I have finished writing my report, I will erase the tapes and destroy any papers I have that identify you after three years.

I will be happy to answer any questions that you might have about what we will be doing as I visit your school. Your parents and teachers have my phone number and the phone number of my teacher at the University of Tennessee, if you or they need to get in touch with me.

I have read, or have had read to me, the explanation of this project. I understand what I will be doing and I agree to participate. I know that I can withdraw from the study at any time.

Name _____

Signature _____ Date _____

APPENDIX E-2

PARENT FORM FOR INFORMED CONSENT

The purpose of this research project is to understand the experiences of gifted children in the regular classroom in public schools. A particular focus of the research is to gather descriptions from students about their experiences. The benefits of this research are the development of a more complete picture of the classroom for policy makers and educators. This information will hopefully make classrooms more responsive to the needs of diverse groups of learners by influencing decisions makers. As a participant, your child (A) will be interviewed for about an hour by the researcher who will ask him/her to describe a typical day at school and talk about his/her classroom; (B) will be asked to create a map that graphically presents a typical day at school; (C) will be observed while participating in regular classroom activities. **Participants will be asked only to discuss their school experiences. No personal questions will be asked. The participation of your child is purely voluntary, and you may choose to have him/her discontinue at any time without penalty or prejudice to the services he/she is currently receiving.**

With your permission, the interviews will be taped on a cassette recorder, with all information held in strictest confidence. The tapes will be transcribed for the purposes of qualitative analysis. The transcriber has signed a Pledge of Confidentiality. Although I cannot guarantee anonymity, the data will be reported in a confidential manner. **Nowhere on the tapes or in the research report will any participants or the cooperating school be identified. If a participant's response is quoted in the research report, it will be reported in such a way that would prevent the identification of the participant or the school. The report will not deal with classroom practices or specific teachers. The confidentiality of the written records identifying the participants on the tapes, the audio tapes, student maps, field notes of classroom observations, and any other data collected for this investigation will be maintained by keeping the records locked in a filing cabinet at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. These records will be maintained for three years. Only Dr. Laurence J. Coleman (my major professor) and I will have access to this data. Tapes, identifying information, and data will not be used for any other research project and will be destroyed three years after the completion of the final report. Specific information about school personnel will not be solicited from your child. However, should any information of this type be given to me by your child, it will not be reported to the school system nor used in the final report.**

If you have any questions regarding this research or your child's rights as a participant, feel free to contact me, Marie Peine at (423) 428-0538, or Dr. Laurence J.

Coleman, Inclusive Early Childhood Education Unit, College of Education, CA 335,
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, phone- (423) 974-4133.

I have read and understand the explanation of this project and agree to allow my child
to participate.

Name _____

Signature _____ Date _____

APPENDIX E-3

TEACHER FORM FOR INFORMED CONSENT

The purpose of this research project is to understand the experiences of gifted children in the regular classroom in a public school. A particular focus of the research is to gather descriptions from students about their classroom experiences. The benefits of this research are the development of a more complete picture of the classroom for policy makers and educators in order to help classrooms become more responsive to the needs of diverse groups of learners. As a participant, you will be asked to (A) discuss with the researcher your daily schedule; (B) allow observations of a study participant who is a student in your classroom; and (C) to permit the student to be released from your classroom, without penalty, to complete some portion of the data gathering process, if necessary. Data gathering from student participants includes an interview and the creation of a map that shows a typical day at school. **Specific information about your teaching practices or classroom procedures will not be solicited from the student participants.** Your participation in this project, as the classroom teacher of a student participant, is purely voluntary, and you may choose to discontinue the project at any time without penalty or prejudice.

Our discussions, observations, and classroom documents will be collected as field notes. Although I cannot guarantee anonymity, all information will be held in the strictest confidence. **Nowhere in the research report will any participants, classrooms, or schools be personally identified.** If a document or response is quoted in the research report, it will be reported in such a way that would prevent identification of the participant of the school. **The report will not deal with your classroom practices.** The confidentiality of any records identifying participants, as well as field notes, documents or other data will be maintained by keeping records locked in a filing cabinet at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Only Dr. Laurence J. Coleman (my major professor) and I will have access to this information. The information will not be used for any other research project and will be destroyed three years after the completion of the research report.

If you have any questions regarding this research, or your rights as a participant, feel free to contact me, Marie Peine at (423) 428-0538, or Dr. Larry Coleman, Inclusive Early Childhood Education Unit, College of Education, Claxton Addition, The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, phone # (423) 974-4133.

I have read and understand the explanation of this project and agree to participate.

Name _____

Signature _____ Date _____

APPENDIX E-4

ADMINISTRATIVE FORM FOR INFORMED CONSENT

The purpose of this research project is to understand the experiences of gifted children in the regular classroom in a public school. A particular focus of the research is to gather descriptions from students about their experiences. The benefits of this research are the development of a more complete picture of the classroom for policy makers and educators, in order to help classrooms become more responsive to the needs of diverse groups of learners. As a participating school, you will provide access for this research to be done in your building. Two students, one male and one female will be selected from a population of identified gifted students in grades 1-5, or 6-8 in your school. Individual participants will be interviewed for about an hour by the researcher who will ask them to describe a typical day at school. Participants will also be asked to draw a map of their school day. The researcher will observe the interaction of participating students in their classrooms, collect artifacts and documents about the classroom (such as daily schedules) from teachers to assist in interpretation of the interviews, and talk with classroom teachers about classroom activities. Participants, their parents, and classroom teachers will agree to be a part of this project by signing Informed Consent Forms before the research is initiated. Data collection has been planned for the latter part of the school year so as to provide minimal disruption to student schedules prior to state mandated achievement testing. The participation of your school is purely voluntary, and you may withdraw from participation at any time without penalty or prejudice.

Although I cannot guarantee anonymity, the data will be reported in a confidential manner. Nowhere in the research report will any participants or the school be identified. If any information is used directly in the report, it will be reported in such a way as to prevent identification of the participant or the school. The report will not evaluate in any way the responses of the participants or the practices in a particular classroom or school. The confidentiality of all information collected from this project will be maintained by selected storage procedures. Identifying information, interview tapes and transcriptions, student maps, and field notes will be kept in a locked filing cabinet at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. The transcriber of the tapes has signed a Transcriber's Pledge of Confidentiality. Only Dr. Laurence J. Coleman (my major Professor) and I will have access to any of this information or data.

If you have any questions regarding this research or your rights as a participating school, feel free to contact me, Marie Peine, at (423) 428-0538, or Dr.

Larry Coleman, Inclusive Early Childhood Education, Claxton Addition, The
University of Tennessee, Knoxville, phone # (423) 974-4133.

I have read and understand the explanation of this project and agree to allow data
collection to occur at my school.

Name _____

Signature _____ Date _____

School Name _____

VITA

Marie Peine attended schools in Harrison County, Ohio, where she graduated from Conotton Valley High School in 1963. She earned a Bachelor of Science in Education degree from Capital University, Columbus, Ohio in 1967. She taught in the Ridgewood Local School System, West Lafayette, Ohio and for the Department of Defense Schools in Goose Bay, Labrador-Newfoundland, Canada. In 1972 she received a Master of Arts degree from the University of Arizona in Tucson, Arizona. Her degree concentration was in History.

In 1984 she began teaching in Special Education/Gifted for Sevier County Schools in Sevierville, Tennessee. Her studies at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, began in 1985 with coursework for certification in special education and culminated with the doctoral degree in August, 1999.

Marie currently coordinates special education services at Sevierville Middle School and supervises the gifted program, system-wide, for Sevier County Schools.