Vision and the Ideal Teacher: Implications for Educational Practice

Rosalind Victoria Aaron
Andrews University

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Andrews University
School of Education

VISION AND THE IDEAL TEACHER: IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE

A Dissertation
Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Philosophy

by
Rosalind Victoria Aaron
August 1995
"VISION AND THE IDEAL TEACHER: IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE"

A dissertation presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Doctor of Philosophy

by

Rosalind Victoria Aaron

APPROVAL BY THE COMMITTEE:

Chair: David S Penner
Member: William H Green
Member: Delmer I Davis

Director, Graduate Programs: Dr Jerome Thayer
Dean, School of Education: Dr Warren Minder

07.30.1995 Date Approved
To my parents,  
who always encouraged me to be diligent  
in everything I do;

To educators  
who have visions and are willing to share them for  
the benefit of future educators.
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ABSTRACT

VISION AND THE IDEAL TEACHER: IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE

by

Rosalind Victoria Aaron

Chair: David Penner
Title: VISION AND THE IDEAL TEACHER: IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE
Name of researcher: Rosalind Victoria Aaron
Name and degree of faculty chair: David S. Penner, Ph.D.
Date completed: August 1995

Purpose
The purpose of this study was to describe how and why teachers with a vision of an ideal teacher have chosen teaching as their profession and to articulate how that vision has influenced their educational practice.

Procedure
This study was conducted in the classroom setting using qualitative methods. The qualitative techniques were informal and formal interviews, non-participant observations, and personal journal entries.
Conclusions

The findings of the study revealed that the three teachers do have visions, which they clearly articulated. Their visions resulted from their interaction with others, but specifically with some of their former teachers. As new ideas, educational trends, and policies are introduced, they adjust their goals to attain their visions. Their visions are communicated to students, parents, colleagues, and school administrators directly and indirectly. Their visions have taken on several realities that are reflected in every facet of their educational practice.

Implications

Opportunity should be provided for teachers to (1) articulate how and why they became teachers, (2) develop a networking system in which they share imaging and visionary techniques, and (3) develop awareness that future teachers are being prepared in their classrooms every day, and the responsibility is theirs to demonstrate that teaching is an honorable profession.

School administrators might be interested in the visions teachers have and what goes on in their classrooms. It would motivate them to help teachers polish their visions.

Researchers should base more of their studies on outstanding aspects of what is happening in classrooms and report these findings in terms that teachers, parents, and school administrators can understand.
Recommendations for Further Study

Recommendations are (1) for the study to be extended to a larger number of teachers, (2) for first- and second-year teachers be included in a future study, and (3) for college and university professors to be interviewed to see if they also have a vision of ideal teachers that influenced them in some way.
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this dissertation is to describe how and why teachers with a vision of an ideal teacher have chosen teaching as their profession and to articulate how the vision has influenced their educational practice. Barth (1990a) suggested that without vision, one's behavior becomes reflexive, inconsistent, and shortsighted. Illustrating the effect of this lack of vision, he examined the problem firsthand: "Without a vision we get lost, and our activities in school become as empty vessels of discontent" (p. 516).

Obviously, if teachers are to avoid becoming "empty vessels," their visions must be alive and well developed. The vision itself may be patchwork, made up of the teacher's hopes and dreams, or modified by past successes and failures. Mentors may have encouraged and modeled certain behaviors later adapted by the teacher. The richness of the learning and working environment may have enhanced the possibilities, while the personal skills of the teacher tend to explain specific roles. Teachers tend to move in the direction of their visions. The stronger the vision, the
more likely it is to have an effect on the teachers. While the visions may never be achieved, they guide teachers in the way they teach students (Hickman & Silva, 1984).

Vision is a force that makes a teacher see what others do not (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1986). Vision compels the teacher to risk things never done before and challenges not only the teacher but also the students. The teacher with a vision looks beyond what students are now to what they may become. The teacher's vision is his/her "window" on the world (Kouzes & Posner, 1987). The students' success depends on the ability of the teacher to articulate that vision so that students experience what the teachers desire.

In her study of five veteran teachers, Cohen (1991) realized that the teacher, and not the method, was the cornerstone of a student's educational experience and that this was a lesson rarely taught in schools or departments of education. As a product of traditional methods courses, Cohen had suffered the dismay experienced by most new teachers when they entered their first classrooms. What she wanted more than anything else was a model, someone whose experiences might console or inspire her. She wanted to hear realistic stories of the specific difficulties of other teachers. She also wanted the larger picture, a perspective available only to a veteran professional.

As she continued to give reasons for her study, she added that very few student teachers ever get a chance to
see great teachers in action. She further stated that rarely does one hear a real teacher’s voice in a textbook on secondary classroom methods, and lengthy ruminations by real teachers are virtually impossible to find (Cohen, 1991).

There is evidence in the literature that indicates that the vision the teacher has of the ideal teacher is affected more by the experience of the teacher and modeling than by any other force, be it superintendent, local board, parents, other teachers and colleagues who exert an influence from the outside. This situation places great responsibility on teachers and their teaching to model their visions (Ayers, 1989; Cohen, 1991; Goodlad, 1984; Goodson, 1992).

The present study is based on the idea that the visions teachers have of ideal teachers linger with them over time and motivate them to develop unique visions. These visions may change over time based on the training the teachers receive, where the teaching is done, and with whom the teaching is done. These visions of teachers influence teaching performance. Vision has been a buzzword for over a decade in the area of business, psychology, and other professions. The term vision, especially in the area of business, has captured the imagination of experts who see it as the key to success in the late 20th century, helping them to forge their way into the 21st century. Business experts have developed many ideas and written numerous books and
articles in magazines and journals on "visioning." Many seminars, workshops, in-service, and on-the job training programs have been conducted to enable workers in these organizations to create their own visions and make the organization's vision their own, inspiring them to be visionaries also (Olson & Blum, 1980).

Educators have not been as risk-taking as their counterparts in business. Olson and Blum (1980) reflected that now that educators have seen how the idea of vision is revolutionizing the business world, they are willing to try the strategies and are finding that "visioning" is the planning technique used in forecasting for the future.

Vision guides the actions of educators at all levels of the educational system. The vision makes them express new and unusual ideas and accept the responsibility if those ideas do not work. In an interview, a university professor has mentioned how his former professor inspired him to appreciate the fine arts, something he had never paid much attention to before. After listening to this teacher for a quarter, he had a new appreciation for the fine arts, and also for teaching:

At first I did not think of Dr. Schuil as my favorite teacher, but I respected him as an individual for his scholarship and the high expectations he had for his students. But he opened up "windows" for me in which I had previously little interest. There have been some outstanding teachers in my life, but his enthusiasm for the fine arts opened for me an experience I had never had before. His teaching has influenced my life significantly as a teacher (Penner, personal communication, June, 1994).
This inspiration of the vision of the ideal makes an impact on students. Many students have experienced at least one figure who has ended their somnolence, awakened them to a new way of thinking, or brought them a fresh appreciation of the familiar. Often they have not thought about these teachers for many years, but a question, a discussion sparks their memories. Many people end up telling a story about someone "amazing"--the teacher who started it all.

Teachers emanate an influence that affects students positively or negatively. Educator Frank Smith (1992) summarized that influence in an apt quote, "We learn from the company we keep." He suggested that teachers must ensure that they create a supportive and nurturing company for students. Stamp (1993) reflected on the company she kept as a learner and recalled that she had many gifted teachers, but one stood out in her mind as "ideal." She stated, "There was one teacher, in particular, who believed in child-initiated activity, the worth of creative thinking and the value of informal learning. That teacher was my mother" (p. 262).

Stamp's vision of an "ideal" teacher was not realized in a school, but in a home setting. As the above statement indicates, it is obvious that a vision can develop early in one's life. Stamp (1993) further suggested that the teacher's greatest impact on the lives of students is usually in the elementary school.
Shively (1991) had a similar view to that of Stamp. She explained that a teacher gets an initial vision from a parent or some family member, from experiences with people and events, from memories of former teachers, from a principal or supervisor, from a student's own experiences as a student teacher, from confidence in accomplishing things.

A teacher's initial vision of an ideal teacher may be important, but what is more important is how that vision is encouraged by others and how it affects the teacher's practice. Sparks (1992) suggested that the warm smile and sparkling eyes of a child's greetings, those hugs and clasped hands from peers and children, magically make teachers believers in themselves and keep the vision alive. Teachers know that students and their peers are involved in serious business.

Kennedy (1991) pointed out that teachers receive their visions from teachers and teaching very early in life or may even receive those impressions as adults. She stated that teachers are likely to teach in a way they themselves were taught. Brown (1992) argued that whether the vision is received in childhood or adulthood, it can be the force that motivates teachers to stay in teaching in spite of the challenges they face.

The preceding paragraphs suggest that teachers influence students in a significant way in formulating their visions of teaching. Although the visions can be formulated
from kindergarten to university levels, these influences are strongest in elementary and high school.

**Statement of the Problem**

Many teachers can recall a good teacher whose influence motivated them to become teachers. Some teachers begin developing visions from the inspiration they received from a teacher in kindergarten, elementary school, high school, college, or university. That "vision of an ideal teacher" has lingered with them over time and influenced them to develop a vision of their own. The vision needs to be expressed so that it can be examined by those teachers, and others who will be affected by the vision will know what their roles are in realizing the vision. The problem is that without a focused vision teachers may not be able to successfully plan for the future for their students or have a mental picture of what they want to see their students accomplish. Without that mental image, without perspective, specific goals cannot be set that will make that vision a reality.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to describe how and why teachers with a vision of an ideal teacher have chosen teaching as their profession and to articulate how the vision has influenced their educational practice.
Significance of the Study

This study of how and why teachers with a vision of an ideal teacher have chosen teaching as their profession may bring to the surface questions that will motivate other teachers who might not have given careful thought to or have not seen the importance of clearly exploring their visions. A study of this nature may motivate them to model their visions so that other teachers, students, and parents may know what their roles are in helping teachers to fulfill their visions.

A teacher who has had a partial, unfocused, broken, or destroyed vision may be inspired by experiences of the teachers in the study to refocus, repair, or replace that vision. This may encourage teachers to create positive mental images for themselves, and to reassure them in their careers as teachers as they make an impact on students' lives.

School administrators, policy makers, teachers, parents, and other researchers may be able to gain insight into how vision impacts teachers and their influence on the educational practice in their respective schools.

A detailed study of the influence of vision on teachers and teaching has not been done before. This study may arouse the interest of other researchers to extend the study based on the questions that have emerged.
Delimitations

This study focused on three teachers from parochial and public schools in Michigan, who were willing to describe their visions, describe the ideal teacher, state how and why they became teachers, and articulate how their visions have influenced their teaching. Teachers were also selected who were willing to be observed directly and indirectly in their classrooms, and who were willing to be interviewed in a series of interviews over a period of time.

Definition of Terms

In the discussion of this study two terms in particular require extended definition: "vision" and "ideal teacher." Chapter 2 is devoted to a detailed definition of the two terms. At this point, a short definition is included.

Vision: What teachers have seen and experienced that motivates them to share their knowledge with each other and actively help one another become skillful. It means the ability to see beyond what others have seen. Vision means the hopes and dreams that teachers have for themselves that specifically influence their educational practice. Vision also means the ability to "see" promise in people and situations that have not been realized fully. Vision is the force that motivates teachers to do extraordinary things. Vision is the standard that ideal teachers have set up for themselves whether that standard is attainable or not.
"Ideal" teacher: A teacher admired by someone, who in the person's estimation is someone to be emulated. An ideal teacher is especially talented in teaching and has "opened windows" for students to achieve success. An ideal teacher is also someone who motivates students to set up high standards for themselves and to move in a particular direction.

The vision is the focus of the dissertation. The part of the vision that will be examined is that of the ideal teacher.

Procedure

Introduction

The purpose of this section is to describe the procedure that was followed for studying the phenomenon that the vision a teacher has of an ideal teacher influences that teacher to model the ideal and that modeling that ideal affects teaching. It also details (1) how teachers with a vision were chosen, (2) the procedure for having the teachers describe their visions and the ideal teacher, (3) why they entered teaching, and (4) how their visions of an ideal teacher have influenced their teaching. An extensive review of books, journals, periodicals, magazines, ERIC documents, and dissertation abstracts has revealed that there is some evidence that the vision a teacher has of an ideal teacher impacts the teacher's mode of teaching.
The information given in chapters 4-7 highlighting the three cases and the cross-case analysis resulted from the detailed classification of the data found in the tables in Appendix B. The narrative precedes the tables and gives a detailed description of how the tables were developed.

**Type of Research**

This study followed a descriptive, multiple-case study approach where the focus is that ideal teachers have visions that are created from a number of sources. This vision was described as it affects their classroom practice. Investigation was made into the phenomenon mainly through interviews and observations.

As a research endeavor, the case study contributes uniquely to the knowledge of individual, organizational, social, and political phenomena. Not surprisingly, the case study has become a common research strategy in psychology, sociology, and political science. Case studies are found even in economics, where the structure of a given industry, or the economy of a city or region, may be investigated by using a case study design. In all of these situations, the distinctive need for the case study arises out of the desire to understand complex social phenomena. In brief, the case study allows an investigation to retain the holistic characteristics of real-life events—such as individual life cycles, organizational and managerial processes,
neighborhood change, international relations, and the maturation of industries (Yin, 1994).

The case study approach was used because it has built within it the structure needed to fulfill the demands of this study. The case study approach was also chosen because it answered at some point in the study the "how" and "why" questions that are being posed (Yin, 1994; Miles & Huberman, 1984).

Three separate cases were included based on the data received from the interviews and observations. In the context of Robert K. Yin's suggestions about case study methodology, a cross-case analysis was conducted that highlighted the similarities and differences of each case.¹

Cases and case studies of teaching have created wide interest in the field of education in recent times. Cases and case studies help one to be reflective. They are a unique way of reporting on practice. They are a means by which educators can examine how others have dealt with

¹ One expert in the field of case studies and in cross-case analysis is Yin (1994). His technique was employed in writing the case studies and the cross-case analysis.

Yin's methodology of conducting case studies has been used by approximately 15 individuals who have done Ph.D.s or Ed.D.s in different programs of study, from 1989-1993. Some of the subject areas noted are: Nursing; Business Education; Business Administration (Management); Special Education; Education Administration; Physical Education; Higher Education; and Community College Education. In addition to the individuals who have used his methodology in their dissertations, other case study experts have quoted Yin in support of some aspect of case studies pursued.
similar problems. Cases can guide the way that teaching decisions are made (Yin, 1994).

Defining Case Study

Hammersley (1993) defined case study as the examination of an instance or action. The study of particular incidents and events, and the selection of information on biography, personality, intentions and values, allows the case study worker (researcher) to capture and portray those elements of a situation and give it meaning. (p. 165)

Yin (1994), in his book on case-study research, defined case study as an "empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (p. 13). Merriam (1988), in her book Case Study Research in Education, defined case study as an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single entity, phenomenon, or social unit. These experts on case study research in education provide the impetus in motivating novice and veteran researchers to use the case-study as a research tool.

Value of Case Study in Qualitative Research

Bullough (1989) noted that interest in case studies of teachers has been increasing recently, and it is being realized that they have a unique role to play in the study of education. Bullough further stated that clearly case studies are effective means of communicating ideas about
practice, but they are much more. Cases and case studies are stories that, in their telling, invite the reader to question and explore personal values and understandings:

What if I were in a similar situation?
What would I do and why would I do it?
How are my values and understandings the same, or different from those presented in the case study?
Are my understandings any better?
Are my values likely to get me into some kind of difficulty? (p. xi)

Written case studies are a means by which educators can explore how others have confronted problems similar to their own. They are also a means to identify potential problems and vehicles by which to begin thinking them through. In these ways they can influence the basis on which teaching decisions are or will be made (Bullough, 1989). Case studies are a good means of reporting on research phenomena in the classroom. The next section discusses the value of case studies as a communicative strategy.

Communicating With Case Studies

Yin (1994) proposed that one difference between a case study and other types of research is that the case study report can of itself be a significant communication device. For many non-specialists, the description and analysis of a single case often conveys information about a more general phenomenon. He further proposed that case studies can communicate research-based information about a phenomenon to a variety of non-specialists. In this manner,
he continued, the usefulness of case studies goes far beyond the role of the typical research report, which is generally addressed to colleagues rather than non-specialists.

From the preceding section, it is clear that utilizing the case study approach was the most appropriate research methodology for this study.

**Pilot Study**

A pilot study was conducted in order to obtain a feel for the actual study and to "unearth" potential difficulties before the actual process.

One teacher who was willing to participate was chosen for the pilot study. The teacher was interviewed and observed following the proposed method that would be used to conduct the interviews and observations as outlined by Spradley (1979). The data received from the interviews and observations were recorded manually and by using a tape recorder. The data were carefully analyzed by categorizing into domains, taxonomies, components, and themes in an attempt to identify any redundant patterns that might surface and any question that may have inhibited the informant from responding to the questions. The pilot study was also conducted for the purpose of refining the interview guide and to give experience in the process.

The interview guide is a list of points or topics to be covered in the interview. This technique permitted greater flexibility in pursuing the interviews. The
interviewer may shift in manner, reorder the questions, revise the language, and probe more deeply into areas that he/she feels are the most revealing (Skager & Weinberg, 1971). It was after the pilot study that names were obtained of outstanding teachers who had visions of teaching, could describe those visions, could describe how and why they had become teachers, and how those visions have influenced their practice.

Description of the Participants

Participants were selected who were recommended and were willing to describe their visions of an ideal teacher, explain how and why they had become teachers, and explain how those visions have influenced their teaching.

The initial means of selecting the participants was to ask professors in the School of Education at Andrews University to recommend names of individuals whom they perceived to be outstanding teachers. A list of nine teachers was given by one professor who had taught these teachers, had sent student teachers to do practice teaching in these classrooms, or had observed these teachers (or done all of the above). After the names were suggested, the teachers were identified by the professor as elementary and secondary teachers and by the schools in which they taught.

Two of the teachers identified taught in public schools, and six taught in parochial schools. Five of the teachers taught in a setting that was familiar to the
researcher. From these teachers one was chosen. Two of the teachers were from the public school system and one from an unfamiliar parochial setting. The teacher from the unfamiliar parochial setting was chosen and one of the teachers from the public school system. These teachers were contacted by telephone to determine whether they were willing to be included in the study. After the teachers showed a willingness to be included in the study, a consent form was prepared, along with a letter for the principal of each of the schools. These documents were approved by the Andrews University Human Subjects Review Board. A familiarization visit was made to get acquainted with the teachers and also to make the respective principals aware of the process. The visit was made, the consent forms were read and signed by the teachers, and verbal permission was granted by the principals. The formal letter of consent from the principals followed a few days after. The principals asked additional questions about the study and how it might affect the teachers’ schedules. The principals were assured that the school program would not be disrupted unduly. At the familiarization visit, appointments were arranged for the interviews and observations. Very soon after the initial visit, the interviews and observations began. The letters of consent were picked up from the principals on the day of the first interviews and observations.
Instrumentation

An interview guide was developed that was comprised of semi-structured questions such as:

1. How would you describe your vision of the ideal teacher?
2. Why have you decided to become a teacher?
3. How has the vision of the ideal teacher affected your teaching?

This interview guide was used for the first interview session only. It followed a modified version of Spradley's (1979) method of conducting interviews. A modified version was used because not all of the subsets of the steps outlined by Spradley were relevant for each individual participant.

Permission for Conducting the Study

The initial approach was to identify suitable teachers who meet the criteria—that is, they had visions of

Spradley's methods of conducting interviews and observations have been widely used in dissertations across the United States. Thirty-four dissertations were found that used either Spradley's 12 steps of conducting interviews, or a modified version of the steps in addition to participant and non-participant observations. The studies found were done between January 1989 and September 1994. Some of the subject areas include Cultural Anthropology; Education Administration; Curriculum and Instruction; Higher Education; Physical Education; Early Childhood Education; Nursing; General Religion; Linguistics; Adult and Continuing Education; and Psychology. In conducting interviews, observing, and analyzing data, experts have recognized Spradley's methods as outstanding.
"an" ideal teacher, could articulate the visions, and were willing to be interviewed.

Three teachers were chosen, two from parochial schools and one from a public school. The study was limited to three teachers to enable the researcher to go into some depth in asking the questions and studying the culture of the classrooms and developing the cases. The three teachers were spread among three schools to ensure that the information gathered from the interviews and observations were viewed from different perspectives.

Generalizability

It is important to understand, however, that the data from this study would not result in generalizability, as it is typically understood. In the context of case studies, generalizability refers to theoretical propositions, not to populations (Yin, 1994). In other words, as vivid and memorable as the cases may be, they are not representative of all teachers with visions of ideal teachers. Furthermore, the conditions under which these teachers work and interact are unique to their situations. What a case study does produce is a picture of some phenomenon in its real-life context, which enables the researcher to understand and perhaps explain events, processes, or decisions; but it does not enable the researcher to predict the underlying motivations or behaviors of individuals (Shulman, 1992).
Meeting With the Informant

When I met with the informants, they were made aware of the purpose of the study and the direction in which the study would go. Explanations were consistently given from the first interview to the last, so that the purpose of the study would not be lost. Varied forms of questions and explanations were given so that meaningful responses could be elicited. Ethical issues were also discussed. Some of the ethical concerns were confidentiality, anonymity, and what would be done with the information when the interviews and observations were terminated.

In addition to interviews, non-participant observation was conducted in the classrooms of each of the teachers who had a vision and were willing to be interviewed for the study. The non-participant observation was conducted to corroborate what was said with what was observed and to "see" glimpses of what teachers stated regarding how vision is lived in the classroom. Interviews were conducted with the teachers in each school and sufficient observations were made and recorded to give a reliable picture of what went on in each classroom.

Arrangements were made with the teachers and principals prior to the study for a set time when each interview, and observation would be done. Twenty-five minutes to 1 hour per session gave me adequate time for each interview, while the observations consumed 1 to 3 hours,
during which time a teacher was observed throughout a given lesson or a series of lessons.

Spradley has emphasized that the observer should come to a classroom situation with one purpose: to observe the activities, people, and physical aspects of the situation. Not only should the observer have a heightened sense of awareness, but he or she must also approach the activities of the classroom with a wide-angle lens, taking in a much broader spectrum of information (Spradley, 1980).

At the close of each observation session, additional notes were written on what was observed and a journal was kept of impressions of the process for that day. Some notes were made at the site. Immediately after the sessions, additional notes were made. These observation notes became an integral part of the cases.

**Interviewing Teachers**

A semi-structured form of interview was used to initiate the teachers' descriptions of their visions, but follow-up questions were carefully structured to clarify statements made or to elicit more in-depth responses after each interview. As the interviews progressed, careful notes were taken and interviewees were asked to verify information given. Descriptive questions were used to stimulate discussion on the experiences of the teachers. Each of these forms of questions elicited unique responses from the interviewees.
In addition to descriptive questions, structural and contrast questions were asked. Structural questions enable the researcher to discover information about domains, the basic unit in an informant's culture. They make it possible to find out how informants organized their knowledge. Contrast questions allow one to discover meaning and then to show how contrast questions can lead to finding many additional relationships among folk terms. Contrast questions are also valuable in conducting an interview because they enable the researcher to discover the dimensions of meaning informants employ to distinguish the objects and events in their world (Spradley, 1979).

Within a short time of conducting the interviews, the analysis began and continued throughout the study. This analysis consisted of reviewing verbatim notes recorded and written to search for cultural symbols\(^1\) and for relationships among these symbols.

**Observing Teachers**

The activities of each of the three teachers were observed. The observations were of the non-participant type. As an observer, this researcher had no involvement

\(^1\) Cultural symbols refer to terms used in relationship to other terms. How the term is used will be more important to the interviewer than its meaning because asking for meaning may elicit definitions instead of relationships--relationship to parts and how the parts relate to the whole cultural situation (Spradley, 1979).
with the teachers or activities of the class, but rather found an "observation post" and recorded what went on, using the following observation criteria, adopted from Ryan (1994). The criteria are: (1) teachers’ strategies and approaches to classroom organization; (2) management and classroom discipline; (3) student/teacher relationships, including rapport and ways of interacting with teaching and learning materials; (4) techniques and relationships; (5) use of technology in the classroom; (6) how the teacher goes about planning, including instructional methods and how these plans were practiced; (7) teacher philosophies as they are expressed in the classroom; (8) teachers’ individual lesson structures and patterns of instruction; and (9) other observations. These criteria gave focus to the observation process. They enabled observation of the teachers based on their definition of vision, and how their visions affected their classroom practice.

Analysis of the Data

Since Spradley’s method of analyzing data dominated the collecting and analyzing of the data, it is important that information be given on him and his work. Spradley’s method was used because it is sequential and is structured to minimize researcher biases and problems of validity. Spradley is a linguist who has specialized in ethnographic interviews and participant observations for over 12 years. He has also led students successfully
through this process. He believes that as an ethnographer, one cannot do everything at once, even though field work seems at times to demand it. He further believes that both ethnographic interviewing and participant observation involve a series of tasks best carried out in a kind of sequence. This sequence is known as the Development Research Sequence (DRS). This sequence sets forth 12 major tasks designed to guide the researcher from the starting point of "Locating an Informant" to the goal of writing the ethnography.

The data received from the interviews were analyzed using a modified version of Spradley's 12 steps of analyzing data found in The Ethnographic Interview (1979).

1. **Locating an informant.** Spradley has used the term informant in a very specific way to mean the interviewee. The informants in this study were teachers who were engaged to speak in their own language. The teachers provided information that helped provide an understanding of the classroom situation from which the teachers had come. In a series of interviews, with repeated explanations and

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The 12 steps for analyzing data are: (1) locating an informant, (2) interviewing an informant, (3) making an ethnographic record, (4) asking descriptive questions, (5) analyzing ethnographic interviews, (6) making a domain analysis, (7) asking structural questions, (8) making a taxonomic analysis, (9) asking contrast questions, (10) making a componential analysis, (11) discovering cultural themes, and (12) writing the ethnography.
the use of special questions, the teachers under study provided excellent information.

The meanings expressed as a result of asking questions, listening to casual conversations, interviewing, taking field notes, analyzing data, and writing rough drafts deserved the most serious consideration by the researcher.

2. **Interviewing an informant.** Interviewing the informant is a speech event. Spradley (1980) refers to interviewing as a series of friendly conversations into which the researcher slowly introduces new elements to assist the teachers to respond as informants. The three most important elements are: (a) explicit purpose, (b) explicit explanations, and (c) ethnographic questions.

   a. Explicit purpose: The ethnographer must make the purpose clear to the informant.

   b. Explicit explanations: From the first encounter to the last interview, the researcher must repeatedly offer explanations to the informant.

   c. Ethnographic questions: The three main types of ethnographic questions are (i) descriptive questions, (ii) structural questions, and (iii) contrast questions. The descriptive questions enable the researcher to collect an ongoing sample of an informant’s language. Structural questions enable the researcher to discover formation about domains, the basic units in an informant’s cultural knowledge. Contrast questions enable the researcher to
discover dimensions of meaning that informants employ to
distinguish objects and events in their world. The three
main types of interview questions were employed to gather
information about the teachers' visions of their ideal
teachers and how the visions influenced their practices.

3. Making an ethnographic record. An ethnographic
record consists of field notes, tape recordings, pictures,
and anything else that documents the classroom situation
under study. Two principles must be kept in mind when
making an ethnographic record: (a) the language-
identification principle, and (b) the verbatim principle.
These principles have the single purpose of reducing the
influence of the researcher's translation competence when
making an ethnographic record. The language identification
principle identifies the language used for each field-note
entry. The verbatim principle means getting things down
word for word. A tape recorder was used at all interview
sessions, allowing the "capture" of the exact words spoken
by the informants. Notes were taken of key phrases and
statements made by the informants as the interviews
progressed. A journal was also kept of impressions of the
interview and observation process.

4. Asking descriptive questions. Descriptive
questions aim to elicit a large number of utterances in the
informant's native language. They are intended to encourage
an informant to talk about a particular cultural scene,
which in this case is the classroom. One key principle in asking descriptive questions is that expanding the length of the question tends to expand the length of the response.

5. **Analyzing ethnographic interviews.** Analysis of any kind involves a way of thinking. It refers to the systematic examination of something to determine its parts, the relationship among parts, and their relationships to the whole. Ethnographic analysis is the search for the parts of the culture and their relationships as conceptualized by informants. The parts and their relationships were found by repeated listening to the tapes to get the exact words spoken by the informants, reading and rereading the transcriptions, notes, and journal entries. Such a procedure made it possible to discover how the responses to each question related to the entire interview and observation process.

6. **Making a domain analysis.** Every culture has an enormous number of cover terms and an even larger number of included terms. Moreover, it is often difficult to tell from the way the informants talk whether a particular folk term falls into one or the other class. This makes it difficult to search for new domains by merely looking for cover terms.

A more efficient procedure for identifying domains makes use of the semantic relationship as a starting point. Domain analysis begins by using semantic relationships

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rather than cover terms to discover domains. Semantic relationships are not the most obvious part of any utterance. In fact, the utterance lies beneath the surface, hidden by the more apparent folk terms for things and actions. Domain analysis is not a once-for-all procedure; it must be repeated as the new data are collected through the interviews. From time to time throughout the research project, this procedure was used to find domains.

7. **Asking structural questions.** Structural questions need to be adapted to each individual informant, meshed with other kinds of questions, and skillfully repeated over and over again. Although the Development Research Sequence (DRS) goes from descriptive questions to structural questions to contrast questions, the interviewer never proceeds from descriptive to structural to contrast interviews. Descriptive questions make up a part of every interview.

Alternating questions were used that were different from simply including each type of question in an interview. The questions were thoroughly mixed together in an almost random fashion. This kept informants from getting bored, and relieved any anxiety created by the test-like effect of structural and contrast questions.

8. **Making a taxonomic analysis.** The experienced researcher often combines domain analysis and taxonomic analysis into a single process. Taxonomic analysis leads to
finding subsets and relationships among the subsets. Although a combination of the process is recommended, the domain and taxonomic analyses were done separately for finding domains and their relationships to each other.

9. **Asking contrast questions.** The contrast principle states that the meaning of a symbol can be discovered by finding out how it is different from other symbols. One of the greatest values of contrasts questions is that they enable the informant to sit and think about differences while keeping in mind many different folk terms. In this study, informants were asked questions that elicited how responses given were different from other responses.

10. **Making a componential analysis.** Componential analysis is a systematic search for attributes (components of meaning) associated with cultural symbols. A componential analysis includes the entire process of searching for contrasts, sorting them out, grouping some together as dimensions of contrast, and entering all information onto a paradigm. It also includes verifying this information with informants and filling in any missing information.

11. **Discovering cultural themes.** A cultural theme is a cognitive principle, tacit or implicit, recurrent in a number of domains and serving as a relationship among subsystems of cultural meaning. Cultural themes sometimes appear as folk sayings, mottos, proverbs, or recurrent
expressions. Most cultural themes remain at the tacit level of knowledge.

Themes not only recur again and again throughout different parts of a culture, they serve as a general semantic relationship among domains. Another strategy for discovering cultural themes is to try to visualize relationships among domains. In this study, it was noticeable very early in the interviews what was important to the teachers. As the notes were transcribed from the tapes, emphatic statements, or anything that they valued and underlined were especially noticed. This was done initially. After each reading, others surfaced. A synopsis of special statements and events was written in the margins of notes. Another form of identifying cultural themes was to write a summary of each of the cases after the interviews and observations were completed. The form of identifying themes that was dominant was the universal themes model given by Spradley. The other approaches used to identify cultural themes were included in the universal theme model. A detailed account of what the universal themes are and the themes that surfaced under each heading is given in Appendix B.

12. Writing the ethnography. As most professional writers will affirm, the only way to learn to write is to write. In the same way that learning to swim cannot occur during classroom lectures on swimming, discussion of
principles and strategies to follow in writing do not take writers very far in learning to write. It is best to observe other swimmers, get into the water and paddle around, and then have an experienced swimmer point out ways to improve breathing and stroke. One of the best ways to learn to write is to read other ethnographies (Spradley, 1979).

In addition to the data received from observations and interviews, the cases were analyzed and a cross-case analysis conducted in order to examine the similarities and differences among cases. After a small amount of data had been collected from the interviews and observations, other questions emerged. These questions guided in knowing what to look for in the next interview and observation. The interviews, observations, recording of field notes, and analysis of data were done in sequence. Analysis of the data led to new questions. And so the cycle continued until the interviews and observations were completed. The formal writing began after the last interview and observation had been conducted. In any study that is done, there is always concern about the credibility of the study. The next section explains in some detail about reliability and validity in qualitative research.
Some of the major concerns in any type of research, but specifically in qualitative research, are those of reliability and validity. Crabtree and Miller (1992) explained that sampling of subjects in qualitative research tends to be purposive rather than random. The aim is to illuminate the study question, and the concern is with information richness, not representation. They have used equivalent terms for reliability and validity for qualitative data, which are credibility, dependability, and confirmability. These, they explained, are generally verified by using triangulation and independent audits.

Crabtree and Miller (1992) proposed five methods for seeking trustworthiness. They are triangulation, thick description, reflexivity, member checking, and seeking for disconfirmation. These methods, they stated, bear strong similarities to quantitative methods for establishing reliability and validity.

1. **Triangulation.** Triangulation allows the researcher to seek trustworthiness in data collection by trying wherever to use multiple methods and divergent data sources. The process, Crabtree and Miller explained, may be reiterated by checking the researcher's interpretations at each step of the inquiry with the respective informants. In this study, ethnographic interviews, non-participant observations, and the examination of documents were the
principal methods employed in collecting data. Multiple data sources used were verbatim transcriptions, observation notes, and journal entries of my impressions of the study.

2. **Thick description.** For the naturalistic investigator, truths are usually local rather than universal. Research conclusions apply with confidence only to the particular group under study and only at that particular moment in time. In order to judge how trustworthy would be an extension of the conclusion to other similar groups, one must know in great detail the precise similarities and differences between these other groups and the group that has been studied. This requires a very detailed account of the contexts of the informants of the study. Three teachers were interviewed from three different settings: one from a public and two from private schools. One of the teachers taught in a high school and the other two taught in elementary schools. Differences in school size, classes taught, ages of students, and the complexity of the staff all helped to add strength to the analysis.

3. **Reflexivity.** Since the naturalistic investigator is the research "instrument," naturalistic inquiry cannot avoid observer bias by using the instrument to insulate the social situation from the preconceptions of the investigator. Instead, open disclosure of preconceptions and assumptions that may have influenced data
gathering and processing becomes an inherent art of the conduct of inquiry (Crabtree & Miller, 1992).

4. **Member checks.** This refers to the recycling of analysis back to the informants. This recycling should be documented in the study account, preferably with mention of the informant's comments. The research situation may also change the key informant. As the analysis progressed from the domain stage to the writing of the conclusions, information had to be verified with the informants. This was done by asking descriptive, structural, and contrast questions not necessarily in the order in which they were listed. On writing the first draft of the cases, the informants were given their individual cases to read. They made their adjustments. When these cases were returned, no major reworking had to be done. There were minimal questions about interpretation. These were adjusted. Each informant will be given a copy of his/her case when the study is completed.

5. **Searching for disconfirming evidence.** "The job of validation is not to support an interpretation, but to find out what might be wrong with it. A proposition deserves some degree of trust only when it has survived serious attempts to falsify it" (Cronbach, cited in Lather, 1986, p. 67). Searching for disconfirming evidence involves both purposive sampling and prolonged engagement. Purposive sampling, prolonged engagement, and documentation of the
selection process detailed in the procedure, support "disconfirming evidence" in this study.

Some of the major concerns in qualitative research are those of purposive sampling, illuminating the research question, and information richness--not representativeness, reliability, and validity. Equivalent terms given for reliability and validity credibility, are dependability and confirmability. Six qualitative criteria (credibility, confirmability, meaning-in-context, recurrent patterning, saturation and transferability) support and substantiate qualitative studies.

Morse (1994) has posited her criteria for qualitative studies that she believes support and substantiate qualitative studies. These criteria have been used by a number of nursing and anthropology students for several years. The six major evaluation criteria and definitions developed over time are as follows (Leininger, 1987, 1990, 1991).

1. Credibility refers to the "truth" value or "believability" of the findings that have been established by the researcher through prolonged observations, engagements, or participation with informants or a situation in which cumulative knowing is "believable" or lived through experiences of those who studied.

2. Confirmability refers to repeated direct participatory and documented evidence observed or obtained
from primary informant sources. Confirmability means obtaining direct and often repeated affirmations of what the researcher has heard, seen, or experienced with respect to the phenomenon under study. Confirmability includes getting evidence from informants about findings by the researcher or interpretations. Restating ideas and/or instances to those who have shared their ideas is a way to confirm ideas throughout the study. "Audit trails" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) or "periodic confirmed informant checks" and "feedback sessions" (Leininger, 1990) directly from the people are important means to establish confirmability of data. How researchers confirm what they have seen, heard, or experienced may vary with cultures, situation contexts, and material and nonmaterial sources. Pictures, actual and repeated instances, voice inflections, and non-verbal communication are some indicators of confirmability. Confirmability was established in this study by noting the actual and repeated instances, voice inflections (especially when listening and transcribing the tapes), and the teachers non-verbal cues helped to confirm what was said and done.

3. Meaning-in-context refers to data that have become understandable within holistic contexts or with special referent meanings, or the informants or people studied in different or similar environmental contexts. Situations, instances, life events, lived-through experiences that are known to the people in their
environment are important indicators. The criterion focuses on contextualization of ideas and experiences within a total situation, context, or environment. The significance of interpretations and understandings of actions, symbols, events, communication, and other human activities--as they take on meanings to informants within their lived context or the totality of lived experiences--supports the criterion.

4. Recurrent patterning refers to repeated instances, sequences of events, experiences, or lifeways that tend to be patterned and recur over time in designated or in different ways and in different and similar contexts. Repeated experiences, expressions, events, or activities that reflect identifiable patterns, sequenced behavior, or expressions or actions over time are used to substantiate this criterion.

5. Saturation refers to the full "taking in of occurrences" or the full immersion into phenomena in order to know it fully, comprehensively, and thoroughly as possible. Saturation means that the researcher has done an exhaustive exploration of whatever phenomenon is being studied. It may refer to getting dense or thick (in depth and breadth) data to know fully whatever has been observed, presented, or discovered. The researcher finds no further explanation, interpretation, or description of the phenomenon under study by the informants.
6. Transferability refers to whether particular findings from a qualitative study can be transferred to another similar context or situation and still preserve the particularized meanings, interpretations, but rather in-depth understandings and knowledge of particular phenomena. The transferability criterion focuses on general similarities of findings under similar environmental contexts or circumstances. Similarities to another similar situation can contribute to extending knowledge uses. It is the researcher’s responsibility to establish whether this criterion can be met in a similar context while preserving the original and to use the notion of perspective.

Value of Qualitative Studies

There are a number of reasons why a qualitative approach was taken to the research problem. Research that attempts to uncover the nature of a person’s experiences with a phenomenon is best represented in this way. Qualitative studies can be used to uncover and understand what lies behind a phenomenon about which very little is known. It can be used to gain novel, fresh slants on things about which quite a bit is already known. Qualitative methods can give the intricate details of phenomena that are difficult to convey with quantitative methods (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).
Reasons for a Qualitative Study

Qualitative methodology was chosen and, specifically, Spradley’s DRS, because of the structure it provided—from choosing the informant to writing up the report. Another reason for using Spradley’s methodology is that it suitably made it possible to understand the teachers’ cultural knowledge from their points of view. A qualitative approach and Spradley’s steps were used because they provided the opportunity to examine a phenomenon about which little is yet known, made it possible to conduct the research, being conscious of the potential problems with biases, validity, and reliability and ensuring quality control during the process, and had built within them the structure that took care of, in a unique way, the reliability and validity of such an approach.

Organization of the Study

Chapter 1 provides the background, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the significance of the study, the delimitations, the definition of terms, the overview of literature, the organization of the study, and the procedure.

Chapter 2 defines the terms "vision" and "ideal teacher" as used in this study in a detailed way as they relate to describing the phenomenon that the vision of the "ideal" teacher does exist and how that vision can be fostered for the improvement of educational practice.
Chapter 3 reviews the literature on vision, visioning, goal clarification, values clarification, personal mission, and self-fulfilling prophecy as they relate to the career choices that individuals make. The value of psychological imaging and its effects on a person, and teachers' descriptions of how and why they became teachers and how the vision they developed have influenced their educational practice continue the discussion.

Chapters 4, 5, and 6 detail the cases of the three teachers describing their visions/and their ideal teachers, explaining how and why they became teachers and how visions have influenced their educational practice.

Chapter 7 discusses the cross-case analysis in which the commonalities and contrasts of each case were identified.

Chapter 8 presents the summary, personal definition of vision, conclusions, implications, and recommendations for further research.
CHAPTER II
DEFINITION OF TERMS

Introduction
This chapter defines the two main terms of the study: "vision" and "ideal teacher." This chapter describes the various definitions that are given for these two terms and will explain how they are used throughout the study.

Vision
Perhaps the oldest definition of vision was that associated with religious prophets. In the context of the Hebrew Christian traditions, it may be thought of as the means by which God communicates to humans, particularly the prophets. Vision is often used this way in the Bible. A vision may come in waking moments (Dan 10:7; Acts 9:3,7), by day (Acts 10:3), at night (Gen 46:2), or it may come as a dream (Num 12:6). Horn (1960) observed that the Bible makes no sharp distinction between visions and dreams except that dreams come during the hours of slumber. In vision, the prophet becomes oblivious of natural surroundings and the Spirit of God so controls the sensory areas of the brain that the prophet seems literally to see, hear, and feel what
is presented in vision. A vision may contain instructions for the future that will enable God’s people to live more intelligently in the present. In vision, the prophet sometimes seems to be transported over considerable distances (Ezek 3:12-15; 8:3).

Bromley (1988) defined vision as "an altered state of consciousness in which extrasensory audiovisual experiences, usually revelatory in character, are perceived in private by individuals, often prophets or seers" (p. 993). He added that the visions themselves may be experienced as occurring within an earthly setting or may involve apparent out-of-body experiences such as ascents to heaven or descents to the other world. He further added that all the Hebrew, Aramaic, and Greek terms, translated "vision" in modern versions of the Bible, are terms that primarily denote "appearance" or "sight" in contexts that refer to normal visual perception. Only the context reveals when the "vision" refers to a psychological or revelatory experience in which the subject privately "sees" that which is not physically present to ordinary, unaided perception.

Referring to vision in a broader sense, Conley, Dunlap, and Goldman (1992) seem to agree with Horn and Bromley that vision is not an easy term to define. It can have an almost quasi-religious effect about it. Conley et al. (1992) noted that vision (1) has not been studied systematically to the best of their knowledge, particularly
in the educational context, and (2) its demonstrated and potential ability to bring about organizational alignment and goal focus in schools suggests an importance that demands further serious study. These writers further suggested that vision may be a component in any process of fundamental school change and restructuring.

It has the potential to get staffs 'unstuck,' to empower those willing to change, and to provide just the impetus that schools need to make the transition from passive implementors of externally-developed policy to creators of meaning and purpose. (p. 9)

In the context of school improvement, Conley et al., 1992) defined vision as a "shared agreement, explicitly stated in some form by a significant number of participants in an organizational unit" (p. 3). Vision is viewed as an "internal compass for people in complex organizations that helps them understand more clearly how their actions relate or contribute to broaden educational goals" (p. 3).

Originally the word vision was not a part of the management lexicon. It might have been voiced by human potential psychologists, but it was rarely heard from business people and management scholars. Purpose was the acceptable term, not vision (Kouzes & Posner, 1987). But recently, vision has become an important discussion item for those involved in business.

In business, as in the previously noted areas, "vision" can mean different things to different people. Kouzes and Posner (1987) defined vision as "windows of the
world of tomorrow" (p. 89). Business leaders agreed that all businesses or projects, big and small, begin in the mind's eye. They begin with imagination and with the belief that what is really an image can one day be made real. They cite Mark Leslie, an entrepreneur, who sees vision as the key element: "If there is no vision, there is no business" (p. 83).

The word vision has also appeared in leadership literature. In this sense, it is applied to the ability of the leader to "see" direction for the organization. Bennis and Nanus (1985), for example, have studied the lives of 90 leaders and found that one of the key strategies was "attention through vision." Bennis and Nanus (1985) asserted:

To choose a direction a leader must first have developed a mental image of a possible and desirable future state of the organization. This image, which they call vision, may be as vague as a dream or as precise as a goal or mission statement. The critical point is that vision articulates a view of a realistic credible future for the organization, a condition which is better in some important ways than what now exists. (p. 85)

Vision is mentioned in corporate advertisements. Shearman/Lehman Brothers prepared an advertisement that read: "Vision is having an acute sense of the possible. It is seeing what others don’t see. And when those with similar visions come together, something extraordinary occurs" (Kouzes & Posner, 1987, p. 84).

Lundin and Lancaster (1990) related in their article "Beyond Leadership: The Importance of Followership" that
America's passionate and unremitting love affair with leadership can be attributed to the visionary, entrepreneurial spirit. They assume that "vision" is a quality of leadership and that without that vision they may miss information vital to the health and well-being of the organization.

Other definitions of vision abound in the literature. Some of these definitions are general while others are much more specific and often relate to a particular aspect. Mannasse (1985) provided a workable generic definition by describing vision as "the development, transmission, and implementation of a desirable future" (p. 150). Batsis (1987) perceived vision as more comprehensive than goals and objectives, because it allows one to see how these fit into the broader structure of the organization. Shieve and Shoenheit (1987) indicated that "a vision is a blueprint of a desired state. It is an image of a preferred condition that we work to achieve in the future" (p. 94).

Hickman and Silva (1984) described vision as a "journey from the known to the unknown . . . creating the future from a montage of facts, hopes, dreams . . . and opportunities" (p. 151).

Whereas Hickman and Silva described vision as a journey, Chance (1992) viewed vision as a destination. He defined vision as a "powerful force that guides, cajoles, directs, and facilitates accomplishments" (p. 52). He
observed that it cannot be touched, felt, or seen, but it is essential. It provides a sense of direction. Another interpretation of vision as viewed by Koru (1993) is purpose. She stated that educational leaders need a vision of the purpose of the organization, a vision of where the school is going, a rich and impassioned knowledge of curriculum and instruction, and the power to move others to commit to innovative solutions for the increasing educational needs of young people.

Kaufman and Herman (1991), planning consultants for school systems and experts in strategic planning, saw vision as mission. They asserted that "vision aspires to an ideal situation for the school system, even if the ideal seems out of reach in the near future" (p. 25).

As has been shown, the word vision fits into many traditions and many shades of meaning. The meanings are ideas, inspiration, ability to "see", standard, motivation and a guide. In this dissertation, the word vision means a work of the mind that is translated into action over a period of time, which empowers individuals to see what others have not and makes them implementors of change that may not be effected in their lifetimes, but helps them to understand how their actions relate to organizational goals and provides a sense of direction.

Vision means the ideas that teachers have for the future, the inspiration that teachers have received from
their former teachers, the ability to "see" beyond what others have seen, and the standard that teachers have set up for themselves whether they are attainable or not.

The Ideal Teacher

Many definitions for the term "ideal teacher" have been mentioned in the literature. Some authors have proposed definitions while others have conveyed meaning in the form of characteristics. Some authors use the term "ideal" to mean "exceptional," "expert," "outstanding," "exemplary," "veteran," "best," and "quality."

The ideal teacher concept may have been created from a number of sources by each individual. Thus the vision of the ideal teacher will vary from person to person. The phenomenon being addressed in this dissertation is that such ideals have been created in these teachers' minds motivating them to move in the direction of their visions whether they are attainable or not.

One of the sources from which such an ideal is developed is from former teachers. The ideal teachers did not set themselves up on a pedestal so that they could be admired by students. Their chief motive was to have success in their teaching. They measured their success by the success of their students. Parents, colleagues, administrators, and members of the community got to know these teachers from the reports made by students. They had a "desired future" they were working toward.
In reporting on a conversation between a novice and an expert teacher, Ryan and Cooper (1992) equated an ideal teacher to a good teacher. They recounted what the expert said about "good" teachers. He stated that most "good" teachers share some basic traits. They enjoy learning, have a genuine interest in the subjects they teach, are comfortable among young people, have an abundance of patience mixed with a bit of kindness, are optimistic, and are flexible and tolerant. He further stated that "good teachers are not always intellectually brilliant, but they possess a willingness to grow and are open to new ideas" (p. 8).

Many authors, referring to the ideal teacher, give definition to the concept by describing characteristics of those teachers. No matter which term is used to describe the teachers, the message is clear. People are influenced by teachers in a unique way. These teachers seem to know where they are going. They have a vision.

The State Department of Education (1986) of New York commissioned a Student Advisory Committee to compile a profile of an ideal teacher. After doing its research, the committee proposed that the findings could be placed into three categories: (1) personality, (2) teaching methods, and (3) student/teacher relationships. In this context, an ideal teacher is defined as "one with a personality which attracts student interest by its vivid, outgoing nature" (p.
1). The committee saw personality as the key factor in a teacher/student relationship and in student attentiveness in class. Being unique, the ideal teacher has a flair for individual eccentricities that energize the classroom, keeping the students actively participating, thereby canceling possibilities of student boredom.

A sense of humor, according to the research results, contributes to the ideal teacher's lively lesson and softens the tense atmosphere of the classroom. The ideal teacher is able to gain the friendships of students as a result of continuous charismatic and cheery mannerisms. One of the most important characteristics of the ideal teacher's personality is that the teacher cares about each student (Commissioner's Student Advisory Committee, 1986).

Another teacher, who was also a member of the Student Advisory Committee, felt that the kind of teachers students really learn to respect are those who will take time to care about the individual student, what he/she is learning, ask about the future goals of the student, and be concerned about what he/she is doing with his/her life (p. 1).

Parents were also interviewed on qualities they perceived were evident with an ideal teacher, and they gave the following characteristics: They expect teachers to teach their children and not blame low achievement on learning problems; they want well-planned lessons and a
well-organized curriculum; they want evidence of learning; they want their children to have an interesting school day; they want teachers to be well-educated, literate and well-spoken; they want teachers who care about their children and who see their own role as builders of children's confidence and egos; they want teachers to be adults of civility, maturity, and character (Paoni, 1989).

Paoni (1989) added that a substantial body of research now exists on what students consider important factors in effective teaching. He agreed with Feldman who reviewed a group of studies in which students were asked to describe "good" or "ideal" or "best" teachers. Eight characteristics were usually ranked high in all studies: concern for students; knowledge of subject matter; stimulation of interest; availability; encouragement of discussion; ability to explain clearly; enthusiasm; and preparation.

Leinhardt (1987), a senior scientist and associate professor of psychology at the University of Pittsburgh, Learning Research and Development Center, in assessing the results of "expert" teachers, asserted that although expert teachers do many of the same things well, they do not necessarily do them in the same way.

Expert teachers are characterized by Stock and Oxford (1993) as those who: (1) do not stop to deliberate when making certain decisions; (2) are deeply involved in
They reported that many schools have teachers who possess qualities that make them stand out from their colleagues. They have visions of what successful teaching should accomplish and the confidence and motivation to achieve their objectives. They also possess, or are able to develop, certain distinctive attitudes and behaviors: they take risks; they are aware of successful programs and approaches; they scrounge activities; they perceive teaching as a creative process; they demonstrate enthusiasm in their teaching; they develop feelings of success and self-esteem; they demonstrate leadership commitment by actively participating in professional organizations, offering workshops and presentations, working as mentors with other teachers, and working with student teachers; they beat their own drums.

In her report on information gathered through interviews of exceptional teachers, Maeroff (1991) found that exceptional teachers demonstrate initiative, creativity, and an exceptional degree of professionalism; are dedicated; are predominantly veterans of many years in
the classroom; believe in children; are idealists, dreamers who paradoxically are rooted in reality, men and women who never cease to imagine something better; are assertive, showing an uncanny ability to work with colleagues in order to learn something new or pool their abilities.

Glasser (1993) characterized the ideal teacher by using the synonym "quality." He defined quality as "anything we experience that is consistently satisfying to love, power, freedom, fun and survival" (p. 19). Some of the characteristics he proposed are: quality schoolteachers always lead, they never boss; quality schoolteachers are professionals; students need to know them and like them; teachers teach useful information, give quality school work, teach non-academic skills, and have concurrent evaluation.

Gabriel (1987), in summarizing the results of the "Promoting Great Teaching Conference," commented that the most intriguing theme dealt with personality characteristics of great teachers. The characteristics most often mentioned were enthusiasm, knowledge, and competency, stimulating and lively presentation, organization, willingness of self-disclosure, interest in improving the quality of teaching, and willingness to meet with students outside of class.

The concept that ideal teachers are different from other teachers in certain ways is supported in the literature. They share concerns with being asked to teach so many children and their inability to give each of them
sufficient attention, and feel that working conditions are inadequate and that there is not enough time to do all that they would like to do as teachers. Where outstanding teachers start to diverge is in dedication. Outstanding teachers tend to be extremely hardworking and highly committed, to transform the usual drudgery of the classroom into an enjoyable experience, to be "warm," "enthusiastic," and "accessible," to seem always willing to take on additional tasks even though they are the busiest, to achieve a standard of excellence, and, although they do things well, not necessarily to do them in the same way.

Many authors in describing "ideal teachers" have expressed that these teachers have plans that give focus to their visions. They know what they should accomplish and are motivated to achieve their goals. They are not afraid to dream and make dreams real by putting them into action.

Summary of Vision and the Ideal Teacher

The visions of ideal teachers draw them closer to students, motivate them to create a supportive environment for their students, provide new energy to do the creative things they want to do, and share the vision with their students and in collaborative activities with their colleagues. The vision of an ideal teacher is dynamic. It directs teachers to do powerful things. The vision of the ideal teacher conveys the meaning of what teachers see that is not physically present to ordinary, unaided perception.
It has the ability to get teachers out of their comfort zone to face the challenges of the future. It empowers those willing to change. It provides the impetus that schools need to make the transition from passive implementors of externally-developed policy to creators of meaning and purpose. It articulates an imaginative, probable, agreeable view of the future for the school, a condition that is better in some important ways than what now exists. Vision is looking through the veil of the future and seeing what others do not see. The teachers indicated that when teachers with a vision are drawn together, extraordinary things happen. They believe that teachers with a vision tend to be hardworking and highly committed and always seem willing to take on additional tasks even though they are the busiest. The teachers think that whereas other teachers may give up and surrender to overwhelming odds, those with visions persevere. The teachers indicated that teachers with a vision are idealists--dreamers--who paradoxically are also rooted in reality, yet who do not cease to imagine something better.

This dissertation does not attempt to determine what the ideal teacher is, but to describe what the ideal teacher is for the persons interviewed and observed. The focus is that ideal teachers have visions that are created from a number of sources. These ideals have been set up for themselves, and consequently, vary from person to person.
The teachers create visions in their minds that motivate them to achieve whatever level is identified in this ideal teachers' vision. Whether the vision is attainable or not, it is something that motivates teachers in a certain direction. If a person has low expectations of his/her ideal teacher, then that teacher would be motivated in a different way than a person who has high ideals.

Ideal teachers are especially talented in teaching and in getting students to work to their highest potentials. Students are usually drawn to them and sometimes credit them with whatever success they achieve. Ideal teachers usually bring out the best in their students. Their being ideal is not determined by them, but by their students.
CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Vision is a popular term used in educational, medical, and business organizations of recent years. Books, magazines, and journals have carried numerous accounts of the value of vision as a tool for planning for the future. Related to vision are other factors that have to be considered that influence plans for the future. Some of these factors relating to vision are visioning, goal clarification, values clarification, personal mission, self-fulfilling prophecy. Each of these factors relates to the choices individuals make about the future. Teachers, especially, incorporate these factors in their decisions on teaching. Literature that details the psychological discussion on mental imaging and its effect on a person, and the literature relating to how and why teachers were inspired to teach, is a part of the first section.

Most of the literature relating to vision refers to organizations and administrators; very little is found specifically about teachers' visions. Visions of school administrators are important, but for this study, teachers'
personal visions are even more important. These personal visions determine the strategies used by the teacher, how teachers face challenges, and how teachers relate to educational change, professional development, and state and school policies.

**Vision and Visioning**

**Vision**

In discussing the topic "Building a Shared Vision: The Principal's Leadership Challenge," Buell (1992) enunciated that for schools to be effective, they need effective leaders who express their values. These values, she contended, must become shared goals so that the entire school community shares a vision. The leaders discussed by the author seem to have a characteristic in common: They have a vision for the school, a vision of which all members of the school community are aware.

The reason why vision is so important (Chance & Grady, 1991) is because it is a crucial aspect of leadership that not only calls for excellence, but establishes an educational environment and culture in which this can be achieved. Chance and Grady (1991) further stated that vision guides the schools' administrators, faculty, students, and support staff. Because expectations, goals, and purposes are clear, vision helps establish the climate of the school. The use of vision in this context does not rely on who possesses the vision, but on how their actions
are governed by images of the future. The teachers know where they are going. They know how to get others to accept the visions as theirs.

Chance (1992) argued that there is no single definition, no item analysis, no magic formula, and no one book that has recounted how vision is formed, activated, or sustained. However, there is evidence that indicates widespread support that vision is clearly the force or dream towards which effective administrators continually strive in the shaping of their school district, individual site, or organization (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980; Kouzes & Posner, 1987; Manasse, 1985; Rutherford, 1985; Shieve & Shoenheit, 1987).

Chance continued that administrators confronted by a multitude of tasks, economic restrictions, reform mandates, and increased community concerns must have strong visions if schools are to achieve success. His opinion is that if reform is to take place in schools, a clear understanding must be had of the organizational complexity of the local school. Without a clear focus on what the local school should be, he explained, there is no vision. His reasons for an educational vision are closely tied to the structure of the schools as well as the rapidity of the changes in today’s society. He noted that society as it is known today will not be the society of the future.
Chance (1992) further pointed out that even though the typical student of today is different from the student of 20 years ago, schools as organizations, except for minor differences, have remained essentially the same and that, he believes, cannot continue into the 21st century. He warned that schools and school administrators must recognize and acknowledge the need for change and to develop the visions to do so.

A vision begins at a very personal level with an individual leader. If a personal vision does not exist and if effective leadership does not attempt to actualize the vision, then the result is often organizational chaos as multiple goals are haphazardly pursued or organizational malaise occurs as the maintenance of the status quo becomes the primary motive of the organization. The leader and his/her role in the development of a vision has been identified as crucial to organizational effectiveness (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Block, 1987; Grady & LeSourd, 1988).

In an effort to clarify developing a personal vision, Chance (1992) noted that a person’s vision essentially represents one’s dream of what could be in an organization or school. A person’s vision is uniquely owned by the individual who develops it and is not confined or restricted by organizational realities. It is a unique view of the future that directly reflects personal beliefs and values. The research has emphasized again and again that
strong personal values are a key in the development of a well-thought-out vision (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Manasse, 1985; Rutherford, 1985; Shieve & Shoenheit, 1987). Recognition of one’s values is important in developing a personal vision because the vision directly reflects the values of the person who develops it.

Ovard (1990) declared that never in the history of education has so much been expected from the principal. As a manager, the principal is expected to do things right, and as a learner to do all the right things. All this requires a clear vision. But, said he, "the playing field is muddy" (p. 1). He expressed that when the field gets muddy, someone must have vision and provide direction. Vision, to him, is not simply following the crowd, joining the popular crowd of today, but is doing the right things for the right reasons.

Vision has been identified as a critical factor in effective leadership and communicating the leader’s vision to the staff is essential for realizing the vision (Bolster, 1989). Parker (1991) supported the importance of sharing the vision by stating, "When the vision is shared people are more likely to take responsibility; they are more likely to challenge the bounds of convention. By having a shared vision, new ways of thinking and acting are inhibited by the pull of the status quo" (p. 3).
In the context of military leadership, Archibald (1991) addressed the issue of strategic visioning as both a concept and a process. He defined vision in this context as the military leader’s mental picture of the desired characteristics of the organization he or she commands at some point in the future. In essence, he clarified, it is the desired future state. The commander’s intent for the outcome of an imminent battle and philosophy of command are examples of vision with which most war-college students have common experience. Strategic visions, he said, differ from these in that they are created by the executive or the strategic (four-star level) leader. To the Army’s Chief of Staff, vision applies to what he thinks the Army ought to look like at some point many years into the future.

Archibald (1991) held the view that there is no doubt that the very best of visions are usually simple, intrinsically energizing, and memorable. They also result in a very successful organizational performance in the long term. While most other aspects of visioning can be progressively developed in any leader, the genius aspect, he contends, may require more art than science.

Successful visions have in common a strategic leader whose personal involvement in the implementation of the vision causes the person to become synonymous with it. The strategic leader must be the champion of the vision. The person talks the vision in every speech, makes every
decision within the vision's context, and becomes a symbol of the vision. If strong and tough are elements of the vision, it would make sense that the strategic military leader would look fit, talk about fitness, and work out regularly and visibly. Many CEOs have undertaken doing their own television commercials for the purpose of personally championing their visions. This sort of activity is critical to mobilizing the commitment inside and outside the organization required to achieve the vision.

Nanus (1992) articulated that educational institutions, at every level, from kindergarten to universities, also need to play a role in the creation of future visionary leaders. He has called for individuals who have influence at the school or college to help rethink academic agendas. He stated that schools now spend most of their time conveying knowledge, socializing students into the norms of the larger society, and developing critical, analytical, and communication skills—all of these are important to visionary leaders, but a vital missing link is problem-finding, as opposed to problem-solving, skills. It is no longer enough for students to master the received knowledge and wisdom of their elders. If they are to be visionary leaders, they need to be able to break with the past and synthesize new directions. Instead of conducting experiments or analyzing problems with known solutions,
students need to learn how to design their own experiments and how to conceptualize and address new problems.

A compelling vision can pull individuals and organizations to their desired futures (Land & Jarman, 1992). Land and Jarman stated that vision and purpose are as important to individuals as they are for nations and organizations. When an organization lacks a compelling purpose, its people cannot help but be uninspired. On the one hand, a leader committed to a forceful vision focuses the energies of the entire organization. They added that no one with a compelling purpose and a great vision knows exactly how it will be achieved. One has to be willing to follow an unknown path, allowing the road to take the person where it will. Surprise, serendipity, uncertainty, and the unexpected are guaranteed on the way to the future.

Purpose, vision and values furnish the internal reference point for making choices and connections in a complex and rapidly changing world. They endow the individual and the organization with direction to be pulled to the future (Land & Jarman, 1992). Lambert (1995) affirmed that vision and purpose are the "pull" toward the future. She advised that educational leaders today need a sense of purpose that enables them to forge a common vision with members of the educational community, and they need the moral commitment to stay with the purpose when challenges
become difficult and work demands threaten to fragment lives.

Values and vision are closely related, declared Holmes (1993). He expressed that since values and vision are so closely related, and since vision implies values, there are important lessons to be learned by school leaders. School leaders, he continued, cannot succeed, nor can the school, unless they are clear about the values that are driving the school's vision. A "leap of faith" makes the connection between vision, values, and leadership, which cannot be done as an intellectual exercise. Leaders are expected to articulate not only what they believe, but also to interpret it to others. School leaders are advised that if they want their school's vision to be distinctive and meaningful to them it must reflect real values rather than "sanitized consensus" (p. 27).

In spite of all the rhetoric about vision, Parker (1991) argued if the vision of the school is not articulated in practice then it is meaningless. The life of that school must embody the vision and bring it alive, and the school leader is the catalyst. In order for the vision to be realized, goals have to be set. Information follows on how goals relate to vision.

Goal Articulation

Herr and Kramer (1992) proposed that "a dream becomes a goal when you start to make it come true" (p. 11).
Kramer (1992) contended that all of us have dreams about the future and what we want. And it is assumed that all of us have goals, too, but it is just that some people do not know the difference. The difference Kramer noted between a goal and a dream is that a dream is something one wants and is willing to achieve. She conceived of goals as symbols of real things one will have one day if one is successful. When people set goals, they are making an appointment with themselves. They are saying that they want certain things to happen at a certain future place and time. Another difference she emphasized between a dream and a goal is that the dreamer imagines and the goal-setter acts.

Some of the dreams, she stated, that people have are personal dreams, career dreams--our self-fulfillment. People dream of what they want to be, the job they want. But there are some dreams that are a part of the fate of others. One example is that some people may be committed to an "ideal" or a "vision" of the way the world should be. The right dreams, she disclosed, can inspire when one feels like giving up, and when one believes in one's dreams one believe in oneself.

Kramer (1992) has written especially for the high-school audience, but the information can benefit other individuals as well. She advised that dreaming, planning, thinking, searching, discussing, and questioning are all ways to start to explore choices. She concluded her book...
with an apt quote from an unknown poet who knew how to make things happen (p. 58):

Only as high as I reach can I grow,
Only as far as I seek can I go
Only as deep as I look can I see,
Only as much as I dream can I be.

Setting and reaching goals helps a person to focus on the best place to be in life. Without goals, it is easy to become distracted in the journey towards success. Knowing the difference between striving for goals and drifting along often separates winners from near misses (Kennedy & Larramore, 1993). From the beginning of time, successful people have realized that if one does not know where one is going, one will not wind up any place one recognizes. Kennedy quoted Zig Ziglar, a well-known motivational speaker, who noted in his book, *See You at the Top*, that while it is safer not to set goals and risk being embarrassed in front of friends, it would also be safer for a ship to stay in port or a plane to stay on the ground. But the ship would collect barnacles and become a bucket of bolts in the harbor, and the plane would rust and fall apart on the ground.

Kennedy (1991) had the opinion that a wise but realistic goal is one that makes the person reach and stretch, and one that people have at least a 50-50 chance of achieving. The biggest difference between winners who reach their goals and those who do not is in goal selection. He revealed that goal-reachers aim neither impossibly high nor
inspiringly low. They think carefully about the kinds of goals they set and calculate the risks involved in reaching them. Teachers' personal visions play a major role in realizing those goals. Teachers' philosophies, values, and purposes will be reflected in their personal visions.

**Personal Vision**

In articulating his personal vision of a good school, Barth (1990b) conveyed that the vision of educators are badly needed in efforts to improve schools. He indicated that for several years he has been struggling to clarify and articulate his own vision of what makes a good school. He had "discussed," "analyzed," and "celebrated" personal visions of a good school with many schools officials on many occasions. Little by little--from those conversations, from his own work in school, from visits to other schools, and from reading, writing, and teaching--the important pieces of his vision have emerged.

Sashkin & Walberg (1993) advanced that effective school leaders must be able to conceive of a vision, a cultural ideal, for a school. They must be able to generate school-wide support for visions by involving others in articulating a philosophy that summarizes visions and by creating policies and programs that turn the philosophy into action. He claimed that such visionary action is not easy, conceptually or behaviorally. Yet it is only through the
actions of visionary principals that educators can attain ideal effective school.

Effective visionary leaders put their visions into practice by means of their own specific interpersonal behaviors on a one-to-one basis. Sashkin & Walberg (1993) summarized five important sets of behaviors for visionary leaders. They effect their visions through effective communication practices (such as active listening, the effective use of feedback, and asking questions well). A second set of actions centers on expressing visions (or important elements of visions) in unusual, exciting, and attention-grabbing ways. Third, visionary leaders are consistent in their actions: They do not "waffle," lie, or change positions easily; they are seen as reliable and worthy of a high degree of trust. The fourth set of actions relates with exhibiting and expressing respect for oneself and for others, making one's own self-confidence clear to others, and making others feel valued, especially with respect to their roles in carrying out the leader's vision. Finally, visionary leaders act to create risks that organization members can buy into and share, both in action and outcome. These, they indicated, are not unrealistic or long-shot risks but are sensible, with high but not unattainable goals. There is research evidence that leaders who act in the ways just described are seen by their subordinates as "charismatic" (Sashkin & Fulmer, 1987), and
this is an important factor in the visionary leader’s ability to mobilize the members of the organization to carry out the leader’s vision and make it real.

In their efforts to define vision, Conley et al. (1992) proposed that "vision" in and of itself presents problems for investigators. The reasons they give for the problem is that the word is not easily defined or operationalized. In some respects, they contend its definition seems analogous to that offered for art: people may not be able to articulate what makes something art, but they recognize it when they see it. Similarly, writers on the topic and participants in the process respond that they seem to understand more or less intuitively what vision is when they see it.

Vision is often identified as one of the most desirable leadership qualities, and the literature frequently discusses the importance of visioning. But individuals often fail to fully appreciate it (Leffel, 1993). Leffel’s understanding of its importance deepened appreciably when she was serving on a university-wide leadership task force to define its organizational culture. It became apparent in the process that vision was in the hearts and minds of the staff at all levels--from groundkeeper to president.

Leffel (1993) found it useful to compare visioning to the visualization process used by athletes to improve
performance for which they are striving. They see the
details in their minds. The process, she suggested, has
dramatically improved performance. From that scenario she
has deduced that a vision can also have very practical
benefits for improved organizational effectiveness and for
initiating and implementing change. In giving a reason why
vision leads to action, Leffel noted that vision forces
people to look to the future in a different way. As
athletes visualize their desired future performance, so
leaders must focus on the desired future performance.

**Goal-Setting**

Teachers must set goals in order to move in the
direction of, or attain the vision. Setting goals gives a
person specific details of how to attain different aspects
of the vision. Teachers with a vision set attainable goals.

Goals are supposed to provide blueprints for action
(Linneman, 1970). Linneman listed several rules that must
be remembered in establishing specific goals. First, a goal
should be measurable. It should be an intended outcome,
and/or describe what the person will be doing when the goal
is reached. He established eight rules that are to be
followed in establishing goals.

1. Goals should be set for things one really wants
to achieve.

2. Goals should be specific.
3. Goals should be set for every area in which performance and results significantly affect happiness.
4. Goals should be ranked in order of preference.
5. Goals should be visionary, yet believable.
6. Goals should be tailor-made.
7. Goals should be committed to writing.
8. Goals should not be considered irrevocable.

He advised that these principles must be kept in mind while developing goals.

Goals are viewed from another perspective by LeBoeuf (1987). In discussing the topic Imagineering, LeBoeuf defined it as "letting your imagination sour and then engineer it back to earth." He explained that imagineering is a great description of the creative process. LeBoeuf found that goal setting was the first step in the "imagineering" process. Le Boeuf believes that goal setting is vital to creativity. Goals are important to him for a variety of reasons: (1) They fill a basic human need, (2) they are reasons for doing or being, and (3) they lead to goal achievement which leads to satisfaction and pride. Satisfaction and pride boost self-confidence and self-confidence leads one to set loftier goals. LeBouef continued to explain that setting goals gives one a point of direction. For one to actualize the goal he/she has chosen, it is necessary to spark the imagination and ignite the creative abilities.
Blanchard and Peale (1988) made sharp distinctions between purpose and goals. A goal is something tangible. It is something definite that a person wants to accomplish. A purpose is on-going. It gives meaning and definition to lives. The metaphor used by Blanchard and Peale (1988) is that of a particular road that one chooses to travel. A goal is one of the places one intends to visit on that road. Purpose is the kind of picture a person has of oneself--the kind of person one wants to be or the kind of life one wants to lead.

In making the distinction between purpose and goal, Blanchard (1993) described purpose as on-going. It cannot be achieved. One cannot accomplish one’s purpose in life. One can only continue to work on it and get one’s life congruent with it. In elaborating on his distinction, Blanchard stated that purpose gets expressed in a mission statement, which is like a call to action, something one can put one’s energy towards. Values are an integral part of vision. To remove what is of most worth to teachers is like missing a component of the vision.

Values Clarification

Values are expressed in everything people do. Values clarification is also another of the factors that cannot be separated from vision. A person’s values cannot be divorced from his/her vision.
Teachers' values are an integral part of their visions. Values are the things that are important to individuals. Values are woven into every decision made by teachers personally, and they transmit these values to their students. Teachers with a vision understand not only what is important to them, but help students to clarify their own values, especially in their choices of a career.

Values clarification is a "means of helping students in self understanding, goal-setting, and decision-making by examining their values" (Hart, 1975, p. 82). Blanchard (1993) defined values as something people assigned pleasure to, something they wanted to move towards, something they held dear to their hearts.

The process and goal of values clarification seem particularly well-suited to the career decision-making component of career guidance and counseling programs. Barraclough (1994) presumed that people can make much better choices when they have spent the time examining what is important to them.

Values clarification represents one way of becoming more aware of one's values. Brown and Brooks (1991) believed that the first of the three steps in the process of career counseling was to "develop awareness of self" (p. 3).

More recently, Herr and Cramer (1992) have espoused the importance of clarifying clients' values. Upon reviewing the research by Cochran (1986), they stated, "Such
perspectives lead to the validity of considering work values and their clarification as a major function of career guidance for senior high school students" (p. 410). Also, when the authors list activities that can be used in career guidance and counseling of college students, they specifically mention the values clarification exercises.

Less specifically, Herr and Cramer (1992) added to a list of goals for career guidance in higher education the following: "Reasonable career choices cannot be made by individuals who do not have a fairly clear notion of who they are, their strengths and weaknesses, what they value, their motivations, their psychological characteristics" (p. 467). Goals and values are directly related to career choice. Goals and values are vehicles through which visions are achieved.

Career Clarification

The careers people choose are important in giving meaning to their lives and that of others. Teachers have a unique role to play in career clarification. They show by their actions that they enjoy what they are doing, as well as play a role indirectly in helping students choose a career well-suited to them.

Rayman (1993) defined career development as a critically important component of human development—a process that takes place from approximately age 4 until death. In discussing the importance of career development,
he stated that if one asks a group of 100 people the single question, "Who are you?" that approximately 95% will respond in terms of what they do for a living. They will say, "I’m an engineer, or "I’m a . . . " Rayman thinks that most people define who they are in terms of their occupations. Another importance of career development is that to the extent that people enjoy "mental health" they are usually successful and satisfied careerwise. He stated that he is not proposing a cause-effect relationship here, but the correlation that exists suggests that quality career development and mental health go hand in hand. He felt strongly that career development is far too important to leave to chance, and yet an alarming percentage makes career choices by default. Modern-day career development and placement services’ goal is to teach young people the skills that they will need not only to get their first job and successfully make the transitions from college to the world of work, but also to skillfully and efficiently make subsequent transitions from job to job throughout the course of their lives in an ever-increasingly complex and rapidly changing economy. An individual’s career is related to what he/she hopes to achieve in the future. It gives a person a sense of accomplishment.
Self-Fulfilling Prophecy

Teachers with a vision have high expectations for their students. The confidence or lack of confidence that teachers place in students' ability to achieve, influences the students' motivation and performance. If they have high expectations, students usually are eager to attain those high ideals. If they have low expectations, some students limit their performance based on teachers' expectations. Teachers with a vision help students to develop a good image of themselves that may help in student performance.

Duda and Nicholls (1992) theorized that in the post-modern view, scientific and personal theories of the way the world operates are intimately linked to the goals or purposes of those who construct them. This position is consistent with the ecological approach to social perception (McArthur & Baron, 1983) and the intentional approach to thought and action (Dennett, 1977), which share the assumption that people's thoughts and actions are related to their goals in a rational fashion.

Recent research has confirmed that effective leaders have the ability to create high performance expectations that their employees fulfill (Richardson, 1988). He explained that what managers think of themselves and their abilities is crucial to their effectiveness. Warren Bennis and Burt Nanus (1985) reached a similar conclusion after
conducting some 90 interviews with CEOs and top public administrators. They wrote:

Our studies of effective leaders strongly suggested that a key factor was . . . what we’re calling . . . positive self-regard . . . . Positive self-regard seems to exert its force by creating in others a sense of confidence and high expectations, not very different from the fabled Pygmalion effect. (p. 9)

Richardson (1988) found that managers cannot avoid the depressing cycle of events that flow from low expectations by merely hiding their feelings from subordinates. If managers believe subordinates will perform poorly, it is virtually impossible for them to mask their expectations because the message usually is communicated unintentionally, without conscious action on their parts. He continued that indeed managers communicate most when they believe they are communicating least. For instance, when they say nothing--become cold and uncommunicative--it is usually a sign that they are displeased by a subordinate or believe that he or she is hopeless. The silent treatment communicates negative feelings more effectively, at times, than a tongue-lashing does. What seems to be critical in the communication of expectations is not what the boss says so much as the way he or she behaves. Indifferent and non-committal treatment, more often than not, is the kind of treatment that communicates low expectations and leads to poor performance. Incidentally, Richardson (1988) explained, the same pattern occurs in schools. Rosenthal’s experiments with educational self-fulfilling prophecies
demonstrate that teachers' expectations are more effective in influencing intellectual growth in younger children than in older children. In the lower grade levels, particularly in the first and second grades, the effects of teachers' expectations are dramatic. In the upper grade levels, teachers' prophecies seem to have little effect on children's intellectual growth, although they do affect their motivation and their attitude toward school. While the declining influence of teachers cannot be explained, it is reasonable to conclude that younger children are more malleable, have few fixed notions about their abilities, and have less established reputations in the schools. As they grow, particularly as they are assigned to "tracks" on the basis of their records as is now often done in public schools, their beliefs about their intellectual ability and their teachers' expectations of them begin to harden and become more resistant to change (Richardson, 1988).

Self-fulfilling prophecy processes enable people to confirm their negative expectancies for others (Neuberg, Judice, Virdin, & Carrillo, 1993). Social encounters are often colored by what one expects others to be like. Indeed, under certain circumstances, expectancy influences may be so profound as to lead people to conclude that others neatly fit their expectancies, when in fact they do not (Neuburg et al., 1993).
Campbell and Simpson (1992) formulated some key principles of the self-fulfilling prophecy for their training/learning process: Trainers form expectations of trainees, they communicate those expectations with various cues, trainees tend to respond to these cues by adjusting their behavior to match them, and the result is that the original expectations become true. These principles are aimed at trainers as well as classroom teachers. The focus of the guide was on how trainers'/teachers' behavior towards students influences the outcome of training, with high expectations leading to high performance and vice versa. These high or low expectations depend on the type of image that individuals have of themselves and others and the vision that is formulated as a result.

**Mental Imaging and Its Effects**

**Mental Imaging**

Vision is first an exercise of the mind. A mental image is formed which forces the teacher into some kind of action. Teachers with a vision first image what they hope to achieve and work towards making that image a reality. The ability to image is a creative process. Visionary teachers are creative individuals. Teachers are able to motivate their students by using the imaging process to enhance student learning.

Mental imaging, or visualization as it is sometimes called, is the process of seeing pictures in the mind as
much as one might actually view them on a movie or television screen, with the sights, sounds, and tactile stimuli nearly as vivid as any real scenario (McKinney, 1987). McKinney’s purpose for conducting the research on imaging was to determine differences in gains, if any, on the composition scores for students who received relaxation and mental-imaging training versus composition scores for students who did not receive the training using the ESL Composition Profile sheet as a grading instrument.

McKinney related that there are two types of imagery: external imagery (seeing oneself perform) and internal or kinesthetic imagery (feeling, sensing, experiencing the performance within). Very often these types of imagery are used as a single technique, but Start and Richardson (1964) tested the two separately. Results from the vividness of imagery test revealed that subjects with vivid, controlled images using either kind of imagery experience performed better than subjects with uncontrolled or non-vivid images.

More recently, mental imaging has been associated with improved performance in skiing (McWhirter & McWhirter, 1983), running (Hickman et al., 1978), strength and endurance tests (Weinberg, Jackson, & Seabourne, 1985), karate (Seabourne, Weinberg, & Jacobson, 1984), tennis (Noel, 1980), Olympic weight lifting (Shelton & Mahoney, 1978) and performing arts (McWhirter & McWhirter, 1983). In
these studies, athletes went through relaxation exercises and then were instructed to image themselves as vividly as possible performing their skill successfully, being aware of all the sensations and feelings in their bodies as they pictured the performance. The studies showed positive evidence that performance is improved with relaxation and mental-imaging exercises.

Mental imaging has also been used in the field of education to facilitate the memory process. Imaging has been found to be helpful in other areas of education as well. Visualizing the material to be learned has facilitated comprehension and retention in math, reading, and science. Mental imaging has also been linked to creativity (McKinney, 1985).

With visualization, one can use the "mind’s eye" for marathon success. Glover (1988) conveyed that getting ready for any marathon takes plenty of mental preparation, especially the highly-hyped, fully-energized New York City marathon experience. To help, many runners use visualization, a mental game allows them to run the race in their heads. This can be thought of as a dress rehearsal for success.

Visualization can be broken down into a three-step process:

1. Set a goal and create a positive self-image.
2. Achieve a state of deep relaxation.
3. Imagine succeeding.

Visual metaphors are linguistically evident everywhere in ordinary speech, for example, terms such as "imagination," "visionary," "reflection," "insight," and perspective." However, when one confines one’s attention to the greatest and most original in the arts and sciences, one is struck by the frequent references to visual modes of thought. Investigators of the creative process have often made reference to the central role of visual modes of thought, although this emphasis has varied over time (Foster & Porter, 1988). However, in comparatively recent times this mode of thought has been given increased attention by professional students of the mind (Foster & Potter, 1988).

Vision for Blanchard (1993) means something that is to be attained in the future. He proposed that there are three parts of a vision---purpose, values, and image. Purpose is the reason for being. Values are beliefs one has that one holds dear to one’s heart. An image is the result of both purpose and values in terms of what it all looks like and what is going to happen when it is all put together. After one has set up goals consistent with the vision, the next step is to image where one is going, image seeing oneself accomplishing something, and one will get there sooner. Blanchard further proposed that one of the best ways that one sets oneself up for accomplishment is to see oneself accomplishing the goal almost before one gets
there. And if a person images where one is going and sees oneself accomplishing the goal, one can get there sooner. Teachers also visualize what they expect from students and the future state of their teaching experience. They work towards this future in dynamic ways.

**Relationship of Visualization to Vision**

In discussing the 10 keys in making champions of children, Covey (1991) emphasized, "We teach our children to visualize to help them realize their potential" (p. 148). He stated that visualization is based on the principle that all things are created twice: first mentally and then physically. He explained that world-class athletes are all visualizers; they literally experience their victories in their minds long before they experience them in fact. When he started to work with his son in this area, he taught him how to relax and then described in vivid detail different situations in a football game. He reported that his son would see himself performing ideally in each situation.

Krannich (1991), in his treatise on "Careering and Re-careering for the 1990s," voiced that whether people realize it or not, they have some image of the future that influences important decisions in their lives. Individuals orient themselves to the future in different ways. Some people always view the future pessimistically. They find numerous reasons for doing what they always do, for example, not taking risky actions. Others fantasize about the future
and "hope" a prosperous future will come to them without taking action or risking the unknown. And others set goals and work toward achieving an image of the future.

**Literature Relating to Vision of Teachers**

Research on teachers and their reflections on how and why they have become teachers, is not abundant in the educational literature. Numerous articles have been written on what teachers are not doing right. The experiences cited in this section focus on teachers' reminiscences of how their visions of teaching developed as a result of the experiences they had with their former teachers. Teachers also articulate how that inspiration has followed them through the years in the choice of a profession and the decision to continue in their teaching careers.

An initial search of the literature uncovered scattered discussions about how the teachers visions of "ideal" teachers motivate them to become teachers and influenced their teaching. Evidence of this phenomenon is tucked away in the corners of many sources. Some of these sources are (1) books containing studies and theoretical constructs about teaching and teachers, (2) teacher narratives of personal experiences, and (3) articles in journals and magazines about teaching and teachers.

Book, Byers, and Freeman (1983), in a study conducted on first-year teachers, concluded that teacher beliefs are shaped more by their experiences as students
than by their experiences in teacher preparation. Other educators concluded that it is the cooperating teacher during student teaching who serves as the primary influence and that the intellectual grounding from teacher-preparation programs is easily abandoned as first-year teachers model their cooperating teachers.

Some authors discuss and describe the phenomenon that the vision of the "ideal" teacher impacts teachers. Goodlad (1984) purported that regardless of the discouraging influence of friends and even some teachers, large numbers of future teachers speak of the positive influence on their decision exerted by some of their former teachers. In his book *Teachers for Our Nation's Schools*, Goodlad noted what one teacher commented: "As a child, I had a lot of good teachers, and they inspired me to get into teaching" (Goodlad, 1990).

In the narrative accounts they give about life in school, teachers refer to personal and biographical factors that have etched the memories of veteran teachers on their minds. These personal and biographical factors have influenced them to the extent that those teachers' professional practices have led to in some way to their decisions to teach (Goodson, 1992).

One such individual, according to Goodson, was Lloyd, a student with a language problem. His first years of school were very difficult. He remembers having to
struggle and agonize over simple concepts. But this changed significantly in the fifth grade:

My struggles as a student were nearly at an end after the fifth grade, thanks to a kind, young, and energetic lady who brought everything together for me and made me into a conscientious student. Mrs. Hunt taught in a very structured manner, was sensitive to our needs as students, and always had interesting lessons, however basic. She had many motivational techniques and was probably the single most important factor in my appreciation for handwriting, reading, neatness, and order. To this day, I attempt to influence my students to do likewise. (pp. 71-72)

Goodson (1992) also recorded how a social studies teacher in one high school had a tremendous influence on a student’s attitude. That student was Glenda. Glenda gives her account of how that vision has impacted her teaching:

It was in Aoki’s class that I realized that all interesting bits of information that I had read about other cultures was personal and human... I learned that all events affected me because I was a member of humanity. It seemed that everything that was taught in Ted Aoki’s class had meaning in my life... Ted Aoki was able to inspire me with his knowledge and ideals because he was sincere and caring that we learned and understood. He was more than a model for me of what a teacher should be, he has often been my conscience. (p. 82)

Ayers (1989), in his book *The Good Preschool Teacher*, cited the experience of Michelle, who was influenced by an "ideal" teacher:

Miss Harper was strict, but she could be fun-loving underneath her no-nonsense exterior. We all knew she liked us, ... but I think she especially took care of the black kids, a mission I felt I would continue in my work today. It’s hard to confront racism when everyone denies its existence and skirts the issue. Miss Harper was different. She fought the system in a quiet way. She fought for kids to make it. So in fifth grade, I decided to become a teacher. (p. 91)
Another teacher shares her ideas of a veteran principal, whose words of wisdom have guided her in and out of school and have influenced her teaching. In their article "A Teacher Code of Ethics: Defining What Students Can Expect," Calabrese and Nunn (1993) related this experience:

I remember my best teacher. She made me feel good about myself even when the going was rough. She consistently provided appropriate opportunities to learn. There were others who guided me along the way and ultimately rejoiced in my accomplishments. I want to reflect that gift by giving it to others. (p. 54)

"Teachers make a school, not money," aptly describes the teacher with a vision of the "ideal" teacher. Lipsitz (1984) supported that statement from the experience given by another teacher:

Dennis Littky taught me about myself and kids. I became an outstanding teacher because of him. He encouraged me everyday and gave me the strength to go on. He believed in being humane to kids. He made us solid about who we are. (p. 158)

Schubert and Ayers (1992), in their book Teacher Lore, affirmed that teachers influence students' lives. Fred Smart was mesmerized by his mentor, Mrs. Gallagher. He attributed his empathetic regard for students to her. Mrs. Gallagher is made vivid through Fred's words and memories:

I had one teacher in high school, Mrs. Gallagher, she had to be, perhaps, one of the more classic, beautiful women that I have ever known. . . . She made literature and English vivid for you. And you come to enjoy every class. . . . What I tried to put into my classroom, that I got from her, is that sense of excitement about everything. (p. 92)
Another experience cited by Schubert and Ayers (1992) focuses on a university student who studied German with a professor who had recommended him for his tutoring job. He started out with a science major but eventually dropped it, studied with the professor, and enrolled in education courses. As Alan related:

"Without thinking what I was doing, what I sort of ended up doing was copying him, Professor Reinhardt. He was very personable, and he really cared about his kids. He also knew about his students. He had met my wife... and always talked about my son, and all the things that normally, especially in a university setting, professors really don't pay attention to, he did. Now it was easier for him, because the German classes were small. But he still didn't have to do it. The tutoring experience, and then being with him, caused me to become a good teacher. I never had thoughts of going into teaching before that." (p. 92)

Liebermann and Miller (1984) explained that behind the classroom door, where teachers meet youth, is where formal education takes place. The preceding experiences give evidence to the fact that it is the teacher who is in the key position to foster learning. The teachers' vision of the ideal teacher makes these experiences possible.

Many teachers have talked about someone who has influenced them to become teachers. There seems to be some commonalities among these teachers. They know the direction in which they are going. They have the ability to look into the future and "see" what other teachers do not. They seem to have a vision that empowers them to implement meaningful plans and activities for their students and for the good of the school in which they work. They have a rationale for
the decisions they make, even though others may not understand why they make those decisions. They have mapped out a plan in their minds and are willing to work toward that plan. These teachers with a vision share their ideas with students, colleagues, and other individuals connected with the school. Teachers with a vision are idealists. They are not afraid to imagine things that will eventually become something real to them, their students, and their school. When these teachers with a vision are drawn together, they make extraordinary things happen in a school. They are not afraid to fail. They are risk-takers.

Parkay and Stanford (1992) proposed that anyone who aspires to become a teacher should have a personal vision—a sense of what he or she values and is committed to. As Ronald Barth (1990a) observed in *Improving Schools From Within*, vision and a sense of purpose can help one to respond to the complex realities of school life:

[The] lives of teachers, principals, and students are characterized by brevity, fragmentation, and variety. During a school day, for instance, a teacher or principal engages in several hundred interactions. A personal vision provides a framework with which to respond and to make use of many prescriptions and conceptions of others. Without a vision, I think our teachers' behaviors become reflexive, inconsistent, and shortsighted as we seek the action that will most quickly put out the fire so we can get on with putting out the next one. (p. 35)

Extensive research was done to look for evidence of such teachers in the analysis of written sources. Some evidence was found of teachers relating experiences of
former teachers who have influenced them. These teachers were able to describe their ideal teachers and articulate how those teachers have influenced them. What was not found in the literature search was evidence of teachers describing their visions or the teachers crediting their success in teaching to those visions.

Bolman and Deal (1994), in their studies on teacher leadership, noted that the everyday world of the classroom presents a complex series of challenges, puzzles, interruptions, and assorted frustrations. Sometimes they are punctuated equally by moments of joy, laughter, energy, and exhilaration. The dynamics inside the classroom are tough enough. In order for teachers to cope with all those pressures, they need to organize vague, confusing, and messy symptoms of life in schools into a meaningful pattern so that they can choose the right thing to do. Bolman and Deal seem to agree that teachers with a vision are ordinary teachers whose insights motivate them to do extraordinary things.

In diagnosing the situation they encounter every day, teachers draw on the experiences that they have acquired over a lifetime. These experiences give teachers a set of lenses that they can use to define and frame reality for themselves inside and outside of their classroom. Even though sometimes their lenses are off the target, they still have to use them, because they give order to confusion and
let them act rather than lapse into paralysis (Bolman & Deal, 1994).

These "visionaries" (teachers) seemed to have been formulating their visions based on their experiences encountered from grade school through university. It seemed reasonable to assume (Parkay and Stanford 1992) that the process of becoming a teacher begins early in life. Although it is not true that some people are born teachers, their early life experiences often encourage them to move in that direction. A teacher's influence in the formative years may have been the catalyst since, in most cases, the adults who have the greatest influence on children--beyond their parents--are their teachers.

In the reminiscences highlighted, some teachers were able to trace their decisions to teach to former teachers. Although the experiences came at different times in their lives and under different circumstances, they all had teachers who "opened up windows for them," saw potentials and encouraged them on, and had modeled excellent teaching to them. Reflecting on their former experiences, these teachers were able to trace their interest in teaching to one or more "outstanding" teachers. More than any other factor, they related that the caring, the potential that those teachers saw in them, and the encouragement they gave them helped to shape their visions. The unique experiences
with former teachers continue to impact the lives of students.

**Summary**

This chapter suggests that vision is central to teaching effectiveness. Visions give teachers ideals that they aspire towards. Visions not only help them to aspire towards the ideal, but have the ability to compel others to "see" what they have seen and to work towards accomplishing those visions.

The first section reviewed literature which discussed the importance of vision, visioning, goal articulation, personal mission, career clarification, and self-fulfilling prophecy in a general sense and how these affect the individual decision-making process. Also included was literature reviewed on mental imaging and its effects on a person. Each of the factors mentioned above plays a role in making decisions and planning for the future by teachers. Literature relating to how and why teachers received their visions followed.
CHAPTER IV

CASE STUDY I: CHUCK

This chapter enunciates one of three cases that were developed as a result of the interviews and observations conducted with the three teachers: Chuck, Joan, and Bev. (Their names have been changed as well as the names of the schools as part of the anonymity promised.) The cases are described in the order in which they were conducted.

The main topics discussed in this section resulted from information received from the interviews, observations, and the personal notes made during the process of collecting and analyzing data.¹ This section and the succeeding chapters describe what transpired at the various sites from the first interview until the last. The teachers' visions are highlighted, the description and characteristics of their ideal teachers, how and why they entered the teaching profession, and how the vision has affected their practice. The following describes the setting in which Chuck works, background information on Chuck, in addition to the results

¹ The three case studies are based on the information given in the tables in Appendix B. The data that highlights Chuck's case can be found on pp. 225-234; Joan's, pp. 234-242; and Bev's, 242-250.
of the interviews and observations related to how he became a teacher, and the part that his vision played in influencing his educational practice.

Setting

Chuck presently teaches at the Good Shepherd Lutheran school in Michigan. The school has an enrollment of 120 students. It caters to children from pre-school through eighth grade. There are six full-time teachers and two part-time pre-school teachers. The kindergarten teacher is also the pre-school director. The kindergarten teacher teaches kindergarten in the mornings and music in the afternoon to the other grades. She also has two half days in which she can plan. There are also full-time first, second, third and fourth, fifth and sixth, seventh and eighth grade teacher. The principal also teaches fifth and sixth grade. He teaches math and science in the mornings, while another teacher teaches language arts and music in the afternoons. The fifth-and sixth-grade teacher who teaches language arts also teaches music. Fifth and sixth and seventh and eighth grades are somewhat departmentalized. They change classes for various subjects. The classrooms are all self-contained.

In addition to their teaching responsibility, there are other assignments that each teacher is assigned to do. The first-grade teacher has yearbook responsibility, the second-grade teacher has library responsibility, the
third and fourth-grade teacher has athletic responsibility, the fifth-and sixth-grade teacher has music responsibility.

All teachers are required to do other things throughout the school year, such as working on National Interim School Week, Mom and Dad’s Day, Grandparent’s Day, Mini-field Trip day, helping at athletic events, organizing their own chapel each month as they are required to do. Each teacher takes care of his/her classroom, inventories books, and also does a lot of things that "many teachers are not required to do in the public school setting."

Chuck’s class fluctuated for the school year between 27 and 30 students. There are 9 boys and 4 girls in the third grade and 2 boys and 11 girls in the fourth grade. Chuck has an aide three days each week.

In the Good Shepherd Lutheran school there are three teachers with finished masters’ degrees, and the other teachers are working on graduate programs. The principal ensures that his teachers are current professionally. He routes magazines such as the Instructor, Teacher, and Computer Classrooms in their mail boxes so that they can look and choose. He also sends around to teachers and students communiques on opportunities for field trips, workshop forms that are offered through the Intermediate School District (ISD), or through the Michigan Reading Association.
In the late summer, before school starts, Lutheran schools in the Lutheran Schools Missouri Synod (LSMS), conduct a workshop at the Cook Nuclear facility in Michigan. A guest speaker comes in and the teachers get to know each other and get ready for a new school year. In the fall, the teachers are offered a Michigan district conference in either Lansing, Grand Rapids, or Detroit, in which the Michigan Lutheran schools, and the Missouri Synod Lutheran schools meet every other year in an association of non-public schools. Another means by which the teachers in the Good Shepherd Lutheran develop professionally is their involvement in examining different curricula. Workshops are offered in different states through different magazines and different companies. Teachers choose the ones they want to attend.

Chuck concluded that the teachers at the Good Shepherd Lutheran School are caring, dedicated, hard-working, willing to go the extra mile for the students and for each other, and a wonderful school family in which to grow.

Chuck

Chuck attended a Lutheran grade school, grades K-8, in Richmond and New Haven in Michigan. He did not attend day care or pre-school because his mother was a teacher and prepared him for kindergarten. He then attended a Lutheran high school in Mt. Clemens, Michigan.
After he completed high school, he was not certain what he wanted to do. He thought he wanted to become a teacher, but "something within him" prevented him from doing that so he thought he would "get into accounting." He disclosed that he liked numbers. He did accounting for 2 weeks and came to the realization that he did not want to make accounting his career, so he "threw out" those classes and continued to work at McDonald's, only now full time. He worked his way up to secretary, assistant manager, and manager. He explained that he did everything in the entire store, which was a wonderful experience for him.

Following that year, he took general classes at Macomb Community College where he took classes for 2 years part-time and continued to work at McDonald's. After 2 years there he decided to attend Concordia in Ann Arbor to become a teacher. He attended Concordia for 3 years. He did his student teaching in the last semester of the third year at Trinity, Mt. Clemens, a Lutheran school, K-8, departmentalized situation. While in practice teaching, he worked with three different teachers and helped with coaching.

On completing his practice teaching, he worked as a substitute teacher for 6 months at various private, public, and parochial schools. He reported that the substitute-teaching experience was very good and suggested that all first-year teachers do some "subbing" for a few months
before working full time. He thinks that substitute teaching will make pre-service teachers appreciate their teaching more, toughen them up, create a little more flexibility in them, and open their eyes to different kinds of situations.

His hobbies are mountain biking, road-biking, gardening, and sports. He likes to attend concerts and movies. He also likes to travel.

**Teacher’s Vision**

Chuck clearly stated his vision and has intimated that it is the vision that gives him direction. The following quotation highlights his vision.

> I want my students to know where they are going. The boys and girls placed under my charge are there for a reason and I want them to know the reason. My vision is also to prepare students physically, socially, emotionally, academically, and especially spiritually. I believe that all students can learn and that all students can achieve. I want my students to know that education does not stop here. It keeps going on and on and the students need to know what is going to happen in the future such as, getting in the upper grades, getting ready for high school, and getting out into the world of work. (Chuck, Vol. I, 1994)

**How Vision Developed**

Chuck thinks that the spark started with his teachers. "It had to be the teachers that I had. I had great teachers." He credits being a teacher to his own education which started in kindergarten. "I can remember things all the way back to kindergarten." He knew when he got into third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth
grade "what he was going to be doing in his classroom." He related that he was overweight, had to wear glasses, was smart, and that these things stereotyped him. He was "picked on" by other students. He was told by his mom and dad that "he should turn the other cheek." He knew as a student that his teachers took care of him and that he felt safe in his classroom. He recalled that he had to keep on "looking over his shoulder," but when he was with his teachers he felt safe. These early experiences were reinforced in his junior-high and high-school years as well as in college.

Elementary-School Teacher

Chuck recalled that he remembered every teacher's name. Special mention was made of his fourth- and fifth-grade teacher, Mr. Zabel, who stands out in his memory because he was his first male teacher. He reflected on the good times the students had in his classroom and all the science projects they did. "That was the big thing." His teacher was athletic and Chuck loved athletics so that created a bond between them. In addition to being athletic, Mr. Zabel was a "fine Christian gentleman who disciplined us when he had to, and was not afraid to get mad, if he had the cause to be mad."

Chuck wanted to be the best he could be and his fourth- and fifth-grade teacher allowed him to be just that.
One of his most memorable experiences with that teacher follows:

One of the big things I will never forget. It was springtime and softball season. And I loved softball. I had never been on a team and softball in my school was just for the upper grades, five to eight. . . . I asked Mr. Zabel if he would let me play catcher (nobody wanted to play catcher) and he told me to go ahead. That meant a lot to me. The confidence that he showed in me was there for every student. (Chuck, Vol. I, 1994)

The teacher also gave him added responsibility such as being the proctor for his class. Mr. Zabel motivated him through the science lessons. He also remembered those 250-point units that Mr. Zabel gave. He recalled that when he reached the fifth grade, students had to do reports, draw pictures, and make things. Mr. Zabel challenged them. "And even doing vocabulary for Mr. Zabel was great!" His "neat" comments on their papers "were very encouraging." But the most important thing about Mr. Zabel that impressed him was "his example." He was out on the playground with the students to play kick-ball. He ate with them. They had a good rapport with him.

High-School Teachers

Chuck had high-school teachers who also made an impact on him. Two high school teachers especially made an impression on him. One was his chemistry teacher and the other was his mathematics teacher. His chemistry teacher told him one day, "Chuck, when you need help I am here." He reported that classes began at 8:10, but the teacher would
be there at 7:15 if he needed him. That showed him the "caring," "the commitment," the teacher's "willingness to take the extra time." Chuck mentioned that he might not have been able to get through those 50 minutes without the additional encouragement. He confessed that there was a particular teacher he did not like and his chemistry teacher was aware of it and helped him through those difficult moments with that teacher.

Chuck recounted that he could not "stand" mathematics as a student, but he got an "A" nonetheless. He remembered those times the teacher spent with him in the mornings before school. He said, "Those grades I got in math were because of him." The situation that stood out in his memory about that teacher was the algebra assignments the students had to turn in each week. There were 40 assignments in all and he had gotten 39 A's. When his teacher returned the last assignment, it was a "B." The teacher, on returning his paper, said to him, "Well, Chuck, your string of A's have come to an end." The grade did not bother him in the least. What he was impressed with was that the teacher was taking note of his progress all along.

**College Professor**

Professor Heineman was Chuck's college professor for three or four different classes. She was another teacher whom he felt took the "extra time" and "was concerned with each student as an individual." His opinion was that she
was firmly committed to teaching and to teaching others how to teach. "She kept encouraging me. She would get personal with you." He reflected that she would give little notes. One of those notes read, "Chuck, you are going to make a good teacher." These positive comments caused him to focus on his career as a teacher. "The road was so wide and she kept narrowing it for me. I could see where I was going. My vision was already forming." He explained that there was an aura about her. She made things easy to understand and she gave the students a lot of work that they enjoyed doing.

Chuck related an incident with Professor Heineman with excitement. The topic they were working on at the time in the class was "Teaching the Christian Faith," and Professor Heineman gave the students the option to do whatever they wanted, but it had to be something that they could use in their classroom. So Chuck made this big banner. "And I just had a ball with it. I thought to myself, this is not class, this is fun time." He was so proud of his banner that he displayed it in the hall of his school when he took up his full time teaching appointment.

His Mother

The teachers mentioned previously were outstanding, but the one who made the greatest impact on him as a teacher, Chuck said, was his mom. She has been a teacher for 25 to 30 years. The "creativity" he saw in her, the "fun things" she did with her students, and her
relationship with them--all were special. He communicated that she was "tough" but she did not yell. And if she did yell, she had a good reason for doing so. Chuck observed that his mother treated her students the way she treated him and his brothers at home, and the students seemed to love her as they did. "I could just see it. She took the time for the very important things." One thing his mother did for her students everyday that excited him and her students was to read to them. He remarked that that is one of the things that he does with his students also every day, whether it is a half day or not. He attributed his students' love for reading to his following his mother's example.

Chuck's mother was a public school teacher in the same community where he attended school. After his school day, he would take the bus to her school and wait outside. If he had days off from his school he would visit his mom's classroom and interact with the students who were a few classes above him. "Seeing my mom here, seeing how much fun she had with the kids, seeing all the neat things she did" influenced him tremendously.

One experience he had with her students in her classroom is worthy of note. She had an American program as a unit. Some students were all dressed up in Statue of Liberty costumes while another group of students was dressed like Pilgrims on the Mayflower. He remembered them singing
songs; "They were doing all kinds of stuff." "This looked like fun," he said, "and the students were enjoying it so much. It was really fantastic." The creative ability displayed in his classroom, he affirmed, he got from his mother. He stated that these teachers that he loved and respected most, on reflection after being a teacher for 7 1/2 years, were the ones "who were the firmest, I had fun with them, they were in control, and I felt safe in their classroom."

**Characteristics of Teachers**

He summarizes the characteristics of all his teachers:

1. They were first Christians, had the love of Jesus in their hearts and so were "exceptional" teachers.
2. I could trust those teachers with my life.
3. They showed a tremendous amount of love.
4. They were enthusiastic.
5. They were very personable.
6. They were professional.
7. They were human--they were willing to admit when they had made mistakes.
8. They were creative.
9. They were hard workers
10. They were flexible.
Communicating the Vision to Various Publics

The vision Chuck has is not only something that he desires to work towards on his own, but his students, parents, colleagues, the principal, and people inside and outside of his community know what his vision is.

At the beginning of the school year he lets his students know what he will be covering for the quarter and what his expectations are. He gives reminders throughout the quarter. He is aware that if he wants his students to be organized he has to be organized. He stated that as far as possible, all his lesson books, grade books, and worksheets are ready for the day, or in some cases, for the week. His reason for doing this is for his own success as a teacher as well as the fact he wants his students to learn not only from what he says but from what he does.

He tells the students at the beginning of the school year to take a copy of the class rules home to discuss with their parents. He encourages the students to discuss their homework with their parents. That is one way that the parents know what he is doing in class. Another way that the parents know what his vision is by the letters that are sent home ahead of time and well written. Parents have to sign those letters, to be returned at a specified time. Parents are also aware of his vision because of his communication with them at P.T.A. meetings, parent/teacher conferences, basketball games, and when the students go
carolling each year at the mall. When parents are visiting the school for one reason or another, they often observe what is being done in his class. Chuck thinks that most parents realize what he is trying to develop inside the students are the concepts of "organization," "responsibility," "a fair work ethic," "better manners," "and helping them work together."

The principal and his colleagues are aware of the direction Chuck’s class is going as they visit his classroom, as the students walk through the hall, as they go back and forth from the water fountain and restrooms, and also as they conduct themselves in the library. "My colleagues and the principal know that I am a very structured, organized, consistent person and that I am a hard worker." His consistency, he believes, is one of the factors that makes his students feel secure in his classroom. "You have to be consistent with students and being consistent is one of the toughest things in the world to do."

The people in the community know about his vision by the comments that teachers and students make about him and what happens in the classroom, by the public activities that he engages in with his students, and from the student teachers who visit him from Andrews University. The student teachers discuss what he is doing with other teachers and the professors. The methodology that he developed as a
result of the inspiration he received from his former teachers, has influenced his educational practice.

Classroom Atmosphere

Observation indicated that Chuck’s classroom was well organized and the seating arrangement was organized for interaction among the students and for face-to-face contact. The walls were covered with meaningful charts, pictures, notices, all in their appropriate places. Evidence of units—the focus of current study—can be seen. Anyone visiting this classroom without being told what is happening could readily determine what is going on there.

In addition to the well-laid-out, attractive classroom, the students have access to activity corners where they can do things that they enjoy when their assigned work is completed. Two classes are housed in that classroom, Grades 3 and 4. The atmosphere is conducive to learning. Students work with each other in small and large groups. The students are free to move to any point in the classroom. They do that very well without distracting the attention of others.

Students relate well to each other and with the teacher. There is no observable barrier between the third and fourth graders. Students work on projects together in science, social studies, religion, and art. Language arts and mathematics are taught separately. They are grouped according to friendship and interest groups, as enunciated
by the teacher. The teacher narrated that he does not group them. They do that for themselves. All he has to do is tell them that they are going to be working in groups and they form those groups. When asked if they do not leave some students out of their groups, he disclosed that if there are any students left out, it is because of a specific number that he gives to them and the numbers may not work out evenly. What he does to remedy this problem is to ask, "Who can take another one or two other persons in your group?" Then the problem is solved.

Competition is a part of the learning experiences of the students. Their competitiveness seems healthy. An onlooker would not observe any gloating when a member of another group does not answer a question, or one group scores more points than the other. The highlight of the classroom is the learning center. There is a loft and underneath the loft is a library and activity center. There is a wide variety of puzzles and games are housed underneath the loft. The students have easy access to these. All of the games are not commercially bought. Some of these have been made by the teacher.

Some other things worthy of note are the orderly way in which students enter and leave the class and the way they raise their hands to ask or answer a question or to capture the teacher's attention. They wait until the teacher calls on them to answer or ask a question, or make a
suggestion or an observation. Each student is given due
attention by the teacher. The teacher tactfully takes
answers from different points in the class. Even the
students who do not raise their hands are also called on at
times. Students have to be alert because they do not know
who the teacher will be calling on next.

The students seem to feel comfortable in giving
their answers. No student is intimidated because he/she
gives a wrong answer. Chuck showers his students with
praise, and they reciprocate. One of the things observed
that made a great impression was the day a student was asked
for her homework and could not produce it. She looked in
her desk and in her bag, but still could not find it. The
teacher told her to fill out a slip (one that is filled out
and stapled to the assignment that comes in tardy), but the
fourth grader seemed to have done the work and just could
not find it. She tried to convince the teacher that she had
done it, but he insisted that she fill out the slip. She
filled out the slip, then went to her teacher and apparently
asked to speak to him in the hall. The teacher and student
left the classroom. When they returned to the classroom,
the student appeared to be happier. This type of openness
pervades the classroom.

Challenging Students

Challenge is a big word with Chuck. Effort is
made to provide his students with experiences that will
challenge them academically, socially, emotionally, and spiritually. Sometimes, instead of giving them a worksheet or reading a story to them, he tells them to make their own books, draw the pictures, and at the bottom of each page, write some sentences describing what was done. Students use their creativity to produce their books. The teacher reported that the students did a "magnificent" job in producing the books.

Another way in which Chuck challenges his students is to help them identify what they are good at. He then encourages them to go even further. He gave the example of one student who was asked to make an advertisement for the carolling that the third and fourth graders do annually at the mall. The assignment was given to the whole class, but the student’s advertisement was so outstanding that it was posted at the back of the Lutheran church. The teacher remarked, "Jon is an artist. He can draw more than me and my mother put together." Another strategy that Chuck believed was very effective in getting the students to go beyond what they can do is when the teacher gives the students a minimum of what they should do. If a student asks if he or she could go beyond the minimum, Chuck loudly exclaims, "Oh yes, please do." When other students hear him give the "O.K." to that student, they also want to do more.

Learning is made fun for the third and fourth graders. They are encouraged to read widely. In addition
to the books that they bring with them to school, the library has other books for the students to read. One may wonder where these students get the time to read in class. Those who are finished with their work before the others can take a book and curl up in the loft and read. Others work on games or puzzles underneath the loft.

One of the ways in which the students are being involved in their own classroom activities is to tell them of things the class needs. Chuck said that it never fails. By the following day, the room has a surplus of what is requested. When he thinks that the students have exhausted the resources, he may ask them to bring in puzzles and games.

Chuck stated that his enthusiasm is contagious and that is one of the ways in which students get excited about their learning. He explained that when his enthusiasm is high, the students are carried along with him as the lesson progresses and they get more out of the lesson. "When I have my enthusiasm level way up there, I don't need as many hands-on kinds of things or a movie here or a poster there. I can get them going with my enthusiasm."

Development of Responsibility in Students

Students need to be responsible, and one of the ways to make students responsible is to make them accountable for their own learning. Chuck claimed that this
is not an easy feat to accomplish, but he has seen the students' responsibility level soar since they have entered his classroom, and it is increasing all the time. He used the time he spent with the interviewer as an example. "If the students did not know how to be responsible, I could not be sitting here with you now." Chuck pointed out that the students are responsible enough to work on their own in the classroom and when they are finished with one assignment, they move on to another.

Other ways in which students show they are responsible is by returning notes from parents on time. Chuck reported that he always has 100% cooperation with that. One incident cited that really highlighted the students' level of responsibility was the day early in the second quarter when Chuck wanted to rearrange the class. He drew a map of what he wanted the class to look like and left the classroom so that they could organize the classroom. He told them, "Boys and girls, I am walking out of this room and you are on your own." In 4 1/2 minutes, he recalled, the students were finished, seated, and were quietly working when he returned. He commended them for a job well done. The students know how to work well with each other. He knows that they have learned to be responsible, because when he is absent and a substitute has to take over, the same behavior is exhibited.
Although Chuck had excellent teachers, he revealed that he learned responsibility through fear. He has determined to have his students learn responsibility by giving them the opportunity to be responsible. Another means by which he knows that he is reaching the students is through the comments made by parents. "Chuck, the responsibility level in my child is going up all the time. She wants to do her homework now without being told." He values such comments made by parents or former students because teachers do not hear comments like those very often.

Students Know Where They Are Going

At the beginning of the school year Chuck provides the students with a class schedule for the entire school year. By doing this, the students have a good idea of what to expect for the rest of the year. The schedule may change during the year, but once the teacher makes them aware of the change, they are comfortable with it. Daily assignments are posted on the board each day. Sometimes the teacher puts nothing up for homework. The students will come up to him and say, "There is nothing there." The students will not be satisfied until he has put the word "none" in the space. Chuck stated that it appears as if the students are saying, "We can relax now because nothing is coming up immediately."

Chuck uses a device to post his notices. He uses a picture of a bear called Sam. Sam says many things.
There is a card for each day of the week indicating what Sam says. For one particular week, all tests, field-trip money, lunch, a project to report on, and anything extraordinary that cannot be written on the board are placed there. Just before or right after a holiday, Chuck reminds them of something that is to happen soon. Having the schedules posted in the classroom places the responsibility on the students to read and make mental or written notes of what is coming soon. It also acts as a reminder to the teacher of what is to be done.

Chuck stated that he is criticized by his colleagues for doing too much with his students, but he takes his work seriously. "If I am going to be a teacher, I must be the best teacher I can be. I don't want to be sloppy about it. Let the kids get as much as they can out of their six hours. People need to accept that's who I am."

**Teaching Strategies**

Cooperative learning

Cooperative learning activities are widely used in Chuck's classroom. He has noted that when students are grouped together they learn more than when they work individually. One cooperative strategy used by the teacher is to have the "higher readers" working with the "lower readers." He believes that by doing this the higher readers will be encouraged to do a better job and at the same time to help the lower readers so "That vision of mine where all
students can learn and all students can achieve, happens."
He observes the students as they play on the playground and
commented that they play and enjoy themselves together.
"Students are happiest on the playground where they can be
themselves." Using that scenario, he asserts that learning
together and making the learning interesting will enhance
learning. He attested, "The activities students enjoy the
most are those where they assume that they are not
learning." Working cooperatively does not benefit students
only academically, but socially. "Students need to know how
to get along together, how to deal with problems and how to
solve problems." Students are given the opportunity to
solve their own problems. Chuck explained, "More often than
not I would say to the students when I sense a problem, it
seems that you guys have a problem, why don’t you talk about
it in the hall." Most of the time, he remarked, the
students work out the situation for themselves. But if the
situation needs teacher intervention, he is there to help
them focus on the problem and to arrive at a viable
solution.

Chuck also remarked that group activities also
teach students about the democratic process and help develop
a spirit of community.

Unit teaching

Unit teaching is another strategy used to enhance
learning. Chuck often uses this type of teaching in
science, social studies, mathematics, art, and religion. In addition to the smaller units, he does one big unit each year. Chuck has "turned" his class into a town. The students are given a contract based on certain rules and laws in the town. The students get a paycheck every week. They learn about the taxes the government takes away every week. They have jobs they have to do in the town. There are violations, and the students have to pay for the violations. The teacher gives them money. "One of the big things the students are learning is responsibility," he noted. They are learning: "I have $20.00 today. I have to pay to use the pencil sharpener, the water fountain, and the computer." Because they have the opportunity to buy things with the extra money they have left, they have to decide how best to save up their money so that they can get more things at the end of the week. To add to the excitement of the unit, the microwave is called "the heating and cooling company," the pencil sharpener is called "the lumber company," and the water fountain is called "the water works."

**Advance Organizers**

Chuck begins his lessons with advance organizers, statements he makes to activate prior knowledge and also to provide an anchor for later learning. For example, when discussing a unit on the White House, the students were told what he wanted them to look for as the discussion
progressed. Their attention was called to various pictures on the board and around the class that would supplement the assigned reading from the text. After the students had read the assigned sections and had gone to the board to look at the picture of the White House and what goes on there, Chuck asked questions he had prepared at various levels in the cognitive domain, especially application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

After the students had answered their questions orally in groups, they were given a variety of assignments so that they could process the information discussed and read. Chuck commended the students as the answers were given. Students who gave creative answers were given special commendation.

**Learning Styles**

Chuck's former teachers were aware of the learning styles of their students and they taught to his learning style, so that the experiences impacted him in such a way that his vision of teaching was formed. He uses a combination of learning styles in every lesson. The creativity of the students is drawn out in remarkable ways. For those students who are visual learners, provision is made for them by use of (1) the relevant charts and posters, (2) use of the overhead, (3) pictures that are placed at strategic points to capture attention, and (4) the board. Those persons who are kinesthetic learners are catered to by
the activities that follow each lesson and by the hands-on activities they have to do. Sometimes this is an individual activity or it may be a group working together on an answer sheet, or working on science, or social studies, or an art project.

Students make books, posters, and advertisements for various activities. Chuck disclosed that "collages are a big thing for me." He cited an incident in which the students were asked to make parts of the human body as a follow-up to a science unit. The students, he said, did a fantastic job, but one student stood out among the rest. "This little girl made a brain out of a cauliflower head. She painted it. She even had a cerebellum on it. She put the brain in a fishbowl for a head." Another student made a three-dimensional model of a heart out of clay. "That was neat." Even though he consciously uses a combination of styles, Chuck believes that students learn a lot more from what is not taught. When he places charts and pictures on the walls of his classroom he does not call their attention to them. The students who are interested will be drawn to these and learn so much on their own. Chuck enjoys seeing the students learn in this way. "I think if kids can learn some things on their own, they are going to feel good about themselves."
Involvement of Students in Their Own Learning

Another strategy the teacher uses that is worthy of note is how much the students are involved in their learning process. They openly give suggestions to their teacher or make observations, and the teacher acts on the students' suggestions. They are given the opportunity to make choices. Once those choices are made, "they know the consequences are theirs." The students are made aware by the teacher that he and their classmates are there to help them through, especially if a bad decision was made and that this is a learning experience for them.

This involvement is also extended to the students deciding how they want to do a particular project, that is, individually or in groups. Chuck commented that he gives the idea and the students decide how they want to do it. According to Chuck, "They just do what they feel that they have to do to get the best grade or the maximum number of points."

Chuck organizes out-of-school activities: speech contests, and art expos, and spelling contests to offer the students exposure. He encourages some students to become involved with sports (especially the shy ones). He is interested in the students' social, emotional, and spiritual development, in the same way that he is concerned about their intellectual development. Evidence of this is given through his own words: "When I can find something that a
child does really well, I’ll urge him to go even further.” He told of the 35 students who are going to another Lutheran school for an Art Day, a special day for Lutheran schools. “There,” he said, “they will have one art teacher who will be keeping them busy doing art for the whole day.” He mentioned the name of a student in his class who he thinks will be challenged, and is especially talented in art.

**Integrating Faith and Learning**

Chuck has a strong faith in God. He articulated throughout the interviews that he is proud to be a “Christian teacher.” He believes that God really called him into “the ministry to be a teacher.” He defines a minister as a person “who cares, who gives, who encourages, who loves the kids no matter what kind of students they are.” And as a Christian teacher, he integrates his faith with his practice. In one of the interviews he commented: “First and foremost throughout the curriculum, whenever I feel it necessary or when I think it fits in, I bring God into the lesson.” The most effective integration observed is how he models his Christianity. He confessed that he makes mistakes, but that he is man enough to apologize to them. He reflected on an incident where he told his students, “I blew it today. I have to apologize for the way I treated you.” He is convinced that his apology was accepted.
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Summary

Chuck articulated how his interest developed in teaching. He reminisced on his experiences as a student, his interaction with exceptional teachers, and how his vision developed as a result of the "image" that has been formed throughout his school life. Many of the things he does he learned from his teachers. Others he developed as a teacher. His whole teaching experience was shaped by the vision he had of ideal teachers from kindergarten through college. He remembered his teachers, especially those in the upper elementary school, and could give graphic details of their teaching styles, character traits, and the ways in which he was influenced. Chuck’s most influential adult was his mother—who was also a teacher. The vision became more focused in high school and college. His teachers provided structure for him by giving him challenging assignments. They helped him to provide structure for his students years later. Those early experiences created an ideal for him that he continues to aspire to. In spite of all the challenges he faces as a teacher, he thoroughly enjoys his teaching experience and is always looking for new ways to improve his educational practice.

The case of Chuck indicates that he has a vision. He emulated several teachers from elementary school to college, and they influenced his decision to teach and to be an outstanding teacher. He pointed out that his teaching
career has been influenced significantly by his mentors. He also expressed that some of the activities that go on in his classroom are directly related to his interaction with and modeling of his former teachers. His vision of teaching has changed and will continue to change as he keeps abreast of current trends and meets the needs of his students.
CHAPTER V

CASE STUDY II: JOAN

Joan's case is similar in some ways to Chuck's, but is unique in other ways. Her reasons for becoming a teacher were different. When she entered high school she knew what her vocation would be. Her vision was refined and focused by her mathematics and English teachers. Her vision is constantly changing as she endeavors to make her teaching relevant and inspiring to her students.

Setting

Valley View is a rural district in Michigan. Twenty-five percent to 30% of the students are minorities from Jamestown. Since 1981 Valley View has been part of a court-ordered desegregation program with Clarendon and Jamestown.

The Valley View High School houses Grades 10, 11, and 12. It has an enrollment of 433 students for the 1994-95 school year. There are presently 168 10th-graders, 135 11th-graders, and 130 12th-graders. There is a faculty of 32 teachers teaching subjects such as math, science, English, social studies, foreign languages (German and Spanish) business vocational, physical education, art music, and special education. The students are also actively
involved in various sporting activities. Some of these activities are basketball, football, baseball, tennis, softball, track, volleyball and wrestling. Other persons employed by the school are K-8 teachers, aides, and other employees. Coaches are also hired from the Valley View community.

Provision is made for professional development with a grant of approximately $4,000, made available by the Eisenhower Funds, to send teachers to inservices and seminars throughout the school year. Teachers of the Valley View school have a conference hour each day in which they can plan their lessons and discuss trends and issues in teaching, talk over problems that are common or different to each, and also develop strategies on how best to cope with the educational challenges of the classroom.

At the beginning of the 1994-95 school year, Joan had an enrollment of 115 students with whom she interacted daily. Three of the five classes she teaches come to her classroom, and the other two she meets in another room. Joan teaches advanced algebra, pre-calculus, and a mathematics laboratory. There are six periods in each school day, one of which is used as a conference hour. At periods 1 and 4, she teaches advanced algebra; periods 3 and 6, math lab; and period 4, pre-calculus. The school day begins at 7:30 a.m. and ends at 2:30 p.m.
Joan

Joan's parents, Edward and Emma Haug, emigrated to the United States from Switzerland shortly after their marriage in 1955. Joan was born in the summer of 1956 in Port Washington, Wisconsin, a suburb of Milwaukee. Since Swiss-German was the language spoken in the home, her early education was mostly bilingual. When she was about 3 years old, her father took a new job in Rockford, Illinois. She lived in Rockford until she left for college.

In Rockford, she attended kindergarten at a private school affiliated with the Lutheran Church. She attended first through eighth grade at the local neighborhood public school, Guilford Center School. At that time, the area in which the family lived was rural/suburban, and a middle school/junior high school was not needed. She "graduated" from the eighth grade in 1970. From there, she went to Guilford Senior High School, which was "fed" by several elementary and junior high schools in the area. She graduated in 1974, 16th in a class of 605.

After graduating from high school, she decided that she was not ready to leave home for college. Instead, she studied 1 year at Rock Valley Junior College in Rockford. She lived at home and concentrated on taking classes that would fulfill core requirements at Hope College in Holland, Michigan. She had been accepted at Hope, and planned to attend college there, so she kept contact with
them to be certain that every class she took and every
credit she earned would, in fact, transfer. When she left
for Hope College in the fall of 1975, she transfered 45
credit hours with her, over one-third of those required for
graduation. Her "planning" paid off; she graduated from
Hope College in May 1977, a full year ahead of schedule.

Her first teaching job was at Harper Creek High
School in Battle Creek, Michigan, teaching mathematics (her
major) and English (her minor). After 2 years, she was
"pink-slipped" due to financial difficulties. That same
summer, she and her husband were married. They had met at
Harper Creek; he continued to teach there in the fall of
1979, while she taught high-school math and junior-high
English at the neighboring Pennfield Community Schools in
Battle Creek. After a year at Pennfield, she was "pink-
slipped" again. She returned to Harper Creek as an
administrative aide in charge of attendance. This included
a cut in pay, and she was out of the classroom, but she
enjoyed being back at Harper Creek with some very good
friends.

At the end of the 1980-81 school year, the
financial problems at Harper Creek were severe. Joan's
husband was also laid-off after 7 years of teaching. They
learned of a job posting at Western Michigan University
indicating that Valley View Schools needed teachers in all
disciplines. They were not aware of the desegregation order
among Clarendon, Jamestown, and Valley View that was forcing Valley View to integrate over 400 students district-wide within 2 weeks of the start of school. Joan and her husband were hired as teachers in the junior high school. She "floated" from room to room teaching math and reading.

After 3 years in the junior high school, Joan took a year's maternity leave (their eldest son was born in September 1984). In January 1985, she was asked to substitute for a teacher in the high school who had become very ill. Reluctantly she took the position, which became permanent when the teacher whom she replaced died. Joan has been teaching mathematics at Valley View High School since that time, 10 years to date.

She is currently studying for her master's degree in mathematics education from Western Michigan University. It is a fully funded program through the National Science Foundation and will be completed in the summer of 1997.

Teacher's Vision

Joan has a vision that is constantly changing to meet the current educational trends and as she grows professionally. Her vision statement follows.

To me, education is an on-going process. The students are here for an hour a day and go on to other classes, but it should not end there. When those students go out, they should continue to question, continue to learn and get as much education as they can. Education is an active endeavor where the students can be involved and can question, and can find out why things are the way they are rather than the teacher saying that this is the the way it is and they accept
it. I hope that students in my classes realize that at the end of the year it is not all over; that learning and education is a lifelong process and what they learn in school are the tools to continue that process when they are on their own. I look for my students to question. I want to develop a dialogue with my students. I want them to learn by puzzling, explore on their own. I will be there to help them out and guide them, but I would really like to see them take the initiative to learn things and develop what I can do with them in 50 minutes (Joan, Vol. II, 1994).

**How Vision Developed**

"I would say that my whole vision and my whole reason for getting into teaching goes back to my own schooling and my own school life." This was Joan's opening statement when asked how her vision developed. She mentioned that she had "a couple of teachers in high school who really turned me on." Once she became a teacher, the things that influenced her the most are the changes that are going on in the federal and state governments wanting to make schools, teachers, administrators, and boards of education more responsible for the education of the community.

Joan's love for mathematics began at home with her father who was a mechanical engineer and gave her the help that she needed along the way. She explained that her vision was already forming "unconsciously." When she reached high school, she had a couple of "excellent" teachers who helped her to take responsibility for her own education. They told her that her education was her responsibility and that what she got out of it was directly
related to what she had put in. Her teachers told her things like, "We want you to read the book." "We want you to question." "We want you to work with your peers to solve problems." "We will guide you, but this is your thing here." Joan took these statements seriously. When asked about some of the things that her mathematics teachers did that were outstanding, her response was, "A lot of the things that I do." One of the things she was required to do was to read ahead everyday to have an awareness of the topic under discussion for the following day. There was also the professional relationship that the teachers had with the students—not the type that gave the impression that the teacher was "up there and the students were down here." They had dialogues going, she recalled.

Joan explained that the math classes she took in high school were accelerated ones and were very difficult, but in spite of the difficulty, she confessed, she learned a lot. When she challenges her students and they complain, she remembers her school days and thus is able to encourage them in the process.

She also reminisced about one of her English teachers, who she thought was great as far as "classroom respect goes." She reported that what made Mr. Joseph special to her was the way he called everybody in the class Mr. and Miss. She recalled that he was the only teacher in high school or college who ever did that. Every week he
gave students 10 vocabulary words and required them to give definitions for each word, give the parts of speech, make a sentence with each word, and give five synonyms and five antonyms for each word. Joan thought that that was a "horrendous assignment." As students, she disclosed, they complained. And when they did, Mr. Joseph told them they did not have to do them, but he would continue to give them every week. Her reason for continuing to do those assignments was that she knew the reason she was doing them. "I guess that is another thing with these wonderful teachers, these English and mathematics teachers, was I never felt I was doing something just to do it. There was always an underlying reason." When asked what was so important about knowing the underlying reason for doing something, her response was that if there is a purpose and the experience is meaningful, the students will want to do it. The most important thing that she learned from the experience was about her own capabilities, what she could do. "With the teacher as facilitator, with classmates to help out, I learned what I could do if I applied myself."

Another class experience that made its impact on Joan was the scope Mr. Joseph gave students to be themselves. If some student made some "off the wall comment, it was not shot down." He would say, "That's a new idea, I never thought of it that way. That is interesting." Divergent thinking was encouraged.
Another motivation that Joan had for being a teacher was the "desire," the need to make a difference. She said that she never wanted to go anywhere and sit behind a desk. She wanted to be involved with people. "I couldn't think of any other profession that could allow me more access to people like teaching." She regards herself as a people-person.

Characteristics of Ideal Teachers

Joan holds the view that her teachers were caring, strict, human, maintained high standards, were professional, were willing to admit mistakes, and were willing to spend extra time in planning and preparation of lessons. Elaborating on "willingness to do the time," she explained that teachers owe it to their students to come to classes prepared and to correct their work promptly and return it. She mentioned that she sets due dates for herself as she has done for her students. She models the kind of behavior she expects from her students. "If the students cannot eat in class, I am not going to have a cup of coffee on my desk." She believes that if there are no double standards, that will help to eliminate disciplinary problems.

Another characteristic that she thinks is very important is that of teachers' willingness to keep on learning. "Another thing about a 'good,' 'excellent' 'master' teacher--whatever you want to call it--is their willingness to keep learning." She further explained that
learning does not have to be in a formal classroom setting, or a teacher does not have to sit in a college classroom, get a master’s or a doctor of philosophy degree. Reading and keeping abreast with current educational research can help teachers make changes in their own curriculum and their own teaching styles. Joan articulated that students are different from students 20-25 years ago--one reason being that this is the age of technology. She believes that because students have grown up with television, video games, and other captivating entertainment, this places more responsibility on teachers to be current with their knowledge and also their teaching styles. "Unless teachers are willing to adapt and learn, they will stagnate."

Reinforcing the Vision

For Joan, the "vision" seems to be constantly changing. She conveyed that her vision is not anywhere near what it was when she first entered the profession, and as far as she is concerned it will continue to change. The change is not only due to the introduction of technology, but in the last 5 years, she explained, the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) has issued what teachers should be teaching. The standards outlined have been different from what she was taught in high school, so it is a learning experience for her. As a result of the changes, she is spending a lot of time reading as well as talking with professors and colleagues to adjust to these changes.
Some of these changes are the introduction of technology in the classroom, getting away from the idea that there is only one right answer, and the ability to justify answers in writing or verbally. Joan realizes that mathematics is not an isolated environment anymore. "These students are going to have to reach out and go beyond what they are presently doing." She sees the students of the 21st century not just solving problems, but justifying whether their answers make sense.

**Communicating the Vision**

Joan affirmed that her school administrators, colleagues, and students know what her vision is through the goals she articulates and those she has posted, and by expressing to them what is important or is of value to her as a teacher. The students' knowledge of what she expects of them opens the way for feedback from the students and provides focus for her as well. She has remarked that the students are knowledgeable about her expectations. "My students know where I am coming from. The first day of school, I give them an overview of what the class would be like and what I expect of them." The rest of the year, she recalled, she reinforces.

Her vision is also reflected in guidelines she has posted on her bulletin boards in the form of dress codes, class rules, and State policies concerning teachers and students in the area of mathematics. The mottos and slogans
placed at strategic points around the classroom indicate not only high expectations in the academics but in their interpersonal relationships with each other and with the teacher. Some of the mottos and slogans are: "Be satisfied with nothing but your best." "I am, I can, I will." "If it is to be, it is up to me." "No put downs." "Positive Mental Attitude (P.M.A.)." There are also newspaper clippings posted that focus on current trends in mathematics and on topics that may be an incentive for motivating students to attend college. All these suggest that the teacher has a purpose and has set goals that are consistent with her vision. Students know what she expects of them not only through written and verbal communication, but by the way she models her vision.

**Classroom Atmosphere**

Joan’s classroom atmosphere is one of openness and mutual respect between the teacher and her students. Students are free to walk in the door and say, "I did not get number 5 of the assignment." This would start a dialogue between that student and the teacher. However, the teacher was not going to go to the board and work the problem for the student. What Joan does is to ask the student, "What did you do?" Getting an explanation from the students before any assistance is offered forces the students to think. Often, more students would come in and join the teacher and student in their dialogue. At the
sound of the bell, Joan would be ready to begin class. She began not with her plan for the day, but with the common problems students were having. After the students had solved the problems, the lesson for the day was then taught. The students know that they will always be facilitated by their teacher.

While Joan and some students discuss the homework and solve problems on the overhead or on the board, others are working other problems with their classmates, or just doing something else. Those who are engaged in their own activity are not a threat to the teacher in any way. When asked if Joan was not distracted by the various pockets of conversation that were going on while she was working with others on the board, her response was, "I do have little pockets of chitter-chatter that I try to control a little bit, but I have noticed a lot of times students will ask each other about problems while I am doing something else." And she does not want to squelch that.

Joan further explained that she likes to have a little quietness when she is presenting new material, but when she is going over homework problems and some students have that problem done, "they are not going to be captivated, they are not going to be interested, so they could do something else." For example, one young man was reading a book while the teacher was teaching. When asked if this was not distracting, Joan’s reply was, "That is a
case of a different learning style that we are not meeting." Getting along with people, seeing problems, seeing different personalities and different ideas, and working through them are more important to her than becoming upset over a student reading a book.

Students feel free to challenge a particular strategy that the teacher is using or as one student exclaimed, "What do we have to do this for?" The teacher, instead of feeling threatened by the sudden outburst, explained the value of that particular assignment to "give them some more insights." Joan explained that as a new teacher, she did not tolerate any type of distraction in her class, but as a veteran, she can "back off" and be more flexible.

Joan reflected that as a first-year teacher in college, her professors did not refer to the teachers' future students as individuals, but as their class. She supports the view that each student should be looked on as an individual, "which is really time-consuming and never taught in college." It was observed that as the teacher and students were correcting the homework, some questions she asked were, "What did you do?" "Where did you get stuck?" "How far did you get?" She was targeting the individual student. She stated that this practice of working with students individually as well as in groups calls forth a lot of flexibility from her. The dialogue she develops with her
students, their involvement in their own learning, and the level of discipline all help to make the classroom atmosphere conducive to learning.

**Challenging Students**

Joan communicated that she has always associated mathematics with puzzles and that there is always something "dynamic" and "exciting" about mathematics teaching. One of the ways in which she challenges her students is not to answer their questions directly, but to answer their questions with other questions. She calls this type of teaching "going through the backdoor." She is aware of the frustration that this strategy can cause, but commented that the students have gotten so accustomed to her style of teaching that they do not venture to ask a question except when there is evidence that they have tried to solve the problem on their own, or they can explain what they have done. This places the responsibility on the students and teaches them to try to solve their own problems before they ask for assistance.

Some students, she remarked, get turned off and do not ask any more questions, but if she makes her rationale basic enough to appeal to individual students, they need only two or three successes from "that kind of a thing for them to realize, Wow! I answered it myself, and then their self-esteem rises." It is another way of teaching, she asserted, "that they have not seen in other teachers."
Another way in which Joan challenges her students is to communicate to them that there is "not only one right answer" and that if they get an answer different from somebody else, it is "O.K.," but that they must be able to "justify" their answers. Thus Joan is seeing, in addition to the mathematics, the students developing the ability to communicate their answers either in writing or orally. She voiced that even though she may disagree with their answers, she wants them to "convince" her that their answers are acceptable. Her rationale for doing this is that students are going to have to justify what they do on their jobs. "They are going to have to walk into a meeting and say, we are going to do this and this is the reason." When the students have developed the ability to do this, she indicated, they are not doing mathematics in an isolated environment anymore.

Joan has established with her students that they will make mistakes, but their willingness to admit their mistakes and their readiness to fix the problem and come up with something more meaningful are pivotal to their success. "I tell my students all the time that part of problem-solving is, if their answers make sense, if they are getting a reasonable answer to the problem." She cited that one of the greatest benefits to be derived from learning from puzzling is that the students learn to take risks.
One of the reasons that she allows her students to solve problems individually and in groups, to justify their answers orally or in writing, is because she wants them to be actively engaged in their learning experience. She also believes that willingness to accept challenges starts in school and then is reflected in the workplace. She remarked, "I think the classes I liked the most were the ones that were challenging," and the teachers she liked the most were those who challenged her academically.

Joan further challenges her students by helping them to see how all the different pieces of the puzzle—all the things they are learning—fit together. Gradually her students are seeing "how the individual pieces fit the whole" and that is what she thinks makes mathematics fun. She wants her students to look at the whole picture and rather than saying, "I am studying this for a test next week, and then I will never have to do it again," instead, they will be able to make the connection. She is building up the puzzle throughout the year, and building the students' self-confidence and self-esteem as they experience daily successes. The most important way in which Joan challenges her students is to model enthusiasm in her teaching and to let them know that she enjoys teaching them. She expects her students to share in her pleasure.
Teaching Strategies

Technology

Technology is one of the means through which Joan gets her students prepared to meet the NCTM standards. She does not want her students to use technology as a "crutch, as an easy way to do things." What she is helping her students do is take the use of the technology a little further and "explore possibilities they have not seen before." She tells her students that having a calculator and the computer may cause them to "let their guards down," and say, "Oh, this is going to be easy." She wants them to go one step further and look at hard things that the calculator and computer are going to make easy for them to explore.

In her mathematics labs the students are given the opportunity to get individual assistance in basic mathematical skills by working exercises from their texts, but they also have the opportunity to use the computer to solve basic computational concepts they have missed. It is Joan's responsibility to work with these students until they are able to go back into the mainstream. In her unique way, she places the responsibility on the students to come up with a solution to their own problems. She maintained that she never gives an answer away. She leads students to a point where they can solve their own problems.
The overhead projector is a tool Joan uses a lot in her classroom. She explained that one of the advantages of the overhead is that she could keep eye contact with her students. She ties the old material to the new. She starts from a level with which they are comfortable or the students, she stated, "will get frightened." She tells them, "You remember when we did this, let's take it one step further and let's look at what happens here." By doing this the students are forced to see a connection.

Joan foresees technology as being the primary teaching tool in teaching mathematics in the future. She remarked that one of her dreams is to see every student with a graphing calculator, because a lot of the work that can be done on the computer at school can be done on a graphing calculator. This will be especially useful to the students who do advanced algebra and pre-calculus. As students work on certain mathematical problems that are to be represented graphically, they will be plotted as they make their calculations.

Cooperative learning, mentioned above, is a strategy used by Joan. She disclosed that students learn from their peers as well as from teachers. Although she allows them to work together on class and homework assignments, she does not allow it on quizzes and tests. One of the things she hopes to do for her students is to develop a program where students have to work together most of the time on homework,
quizzes, and tests. Her reason is based on her belief that one person does not have enough information. Each person needs additional resources and peers are the additional resources.

Joan disclosed that when she began teaching her main method of teaching was lecturing/questioning. Students had to "sit down, be quiet, and I must hear a pin drop." But once she became a veteran, she could "take interuptions, entertain more questions from students now more than ever before." Once a student identifies that there is a problem, the question she throws out to the class is, "Is there anybody else who has trouble with it?" Often any hands would go up. Even though she does not see a problem, but they do, she is willing to be a facilitator as they solve the problem. She recalled telling her students that if they have a question they should, if necessary, "scream," "holler," or "throw themselves off their chairs," or do anything to get her attention.

Teaching to Learning Styles

Use of the overhead, sending students to the computer to practice concepts and solve problems that may otherwise have been difficult for them, giving students ample opportunity to practice concepts in class, having students work together in groups, having them find solutions to their questions, doing a lot of examples with students, and having the students do a lot of examples on their own.
are all strategies used by Joan to cater to the learning styles of each student in her class.

**Placing Learning Responsibility on Students**

A unique way in which Joan encourages her students to take responsibility for their successes and failures is for them to do a self-inventory. She cited an experience about how she does her self-inventory. Joan told her students that she teaches five classes in her day, and she needs to do the best she can. So at some point before she sleeps at night, she asks herself, "Did I do the best job today that I could?" If the answer is in the affirmative, she can tell herself, "pleasant dreams." If she has not, then she tells herself, "Tomorrow I am going to give it 150 or 200%." She suggests that her students ask the same question of themselves; they are their own best critics.

Joan feels strongly that students are capable of getting a better grade than an F. Her reason is that there is no way students would find themselves in classes where they would fail if students are evaluated carefully and placed in the right class. Further, if students are failing a class, there are other avenues of assistance, such as "doing their best," or "seeking out the help, the tutoring that is available, and not giving up too quickly." When asked to explain what was meant by "the way the educational system is set up no student should fail," she responded by
stating that if students are placed in the class where they can function at their level, and if the teachers are willing to put in the time and the effort, and are prepared to give alternative examples, and to teach to students' learning styles, no student should fail. Unfortunately, she continued, she has students who fail for various reasons. One of the reasons is that some parents are not around and available to ensure that homework is completed. Another reason is that students do not take responsibility for their own education.

The way her homework is set up, she conveyed, is that students have a week to turn in an assignment without penalty. "And the reason I give a week is that no matter what day the assignment is due, they would have a weekend in there." So if an assignment is due on Monday and they did not get it done, the last day that they could turn it in would be the following Monday. She also stated that she uses a time line, and her assignments should take no longer than 45 minutes to be completed. As an incentive for taking their homework seriously, she assigns a third of their grades to homework assignments. Her rationale for doing this is that there are some students "who just do not perform well on quizzes and tests," so provision is made for that. She believes that teachers should structure their program for success, not failure, and that everything taught in school should be ultimately designed for students'
success. Joan believes that teachers' intentions are good, but "how effective they are, is up to each individual teacher."

Joan gave an example of a test she had given the previous day and stated that the students did poorly on the test. She was discussing this with her husband who is also a teacher at the school. He told her that it was not only with her class, but that the students are doing poorly throughout the school. But being the kind of teacher who puts a lot of effort into her work, who goes to great lengths to solicit students' cooperation and attention, she stated that her "vision" would not allow her to think that way. She is aware, she explained, that "you can lead a horse to the water, but you can't make it drink." Her version of that statement is, "The horse isn't thirsty enough for what I am doing." So somewhere in the process she is taking responsibility for their failure. She is of the opinion that if she motivates them sufficiently, they will "drink everything I have to offer."

**Challenges That May Affect Teachers' Vision**

In spite of the high ideals Joan has for herself and her students, several factors may conflict with the goals she has set in an effort to realize her vision. One of the challenges she faces is that posed by the introduction of technology in the classroom. She maintained that the use of
technology for solving math problems should be introduced in kindergarten, right through the elementary school before the students get to high school. She commented that by the time they reach high school they have developed certain attitudes that are difficult to change. They have been using calculators and computers for simple things, and not what these tools are capable of doing.

Another thing that is "unsettling" for Joan is when someone outside the school system says what they think should be done by teachers without finding out what the needs are. Another conflict that may arise is when teachers argue that they have been doing the same things for years and do not see the need for change. In a situation like that, she is concerned that the students are the ones who are caught in the middle, and unless the teachers have a "vision," they are going to be swept along with the current.

Other challenges that arise are "student attendance," "self-motivation," and "getting students to be inspired." She is aware that when students reach high school, they no longer perceive mathematics to be "fun," but rather a chore. Her biggest challenge she declared, is to get the students to "buy into it and say, she means business, I better do it."

The drastic changes that are being "pushed" in mathematics by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics is another challenge for Joan. She stated that
the mandates for drastic changes place pressure on teachers to make changes "overnight." In addition to that, the inability of the teachers to have input in the process makes the situation more acute. Rather than being told what to do, the teachers would like to provide their input. The pressure placed on teachers with an intent to force them to change has a deleterious effect on the students. Everything that is being stressed for the past 3 years, she commented, has "been wonderful," but a better approach would be for the "powers that be" to initiate the change in kindergarten, then continue in 1st grade and move right on to 12th grade.

Joan said that the change would take a period of 12 years to bring about the desired result that the Council expects. She views the instantaneous results that the policy-makers expect as unrealistic. She would also like to see more dialogue taking place between teachers and State officials as well as with administrators, so that the "vision" they have is known by others. She believes that the school-wide policies should help teachers teach, not hinder them.

Another challenge discussed is the time that teachers have during the school day that is not fully devoted to instruction, such as to "look out for child abuse, to feed the children breakfast, and to be semi-social workers." This is regarded as difficult, but she knows that there is nothing the teachers can do about that, because that is a part of the teaching process for the 21st century.
Joan would like to see parents supporting their children more with their homework because "what students do in class is not enough, they must do more outside, and students left to themselves will not do that." Parents can play another role in helping their children to achieve success. She recounted that parents do not want their children to leave school without the skills needed to function in the workplace effectively, or to go on to college, but they need to cooperate with teachers to make this possible. Joan related that some students complain to their parents that the work is too difficult, and instead of those parents encouraging their children to put forth more effort and to persevere, they pressure teachers to lower standards to accommodate students. Some parents would go as far as to encourage their children to drop the class. The class is dropped and the students go into the workplace without the needed skills, and parents may bring litigation against the school. Joan is convinced, though, that parents are genuinely interested in their children's performance, but some cannot be intimately involved in it because of a number of reasons. They do not have the time, confidence, or energy to do so.

Some of the positives Joan experiences are the "excellent dialogue" she has with colleagues. She explained that all teachers at the high school have the same conference hour so they can sit and talk. She thinks this
is good because if one teacher needs to discuss something with another teacher he/she does not have to worry about interrupting another class. "Colleagues are available at this time every day." Another thing that is positive is having a good administrator. She defined a good administrator as one who makes the teachers' job easier by scheduling time for teachers for collaboration with each other.

A few parents and a few students make her teaching experience seem worthwhile with the commendations they give to her. She explained that there is one parent, for example, who has four girls. Three of those girls have taken classes with Joan. What that parent has done is to take each of those girls to the guidance counselor on entering high school and state, "My daughter will have that teacher." When the mother comes in for conferences, each time she would say, "My daughters just love you. They think you are the greatest." There is also a former student who visited Joan one day and told her, "I really appreciate what I got from you because it helped me." That young man is an electrical engineer in Boise, Idaho.

**Summary**

Joan's reasons for getting into teaching were based on a number of factors. One goes as far back as her home influence, especially her father who was always available to help with mathematics. Another reason was her own teachers
who were caring, set high standards, and helped her to see what her capabilities were at that time. The federal and state mandates on the teaching of mathematics have influenced her as a teacher. Her vision has affected how she views each student—as an individual to be treated with respect. Her teaching strategies, and her life as a teacher have been impacted by the vision. She is already working on things she would like to see happen in her classroom in the next 3 to 5 years.
CHAPTER VI

CASE STUDY III: BEV

Bev has been an elementary-school teacher for 11 years with special responsibility for the sixth grade. Her vision developed as a result of her home influences, school activities, and her experience with her sixth-grade teacher and her career guidance teacher. Her vision and style of teaching was particularly influenced by her sixth-grade teacher, who specialized in hands-on activities, an approach that appealed to her as she learned best by being actively engaged in her own learning. This strategy has influenced significantly the way she teaches.

Setting

Bev teaches sixth grade at the Delvins Seventh-day Adventist School in Michigan. The school houses 200 students, K-8. Kindergarten has 19 students, first grade 23; second grade, 24; third grade, 25; fourth grade, 21; fifth grade, 25; sixth grade, 22; seventh grade, 27; and eighth grade, 14. The Delvins Seventh-day Adventist school is self-contained with one teacher for each class. In addition to each classroom teacher, there are a choir teacher, an art teacher, and a full-time aide. The aide
teaches reading in the mornings to Grades 1-4 and teaches art from 1-4 p.m. There are several part-time teachers who come in to teach art, piano and violin. There is also a kitchen staff.

Bev’s sixth-grade class houses 11 boys and 11 girls. All the teaching is done in the sixth-grade classroom except for 4 days per week when the students change rooms to do science and art. While her sixth-grade students are doing either science or art, Bev teaches social studies to the seventh grade.

Bev

Bev has had a very positive school experience. She recalled that as a child in elementary school, and to a greater degree in high school, she was more concerned with a well-balanced education than with grades. Her parents did not place any unnecessary burden on her to do well. They stressed that she should do her best, but she was never criticized if she got a B or a C. It was all right with her parents and also with her. This confidence that her parents placed in her helped her in developing confidence in herself and the ability to "make lots of friends" and to be "involved in lots of extracurricular activities," mostly sports and in leadership in the areas of student association president and president of the student council.

Bev went to a "very small" high school and had "very positive" experiences there. After graduating from high
school she immediately went on to college and did a 5-year degree. She had a double major in elementary education and special education. She added that she always had jobs on the side to help pay her tuition—one of which was private-duty nursing and the other was to work at summer camps. She did that for four summers—2 years in high school and 2 years in college.

After Bev graduated from college she did not pursue a job immediately, but went to the Marshall Islands as a Seventh-day Adventist Volunteer. She spent a year there as a second-grade teacher. It was an "enriching experience for me both personally and professionally." She said that that experience gave her the opportunity to travel, which she took advantage of. After returning to the United States, she started working on Continuing Education when she was called to a job at Hinsdale, Illinois, and ended up staying there for 7 years, teaching the fifth and sixth grade. While there, the school experimented with a pull-out program in which students who needed extra help would come for that class period. Those who needed help with their homework and the intellectually gifted were also a part of that program. Bev gave a synopsis of what she did in that pull-out program. "With one student we did glass-blowing, with another we dissected frogs. Whatever was the interest of the child is what they would get to do." She was then called to
the Delvins Seventh-day Adventist school where she presently teaches. She has been a teacher for 11 years.

Teacher’s Vision

Bev also has a vision that guides her in the direction she should go as a teacher. The vision is clearly stated in the paragraph below.

To provide an enriching environment is the key. To provide opportunities for all students no matter what end of the spectrum they are on, whether they have learning problems or whether they are gifted. To make each of them recognize what their talents are and realize that they cannot be good at everything, but take pride in the things they can do and really try to develop those skills. To provide the kind of environment that provides a variety of experiences so that when they leave my classroom, they may have come across something that was difficult for them, as well as easy, and when they leave realize that they have value and they have talents. To pull in those students who are always on the fringes for whatever reason. (Bev, Vol. III, 1995).

How Vision Developed

Bev thinks that being the oldest child had something to do with the development of her vision. She remembered that as the oldest she was often in the role of helping her mom plan things--birthday parties, helping to play Santa Claus, being the person to hide the Easter baskets. "So I was always a kind of caretaker of my little brothers and sisters."

One of her strengths, she noted, was physical fitness, and she had always been involved in summer camps. She also liked the idea of being active and being around
young people. "I think my experience at summer camps and working with young people influenced that."

She remembered a class in high school, a Careers Planning Class, in which the students were sent to a school for handicapped children to do practical experience, and that "touched me." Seeing how the teachers could develop the strengths and help kids with difficulties to overcome them, become more productive, and help them fit in to the mainstream was an inspiration to her. The teacher played a very prominent role in providing her, along with other students, with those experiences in the different areas that they were interested in. "I remember her encouraging me and telling me I would be a good teacher."

Her camp directors and others who saw her active in the various activities told her that what they saw in her was positive and that she had a "way" with children. This also motivated her to think, "Well, maybe I will make a good teacher, maybe I will pursue this."

Elementary-School Teacher

Bev remembered her sixth-grade teacher in elementary school who was her "favorite" and whom she admired very much. In her "favorite" teacher's class, she remembered that students could try different things in her room, and it was never wrong. It was just another way of looking at things. Bev remarked that her teacher was "a lot of fun." She taught "with a lot of energy" and a lot of "enthusiasm,"
and she thinks that that was the "key." She credited liking science to this teacher. "I really ended up enjoying science because she was so enthusiastic, did a lot of hands-on activities, and that is the kind of learner I am." She recalled that teachers who stood up and lectured did not impress her because she had a hard time learning from them. The teachers who were interactive were the ones from whom she learned the most, and her favorite elementary teacher was one of those.

She remembered her as being "upbeat," "kind of relaxed" in her teaching, a "very project-oriented person" and that is why she remembered her so well. She believes that that is why that teacher stands out in her mind, and she tends to teach the same way, too.

**College Teacher**

Bev remembered fondly one teacher in college with whom she did not have a class, but one she considered as her mentor. Even though she did not spend long hours observing her, or taking classes with her, the teacher really showed an interest in her. Bev took one workshop from her, and her encouragement inspired her. She explained that the teacher was very affirming as far as her creativity was concerned. Bev indicated that she liked designing learning centers, and that teacher gave her the opportunity to do so. The teacher was "very open, willing to take the time, invited me to her room to observe and really took an interest in helping me
develop the project I was working on." Although she had good teachers in college, whom she loved and appreciated, she did not remember any of them really pulling her aside and pointing out her strengths.

Bev sees a teacher's vision as being idealistic. Her reason for this claim is that she thinks that some individuals probably get into teaching because they want to "change the world," to be "tools" in the lives of students so they can make a positive change. But she remarked that once teachers have been in the "trenches," these precious moments are not as abundant as they might have hoped. And while teachers cannot deny that they "inspire" and "motivate," those really precious moments that maybe they perhaps dreamed about or thought about doing in reality do not happen very often. Not that she thinks the vision is unattainable, "but it is harder than you thought."

When Bev was asked to comment on what the encouragement from her parents, teachers, and camp directors did for her, her response was that it built her self-confidence. She related that after the Careers Day experience she expressed her desire to be a teacher and that opened up the door to a lot of feedback.

Classroom Atmosphere

Bev's classroom atmosphere is conducive to learning. For example, the classroom is attractive, charts and posters represent what is presently being done in the class,
students' work is displayed, and learning centers are located at different places in the classroom. In some of the learning centers are samples of unfinished and finished assignments of students. There are some areas in the classroom in which students can retreat from the strictly academic to such "fun" activities as working on puzzles, games, and the computers when they have finished their assigned work and have been given permission by the teacher to do so. One thing worthy of note was that the teacher made the effort to create a pleasant environment for learning. Meaningful posters and charts in various subject areas add not only to the appearance of the classroom but present additional learning experiences for the students. Samples of students' assignments are displayed at strategic points in the classroom. Projects that students are presently working on or have completed are displayed.

There is very good rapport between the students and the teacher and among the students. For example, on one occasion the students challenged the teacher in class discussions, and it appeared as if this was normal. The students enjoy having the teacher involved with them in their games and other activities. Bev wanders around the classroom while the students work and so is able to identify those students who may be having problems with their work or with each other. When students are asked questions by the teacher, the students not only answer the questions, but are
willing to give their views on issues. The students are not afraid to challenge Bev with their questions and comments.

Most of the subjects taught had some form of practical experience. When asked if Bev did that for all subjects, she replied that there are only two subjects in which the students do not have some form of practical experience and those are English and handwriting. She explained that she uses the overhead for these two subjects and students do practice exercises. Those are the activities that the students like very much.

Challenging Students

Bev challenges her students in a variety of ways. Her motive is to provide meaningful learning experiences and structure for her students so that they can be responsible individuals. One of her greatest concerns is that students do not take responsibility for their actions. They always blame someone else. In order to discourage this, Bev prepares assignment sheets for her students listing all the subjects and assignments that are to be done for those particular subjects each day. There are some students who are conscientious and keep abreast of their assignments. But there are others whom the teacher has to give additional help or reminders. For those students whose work has been checked a second time and the work is not satisfactory, this assignment sheet goes home to their parents and has to be signed and returned as a one-time contract. These
assignment sheets also alert parents to the teacher's expectations and on those things she is going to follow through on.

Bev also tries to make the parents co-responsible by keeping in touch with them through phone calls and letters. Under the circumstances in which parents fail to help their children meet their deadlines, "I just make the day go smoothly for the child/children and let them feel that there is someone who is interested in them at school." Bev is aware that there are "some things just plain out of the reach of teachers," but it is worthwhile making the effort in the interest of the students.

She uses another strategy to make students aware that they are responsible for their actions. She tells them things such as, "You may not be able to control what is happening around you, but you can control how you will react to it." She has advised them that they should not look around them at the things other people are doing and use the excuse that their peers, their parents, and people in their community are doing those things. They can choose to behave differently.

Another means by which Bev challenges her students is by identifying areas of interest by conducting an interest inventory to find out what students like. Then she plans her learning activities around the interests of the students. Special provision is made for students who might
be gifted. In addition to what she does in class, Bev provides information for parents on gifted workshops, space camps, math and science workshops, and competitions and events that are happening locally. She also puts the parents in touch with the special education representatives for the particular districts. Bev stated that if students find something that they are interested in and are given the time and the opportunity, the teacher does not have to do a lot more. "If you find something that they are interested in and give them the tools to investigate it, then they will go with it."

Teaching Strategies

Cooperative learning

Cooperative learning is one of the strategies that Bev uses extensively in her classroom. Students work in large groups, small groups, and sometimes in pairs. In most of the classes observed, there was some form of group activity. Students worked well in their groups. The teacher interacted with the groups, offering suggestions and asking and answering questions. The students felt the teacher’s presence, and that helped to create an orderly environment. The groups were sent to various points in the room to work on various assignments.

Several learning activities take place in the classroom at the same time. For example, for a reading lesson the teacher grouped the students. One group of
students was with the teacher for reading at the front of the class, while others were working on their portfolios. The group with the teacher, called the "Eagles," was examining humor, in writing, and was also looking at rhythm, cadence, and rhyme. Bev had the students listen to the poems on tape while the students followed along in their textbooks. Individual students were asked to read the poems from their texts. Other students were then asked to identify rhythm, cadence, rhyme, and humor in the poems read. The students enjoyed the experience. When Bev was finished with that group, the students were sent to work on their portfolios, while the other group, the "Morning Stars," met with the teacher to go through the same process. At the end of the lesson, the students returned to their seats where the teacher concluded the lesson and asked the students to consider how they would dramatize the poems they were studying for the next class.

Unit teaching

Unit teaching is a strategy that Bev uses widely with her students. Several units were going on in her class in several subject areas, one of which was an author study. A different author is chosen for each month. Bev brings in all the resources necessary to stimulate student interest in that particular author. Some of the resources she brought were tapes, books, and pictures--anything that would help the students capture the excitement about these individuals.
Charts, posters, and pictures of the author were displayed on a bulletin board designed for that purpose.

One author students studied was Virginia Hamilton, a Black author from Pennsylvania. As a part of their assignment, the students had to bring in to class whatever they found about the author. They had to draw various African designs. These designs were laminated and displayed on the bulletin board with previous displays. Bev stated: "When we do an author study, we are not just reading the book, but we are getting an audio or video tape listening to an interview by the author on a particular book." The class goes beyond that and writes their own books/poems "modelling" this author's style.

Another example of a unit study done that is worthy of note is a social studies unit on the contributions of outstanding people in the United States and further afield. The presentation was also a group activity. Each group designated a representative who presented the topic to the class. The students knew prior to the presentation the criteria the teacher would use to judge their presentations. Each group was equipped with a picture of the person, some with slogans or phrases spoken by the person written on the posters. The participants went to the board, pinned his or her poster on the board, went to the podium, and made their presentations. Students incorporated their opinions and made applications for today. After the presentations, the
teacher gave feedback and commended the students. The students were modelling their teacher in the way she made presentations to them.

While some units are done over a 4-6 week period, others may extend over a quarter--such as the Egyptian unit. On entering the class, any onlooker would see cardboard boxes stacked in a corner, each with some type of Egyptian design covering one or more sides of the boxes. The stack of boxes represented an Egyptian pyramid. There were posters around the classroom on Egyptian art, pictures made by students, books and magazines brought in by the teacher, and an activity table at the back of the class with games and puzzles related to the topic. On another table at the side of the class were samples of pottery representing various aspects of Egyptian society.

In the class one day students were making Egyptian artifacts from clay. Those students who were finished working on their artifacts before the others were given permission to use the computer. While Bev helped students with their pottery, she assigned students to assist those who had problems with the computer. Bev confirmed that there are very few subjects without some element of a project--whether it is on-going or a culmination to a unit.

Advance Organizers

Bev uses advance organizers in her teaching. Before she begins the lesson she tells the students what the
objectives are and what she wants them to note as the lesson progresses. She gives the assigned reading and has students note objectives as they read. When the students are finished reading, questions are asked based on those objectives. The advance organizers are not given in abstract forms only, such as what the students are to note, but concrete examples such as drawings and pictures are used to enhance learning. Opportunity is given for students to practice what they have been taught. If the assignment is a project or group activity, mathematics, or English lesson, the students are given instructions. Adequate examples are given by the teacher and students are asked to suggest examples or work on examples. Most of the time is given for students to practice. This practice takes the form of problem solving or scenarios for students to analyze. Bev provides feedback for specific areas of the lesson or on students' performance.

Teaching to Learning Styles of Students

The learning styles of students are considered for each lesson taught. The teacher is conscious of learning style differences, so the lessons are planned to incorporate all four styles: the "innovative," "analytical," "dynamic," and "common sense" learners. Provision is made to maintain a balance and not to have it lopsided. This does not rule out lecture. Bev uses the lecture method to "share"
background information and to "spark" their interest, "get
them motivated," and to "whet their appetite."

Bev also related that although there are many
disadvantages of the lecture method, there are advantages.
Some of these are that some students are auditory learners
and need to have things explained to them. There are times
when the teacher has information to share, but her lectures
are supplemented with examples and activities.

She also related that although hands-on experience
is a very good strategy, it can have some disadvantages,
some of which are that students need to be taught how to
work with each other in groups, the roles people assume
within groups, the issue of who is in charge of the group,
the "bossy kid" who wants to do everything and tells
everybody what to do, and the kid who may be artistic and
does not include others, but does everything. She also
recounted that there is the issue of grades when students
work on a project. Although it is hands-on, it has to be
organized.

One of the reasons why she likes group activity is
that "it lends itself to sharing." At the end of the
activity, Bev asks for feedback, "What strategies did you
use?" "What did you learn from the experience?" "What
would you do differently?" "What did you find out about the
experience?" This aspect of sharing, she commented, is a
teaching tool for learning more from the activity than just
"sitting with pencil and paper and doing it one way." Bev stated that students also have the advantage of seeing how others in the group have learned to solve the problems.

Catering to Individual Differences

Bev is aware of the differences in the abilities of her students. She knows that there are average students, those students with learning problems, and those who are gifted. The practice is, she proposed, to "pull out," "exclude," "isolate" those students with learning disabilities. She suggested, based on the educational research she has been keeping abreast with, that "it is beneficial for the regular learner and the students at both ends of the spectrum to interact together." One of the dangers she sees in isolating a learning-disabled child or accelerating a gifted child is that "we are reinforcing the fact that they are different." This, she believes, will pose a problem for the students and their teachers later. Bev explained that if the gifted child, for example, is kept in the regular classroom he/she can "enrich" what the teacher is doing. The example given was "if the gifted child has a wide knowledge in science, he/she could maybe work on a project that could enrich what the teacher is doing in class. He/she could provide leadership to help other students in the class with the project or with classwork."
She related that there is the whole idea of maturation. Some students may be intellectually advanced, but they are not mature enough to fit in socially if they are promoted to a grade or two above their peers. She characterizes enrichment as being preferable for the gifted because it keeps them with their peers. Those who have learning disabilities will learn from their peers.

**Integrating Faith and Learning**

There are several ways in which faith and learning are integrated into Bev’s classroom outside of the Bible lessons. One way is indirect, through the teacher’s relationship with each student and how Bev treats them even when their behavior can be improved.

Bev is integrating faith and learning by the "Random Acts of Kindness" poster that is displayed at the front of the classroom with the pictures of each of the students attractively posted. The teacher and students are getting ready to run an "Random Acts of Kindness Campaign." The students are encouraged to do something good for each other without expecting something in return. Neither the teacher nor the students know what direct effect this may have on the students, their peers, as well as their parents.

Another way in which Bev integrates is through her worship sessions. Through these sessions students get the opportunity to develop self-confidence, discuss how to have a close relationship with God, and appreciate individual
differences. For example, some of the themes discussed in her worships are the author study, the friendship unit and multi-cultural units all encourage accepting differences and appreciating the accomplishments of others. She thinks that "employers are looking for those qualities now more than grades."

One of the things that Bev thought worthwhile to share was the leadership skills that students develop as a result of their participation in Weeks of Prayer and students' participation in worships. She also mentioned that parents are invited to make presentations, or to witness what the students have been doing. In this way the students recognize more fully that they are part of the wider community.

**Challenges of Realizing the Vision**

In spite of all her good intentions to realize her vision, Bev agreed that there are roadblocks. One of these is the time constraints that are placed on teachers. "Some of the things that are priority for the bureaucrats are not priority for teachers, and teachers are sometimes pressured to 'fit into their mold' to fulfill requirements."

Parental support is another factor. Bev feels that she may have all the "high expectations" for a student possible, but if there is no "self-motivation, no "self-will" and there is no support from the parents, "it is not
impossible, but it is certainly going to make the vision more difficult to attain."

Another way in which parents may assist teachers in realizing the vision is to know their children's capabilities so that they will not have unrealistic expectations. These unrealistic expectations could "place unwarranted pressures on the students," and in that situation the students could also "underachieve" because they have fears that they cannot live up to their parents' expectations. There is always the fear "that they are not good enough and that interferes with how hard they try."

Bev mentioned that students may have potentials for other things than what their parents wish for them. Added to that, she said, "they lose out on all the time where all the gifts or talents they are capable of and talented in are not developed and not promoted."

The teachers realize that some of the ideals they may have had were unrealistic and may be a factor that prevent them from realizing their visions. Other factors are grading papers, lack of planning time, and the students themselves. The students could become a problem for a number of reasons. Some of those listed are lack of interest, lack of motivation, and lack of parental support. "I think the breakdown in the family has contributed to a lot of disinterest in kids and low self-esteem, so they are not willing to try things and fail." Bev thinks that
students realize, too, "that there is probably less communication between them and their parents and they can get by with minimal performance, and many times, it goes unnoticed, so they can take advantage of the situation." Bev mentioned that some parents throw up their hands and say, "I don’t know what to do about it." She thinks that lack of parental support may not be there by choice, but because of the pressures that society places on them. "That makes a difference," she remarked.

Summary

Bev’s vision developed as the result of a combination of many experiences she had as a child at home, at school, and with other individuals with whom she associated. The confidence she developed is credited to her parents, who allowed her to be herself and expected nothing from her but her best. The influence she received from her teachers, although unconsciously at the time, made a significant impact on her. The camp directors with whom she worked during the summers saw potential in her and were not hesitant to let her know about it. The experiences gained as a teacher also have contributed to the formulation of her vision.

Having a vision, knowing the direction in which she is going, is one thing. What is important, she articulated, is how the vision has affected her educational practice. She is concerned about students’ physical, mental, social,
and spiritual development. This is reflected in her teaching style, her attitude about discipline, her relationship with students and parents, the creative ways in which she teaches her students, and the way she motivates her students. All these factors help to make her an outstanding teacher. She is one whom some students may classify as their ideal and be motivated to choose teaching as their profession as a result of her influence.
CHAPTER VII

CROSS-CASE ANALYSIS

Introduction and Overview

This study was prompted by interest in vision as it relates to the classroom teacher. That interest led to the reading of literature relating to vision. Most of the literature focused on the vision of an organization, or a school, or a manager or an administrator, but very little related to the visions of teachers. While the vision of the school influences teachers' visions, teachers have to formulate their own visions. It is from their personal visions that they function.

Interest in how teachers' visions develop and how the visions impact their educational practice led to more reading, but very little was found to support the theory that the vision a teacher has of the ideal teacher influences practices. There was, however, some literature about the teachers' common characteristics of "expert," "outstanding," or "ideal" teachers. A pilot study was conducted to determine if "expert," "outstanding," "ideal," teachers had visionary characteristics, and if they did, how they arrived at their visions and how their visions had
influenced their practices. The result of the pilot study was quite revealing. The teacher interviewed not only had a vision, but she could describe her vision, how and why she became a teacher, and how the vision developed as a result of the interaction with her former teachers.

The results of the pilot suggested the importance of extending the research to other teachers to see if a similar phenomenon would occur. The challenge that arose was how to find outstanding teachers. A professor in the Teaching and Learning Department was contacted and asked to identify outstanding teachers. Through discussion, teachers were identified. These were grouped into elementary, high school, private, and public school teachers. Nine teachers were identified. Seven were private school teachers and two were public school teachers. Contacts were made, appointments were set up, and interviews and observations ensued. The results led to the three case studies, which centered around four main questions:

1. Could you describe your vision as a teacher?
2. Could you describe how you became a teacher?
3. Could you explain why you became a teacher?
4. How has the vision influenced your educational practice?

From these four questions, others emerged as the interviews and observations progressed and culminated in the information on the three teachers and their visions.
Interviews and observations were conducted during the fall and winter quarters of 1994-1995. Each interview took 25 to 55 minutes and each observation took from 1 to 3 hours. The three case studies resulted.

The case studies are based on data gathered through ethnographic interviews and non-participant observations. Data collection and a limited analysis were done concurrently as the interviews and observations progressed. More detailed analyses were done as the domain, taxonomic, componential, and theme analyses were developed. Analysis continued as the cases were written and culminated in the writing of the cross-case analysis. Each case synthesizes the teachers' vision and explains how the vision developed, contains information on the characteristics of their former teachers, and shows how their teaching has been influenced by those teachers. In this chapter a cross-case analysis is done that delineates the commonalities and contrasts of the three cases. Case studies can provide human-interest perspective on the experiences of teachers. In that sense, they are valuable (Cohen, 1991).

Three Teachers

This study started with the theory that the vision teachers have of "ideal" teachers influences them to the extent that they are motivated to move towards the vision or to create an image for themselves. The vision is created from a number of sources that the teachers have identified.
Chuck, for example, credited his vision to that of his teachers--from kindergarten to college. For Joan, her English and mathematics teachers, with the support from her father and her desire from childhood to be a teacher, did the job. Bev, on the other hand, stated that her camp directors and the encouragement she received from her parents influenced her. But the greatest impact was made by her sixth-grade teacher and the affirmation received from her career guidance teacher.

Chuck teaches the third- and fourth-grade students who are more compliant. They will do many things to please the teacher and to make him/her happy. Bev has the sixth-graders who are thinking more independently and pose a greater challenge than Chuck’s third- and fourth-graders. Joan’s 10th-, 11th-, and 12th-graders present an even greater challenge since they are more affected by the pressures in the homes, in their respective communities, and by their peers than are the younger students.

Bev and Joan have greater tolerance for "working" noise in the classroom. Bev and Joan can teach with little pockets of conversation going on in their classes. Their rationale for doing that is that it is all right if they are working on assignments that those students already know how to do, or are busy explaining something to their peers, it is all right for the students. Chuck prefers a quiet classroom. If students have to talk, they do it in a
whisper. When they are working in their groups, the level of noise is minimal. Bev and Joan maintain discipline, but their classrooms are not as quiet as Chuck’s. Joan has five different sets of students whom she interacts with every day. This is not easy for her because she is working with adolescents who decide whether they want to learn or not. Observation of the classrooms showed it was obvious that the fourth period advanced algebra class and the math labs create the most challenge. What is worthy of note, though, is that she tactfully brings her students to the point where at least a compromise can be reached.

Another reason why disciplinary problems may surface more in Joan’s classroom is that the students who come to her from the third period have already made contact with at least two teachers. If they leave from a class upset or come from home upset, it poses a greater challenge. This does not imply that learning does not go on effectively in each of these classrooms. For Chuck, discipline is making students responsible for their own behavior. This has worked well for him. He reported that disciplinary problems are almost nonexistent in his class. The students have been taught acceptable ways of coping with their problems and the problems of each other.

In Chuck and Bev’s case, the students are with one teacher for most of the day, so there is opportunity build rapport. They meet with their own group of 20-25 students
each day. Joan, on the other hand, has to interact with approximately 115 students in a day. Hence, it places a greater strain on her, especially mentally, and emotionally. In a high school setting, teachers are a little more detached from their students. The caring, the nurturing may not be there except as teachers do or say something that may bring about change in a student or may motivate them through enthusiastic, dynamic presentation of lessons.

One of the qualities each teacher values from experiences with former teachers is knowing the reason why students were learning a particular subject, or anything that might be thought irrelevant. This is one of the things each teacher passes on to students.

Chuck and Bev are not only involved with their students in the learning process in the classroom but on the playground and in their extracurricular activities as well. Being adept at physical education and sports, Chuck and Bev become involved in the after-school sports' events of their students. Joan has an excellent rapport with her students, but she becomes less involved in their extracurricular activities, unless they are sponsored by the school.

Chuck, Joan, and Bev are confident teachers. They know what they want for themselves and for their students. They have visions and they set goals that are consistent with their visions, which helps them to reach their goals. They do not become intimidated by state mandates and school
policies. What is good they accept, and what they think will not work is discarded and replaced with something that they think will work best for their students.

Chuck and Bev teach in parochial settings so their faith is easily integrated with their practice. They are fortunate to be able to cater to the intellectual, social emotional, physical, and spiritual development of their students. It is a lifestyle for them. Joan is in a public school setting so she is unable to appeal directly to the spiritual development of her students. What she does, though, is model the kind of behavior she expects from her students.

The classroom is one place where the teachers feel fulfilled, especially when they see evidences of change in students' attitudes toward their work and each other. Good interpersonal relationships—mutual respect between teachers and between students and their peers are important to them. Bev and Chuck have a number of non-teaching responsibilities at school and in their communities. When the interviewees list was compiled, one of the warnings received was that they were all busy people and might not have time for other activities. The common characteristic of busy people was again realized. They could fit one more activity into their tight schedule if they thought it was important.

The teachers attend seminars and workshops periodically to keep current professionally. Joan has
excellent rapport with her colleagues, which, she stated, makes it easier for her to discuss concerns and get feedback. This is made possible by an understanding administrator who has put an hour into the schedule each day as a conference hour for teachers. Joan articulated that she judges a good administrator by the efforts put forth to make teachers' work easier. Raywid (1993) conveyed that if schools are to remain "un-stuck," then teachers must have time for sustained collaborative reflection on school practice, condition, and events. This is not the same for Chuck and Bev. They are both elementary teachers who are in their classes most of the time. They are more isolated. Their collaboration with colleagues may be less structured. What follows is a topical description of the commonalities and contrasts of how the visions of these three teachers have influenced their practice.

Creating an Environment

Brandt (1994), in conversing with Al Manay, a former superintendent of schools regarding why his school system flourished, noted that creating a good environment in which everybody was considered in partnership with the operation as one of the reasons for his success.

Chuck, Joan, and Bev created the type of environment that they hope will make learning possible for each of their students, but they differed in their approach. Chuck provides a caring, non-threatening environment for his
students. His classroom is well-laid out and attractive. There is a place for everything, and everything is in its place. He is an organized, structured person. He credits his success as a teacher to the organization and structure he received from his former teachers. Chuck believes that the cooperation he receives from his students in the classroom results from the structure and organization he provides for his students. This structure and organization was modeled by his former teachers. This is a part of the vision he has for his students and he is seeing it being realized in his classroom.

Chuck expressed that he does not tolerate students picking on each other in his classroom. He wants his students to feel secure in his classroom. They are taught how to cope with their individual problems and problems with each other. He makes it very easy for his students to approach him by being kind to them and taking a special interest in each of them. He has developed a rapport with them so it is easier for them to disagree with him, make comments, or offer suggestions related to the lesson and not feel threatened.

Bev, on the other hand, has a less structured classroom, but an effective and warm environment. She has to cater to the needs of students of different ethnic and cultural backgrounds, in addition to personality conflicts that can ensue. What Bev is most concerned about is that
the students respect each other and do not become distracted. She ensures that students know how to cope with individual differences by the fair treatment she gives to students and by the various units developed, in which students have to relate to each other and study and discuss situations in which these ideas are emphasized.

Joan's classroom is the least structured, but nonetheless pleasant. She has developed strategies to ensure that her students are happy and secure in her classroom. For example, she has posted encouraging slogans and mottos, which are meant to foster good interpersonal relationships. One is "No put downs." Every effort is made to accept the differences in each of her students, and she treats each one as an individual. She pointed out that there are also class rules that she makes certain are not violated in her presence. She believes in modeling the type of behavior she expects from her students. For example, in one of the interviews she mentioned that the students are not supposed to eat or drink in class, so she does not bring in a soda or a cup of coffee and drink in the class.

Cooperative Learning Strategies

All three teachers have cooperative learning activities for their classes. They believe that students learn more from interaction with each other than individually or from the teacher. Their groups work effectively because they teach their students how to
cooperate with each other. Chuck, Joan and Bev pointed out in the interviews that students learn better when they interact with each other. This is corroborated with the observations made. Cooperative groups enable them to fulfil those parts of their visions that state that all students can learn and all students can achieve.

Chuck’s classes sit in groups continuously. These groups are not ability groups but groups students have formulated with directives from the teacher. These groups are changed periodically. Chuck disclosed that the students seem to want to get to know each other better, and, more often than not, there are no isolates, except when the teacher assigns a number to groups that is not equal to the number of students. Students are encouraged to confer with each other even when they are working individually on some assignments. Students are allotted adequate time so that they can discuss their assignments with each other. When discussions are facilitated by Chuck, he prepares questions that will encourage students to think in order to give the answers. All students’ answers are important.

Bev uses cooperative group activity in most of the subject areas. Science, social studies, reading, art, mathematics, and poetry are avenues through which groups in her class function. Students in Bev’s class sit in rows, but when it is time for group work they are sent to, or choose, different locations in the room from which to
operate. Sometimes they form different configurations with their desks, based on the activity in which they are about to engage. Bev's main reasons for allowing students to sit in groups is because as they learn from their peers, learning is reinforced. They are helping their classmates, and that lends itself to sharing. At the end of a typical group activity she asks questions such as: "What strategies did you use to solve the problem?" "What did you learn from the experience?" "What would you do differently the next time you meet as a group?" The most important result is that they see how each other solves problems.

Joan is the least structured in using cooperative groups, which are used more informally. One of the reasons cited is that students become too dependent on others. She refers to that dependence as having a "big teddy bear," or they cannot function. Joan confessed that although her students sit in rows, when they have to work together they move the desks to accommodate group activity. Although they work individually for quizzes and tests, for class and homework assignments they are encouraged to confer with their classmates. While she and the students are correcting assignments on the board or on the overhead and some students have already done the corrections, they are free to work with other students. She believes that if students are encouraged to work cooperatively on a daily basis, they should be able to work together on quizzes and tests. One
of the ideas that she is considering for the near future is to prepare quizzes and tests that give students the opportunity to work cooperatively using the computer. She is convinced that cooperative learning is the best form of learning.

**Teaching and Learning Styles**

Children (and adults) differ in their learning style preferences. The pioneering work of Howard Gardner has suggested that humans possess multiple intelligences. Teachers who present information in various ways are more likely to meet diverse learning needs (Feden, 1994).

Chuck, Joan, and Bev use various avenues through which students receive information. Each person’s way is unique. Chuck’s classroom is set up for what he calls "learning by osmosis." He explained that he places charts and posters at strategic points in his class. Some he draws students’ attention to, and others he just leaves, and students who are curious will gravitate toward those. They are learning without him. Another strategy that he uses to capture students’ interests and to reach particularly those students who are very timid, is to involve them in out-of-school activities like art expos, speech and spelling contests, and sporting activities in which students have the potential to excel. Posters and collages are some of the things he develops with his students. Instead of students reading stories from textbooks, Chuck encourages them to
write their own stories and illustrate them based on topics of student interest. These stories are shared with others in the class. He uses a lot of manipulatives in the teaching of mathematics. Lecture is used sparingly. It is used only to teach new concepts or to share information with the students that could not be passed on in any other way. Chuck has an informal way of incorporating learning styles in the classroom while Bev’s way is more formal.

Bev related that there are only two subjects for which practical experiences are not being used. They are in handwriting and English. She uses the overhead to teach new concepts and to work on examples. She is aware of the learning styles of each student and so incorporates teaching strategies that would challenge the "innovative" who need to be given a reason to learn; the "analytical" learners who need facts and information; the "common sense" learners who need to try things out to see how they work; and "dynamic" learners who like to engage in self-discovery. Some of the avenues she uses to meet those learning styles are unit and project-oriented activities, journaling, and portfolios. It does not take an observer long to realize that the learning styles of students are being considered in her class.

As a mathematics high-school teacher, Joan uses more lectures than Bev and Chuck, but she emphasized in the interviews, and it was also observed, that her lectures are interspersed with lots of examples. She also explains how
these mathematical principles relate to the students' everyday experiences. Students also provide examples.

Mathematics for Joan is a puzzle. Joan wants her students to think critically. This is a part of her vision that she is working toward. Every class period is another opportunity for her to fit another piece of the puzzle into the students’ minds. The main strategy she uses is problem-solving. She places the responsibility on students to solve their own mathematical problems. Her main style is what she calls "backdoor teaching." "Backdoor teaching" means that when the students asks her a question, she answers it with another question. She confessed that she does not answer students’ questions; she leads them to the place where they find their own solutions. If students come to her with an unsolved mathematical problem, the first thing she does is to ask them what they did and how they approached the problem. She claims that her students have learned not to ask her about a problem unless they have tried to solve it on their own. In that way, she said, her students are becoming critical thinkers. She explained that this helps the students to see how mathematics relates to their individual lives.

Joan wants her students to fulfill requirements the hard way. This means that students are given the opportunity to think through and solve difficult problems themselves. She wants her students to face the challenges
they will meet in the workplace and in their respective communities. She stated that problem-solving skills will enable students to develop self-confidence and that every success they experience will boost their self-esteem. When students develop self-confidence and their self-esteem improves, it is easier for teachers to motivate them and get their cooperation. This will affect the way they learn. When students enjoy their learning experience, teachers more readily will be able to achieve goals that they have set in order to achieve the vision. Thinking through and solving difficult problems gives her the satisfaction that the students are moving in the direction she wants for them. They are meeting the standards she has set for them.

Aspy, Aspy, and Quinby (1993) in their article "What Doctors Can Teach Teachers About Problem-Based Learning?" stated that doctors can teach teachers a lot about problem-based learning. In problem-based learning, teachers become resources for processes rather than sources of answers to be memorized in order to pass tests. With little additional cost, medical schools are starting to put students in small groups and help them solve the real problems they will face in treating patients. According to research data, classroom dynamics change fundamentally, students learn as many facts as those in traditional classes, but they enjoy their studies more (Kaufman, Waterman, & Duban, 1989). Aspy et al. (1993) enjoined that it is an approach to learning that

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can happen without a new course of study, a mandate from the state legislature, or a large budget increase, and it is a model that all educators can apply with training and some modification of curriculum.

**Technology in the Classroom**

Technological tools can foster students’ abilities, revolutionize the way they work and think, and give them new access to the world (Peck & Dorricott, 1994). The three teachers made use of technology in their classrooms. Chuck, Joan, and Bev used computers, overheads, tape recorders and VCRs in their rooms as teaching tools. Bev allows her students to use the computer to work on projects and also as a reward system. After students have successfully completed their assignments, they can work on something of their choice. Joan uses the computer as a tool for solving mathematical problems. In the mathematics laboratory, this is the main teaching tool she uses to get the remedial students on course again to improve basic computational skills so that they can work again with their peers.

The students are taught how to make technology work for them in solving difficult problems. What Joan is presently doing with her math classes is encouraging and showing the students how to use the computer to figure out problems that would challenge them significantly without its use. She is trying to convince the students to view technology as a tool rather than as an answer-maker. She
has instructed her students that the technology is there to ease the burden of calculation and to continue to inspire students to say, "Oh I understand this and develop questions from the original." By doing this, they can question on their own, develop their own ideas, see patterns, and see how everything fits together, using the technology. She is an active learner with her students in making the technology work for them.

Parents: Partners in Student Learning

Research shows that parent involvement in the school results in improved student achievement. Research on parent/family involvement leaves little room for debate: Students who are academically successful tend to receive consistent support from their parents and other adults in the home (Dixon, 1992; Loucks, 1992; Winlock, 1994).

The three teachers voiced that parental support is key to their teaching. Concern over not having more parental support is a major issue for all of them. Lack of parental support has made it more difficult for them to realize their visions. They have all developed strategies to make parents co-responsible for their children's success. Chuck and Bev send letters home to parents highlighting the activities students are engaged in and soliciting feedback. Chuck also sends home a copy of the school rules at the beginning of the school year and expects feedback from the parents. He designs some assignments that parents are
supposed to discuss with their children and then sign, signifying that they have gone through the assignment with their children. Another means through which he communicates with the parents is by sending home a "tardy" sheet with students' unfinished assignment so that they can be aware of their child's progress. Parents who are delinquent in signing those slips are called in for a conference with the teacher.

One of the strategies Bev uses is to prepare assignment sheets for each student. The assignment sheet is comprised of the days of the week with the names of all the subjects and space to write their assignments. There is also space provided for parents' signatures. Bev picks up assignments at least every 2 days. If the assignments are not turned in promptly, she issues a late slip, which is stapled to the unfinished assignment and sent home to the parents. This has proven effective. Parents have given positive feedback on the effectiveness of the late slip. Some have communicated to her that they like it because it is simple and quick to read, and because they do not have to look at all their children's assignment at once--it is more convenient for them. They see it only if students have tardy or missing assignments. They also like it because it is a day-to-day check on students' progress, and they are given the opportunity to find out about students' progress
before it is too late. This is one of the forms of contact she uses to make parents co-responsible.

Joan, on the other hand, appeals to her students' maturity to make them responsible for their own learning. One way in which she does that is to encourage them to do a self-inventory at the end of each day to determine if they have done their best. If they have not, they have the power within them to improve on the day's experience by deciding to do better the following day. Joan noted that this is something she does at the end of every day. Because she is working with young adults, she places the responsibility on them. She believes that her work would be less stressful if more parents and guardians were supportive of their children with their homework. The teachers view parental support or home influences as one of their greatest areas of concern. They are convinced that what happens to students before and after they leave school helps or hinders students' progress.

**Teacher Vs. Student-Centered Classrooms**

According to the prevailing wisdom on the subject, John Goodlad (1984), Ken Macrorie (1984), and others have investigated the behaviors of expert teachers and found that they made their students accountable. Their primary goal is to empower their students. Goodlad's (1984) expert teacher makes the classroom a place where students participate in self-directed learning, where they offer a variety of instructional activities and small group work. Great
teachers, according to Goodlad, provide a student-centered classroom. The value of this research is that it presents a picture of what this looks like in real classrooms.

The three teachers in this study provide student-centered classrooms, but they are also teacher-centered classrooms. Although they cater to the needs of the students, treat them as individuals, and make them co-responsible for their learning, they all, by implication, exhibit that they are in control. This is not the oppressive type of control. One knows that they are in command of their classrooms because while they are teaching and wandering around the class, they can spot potential problems and avert them before they are full-blown. Kounin (1970), as a result of watching and analyzing videotapes of real classrooms and by comparing what teachers did in successful classrooms, uncovered techniques for managing classrooms. The teachers are demonstrating what Kounin (1970) calls "withitness." In every case the teachers kept an invisible control, tightening and loosening when necessary. Even when the students interacted with each other, challenged comments made by the teachers, or engaged in problem-solving activities, the teacher tacitly remained the central figure. This is especially true in Chuck's case. He is not oppressive, but his presence is felt in his classroom.
Original Teachers

The three teachers profiled in this study have strong reputations in their communities. They are known for their enthusiasm, the unique ways in which they teach, their creativity, their flexibility, and their love for students and teaching. Bev is known for her aptness with hands-on activities and sporting events. Chuck intimated during the interviews that he is criticized for doing too much with his class, but that he just cannot do anything else but his best. Part of his vision is, "All students can learn and all students can achieve." If this is to be realized, he must use whatever means it takes to achieve the vision. He wished there were more hours in the school day to get through the exciting things he wants to do with his students. He is not intimidated by others' comments.

Joan's fame has been scattered concerning the high expectations she has for her students and how she challenges them. She mentioned that her style of teaching is not used by other teachers in her school, so some parents and some students become disgruntled at times. She reported that one parent called to inform her that she does not belong in a high school, but a community college. She declared that her standards are high, but every effort is made to bring students up to meet those standards. Joan mentioned in her vision statement that she is there to guide her students, but that she wants them to take the initiative. Although
her standards are high she would make every effort so that
her students can achieve those standards.

Cohen (1991) argued that teachers who are original
are regarded with suspicion and disapproval. The more
conventional the teacher, the more palatable he or she is to
others. She advised that instead of imposing sameness on
faculties, schools need to recognize what is unique about
these teachers and find ways to cultivate it.

Chuck, Joan, and Bev are teachers with visions who
display their visionary qualities in their unique ways and
inspire students to view learning not only as a challenge
but also as fun. They are involved with their students in
curricular and extracurricular activities. There is a close
link between the home and these teachers. They are service-
oriented. Most important, they model that teaching is
serious business. For each of these teachers there is a
"feeling of family." They are developing a community of
students who are taking responsibility for their own
education and for helping their peers in the process.

Summary

The three teachers in this study have visions that
they can articulate and that are modeled in and out of their
classrooms every day. These visions are developed from a
number of sources, but the strongest influence has been that
of their former teachers. They have expressed that the
vision is dynamic. It is constantly changing. As new ideas,
educational trends, and policies are introduced, they have to adjust their goals to attain the vision. Their visions are communicated to students, parents, colleagues, school administrators, and their communities directly and indirectly. Their visions have taken on several realities that are reflected in every facet of their educational practice.
CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter contains statements based on the interviews and observations done with the three teachers and gives a summary of the study. The conclusions are summarized under different categories. The conclusions of the study are followed by personal reflections and a listing of the implications of how the visions of ideal teachers could affect teachers, school administrators, and educational researchers. Some recommendations are given for further study.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to describe how and why outstanding teachers with visions of an ideal teacher have chosen teaching as their profession and articulate how these visions have influenced their educational practices. Those practices have been described.

This study is significant because it gives insight into how teachers’ visions impact their lives and influence their educational practices. It is significant because it motivates teachers to give careful consideration to the
importance of vision in their careers. It is also significant because a study of vision and how it impacts the lives of teachers has not been researched before; hence, it may arouse the interest of school administrators, supervisors, and researchers to view vision as a concern not only from their perspective--that of "the superordinate"--but from that of the "subordinate." It may be the catalyst for future researchers to investigate teachers' visions in greater detail.

The procedure followed for conducting this study was a multiple case study approach. Spradley's (1979) methods for conducting interviews, from choosing the informant to writing the ethnographic report, were used, while Yin's methods for writing case studies were followed. Observations were also done in each of the three classrooms. The process began with a pilot study, which provided familiarity with the process and gave insights into possible pitfalls. After the pilot, three outstanding teachers were chosen who had a vision and were willing to be included in the study. After the teachers were identified and contacted and their principals and teachers gave permission for the study to be conducted in their respective schools, the interviews and observations began.

Analysis of data began after the first interviews and observations were begun and continued until the writing of the report. The analysis concluded with a cross-case
analysis that revealed the similarities and differences between each teacher's experiences. The teachers reported that some of the special skills developed in teaching can be credited to their ideal teachers, and have influenced their educational practice. They have developed special skills in making their students more responsible, catered to the individual needs of learners, developed problem-solving skills in their students, helped the students to develop tolerance for each other's differences, helped students to learn by puzzling, made learning a pleasant experience and an active endeavor, and provided a variety of experiences and opportunities for all students. They differed in the area of discipline. Two of the three teachers taught in the elementary school where students are more willing to please their teachers. It was different with the high-school teacher. She taught adolescents and young adults who were a little more difficult to manage. The two elementary school teachers taught in schools with enrolments of 120 and 200 students respectively. The high-school teacher teaches in a school with an enrolment of 433 students, 115 of which she interacts with each day in her classroom. The high school teacher has the greatest opportunity for collaborating with colleagues. Her principal has made provision for this by placing in the schedule 1 hour each day where teachers can plan for their students. For the two elementary school teachers, collaboration is not so structured.
Conclusions

Teachers' Vision

The three teachers have visions that they developed from a number of factors, but the influence of former teachers has impacted them in a marked way in choosing to become teachers. Their teaching experiences were shaped by teachers from kindergarten through college. Their visions are compelling and motivate them to action. Because they know the direction in which they are going, they allow nothing to get them sidetracked. They tend to model the teaching styles of their "ideal" teachers, but modify them to fit the context, the needs of their students, and current educational trends.

Trustworthiness

The teachers articulate their visions in various ways. The teachers feel that their students, their colleagues, the parents, and their school administrators know what their visions are and some of the goals they have set to attain their visions. This allows for better communication between these various groups and trust is developed. The teachers believe that their administrators trust them, because when the teachers behave in ways that may not be reasonable to administrators, the administrators give them the benefit of the doubt because the teachers have a track record of knowing where they are going. They implied that they are trusted by their principals. They are
allowed to take risks. As Bev stated, she sometimes goes along with what her principal says just to please him. She further stated that once the school administrator has confidence in a teacher, and the teacher can defend his/her position, the teacher is given an opportunity to try new things. This makes it easier for the teachers to face and accept challenges.

Accepting Challenges

The teachers alluded to the fact that accepting challenges is a way of life for them. The varied talents, abilities, and personalities set the stage for them to examine their own teaching styles. They accept responsibility for their actions and are accountable to the various publics for their students' success, but they then place the responsibility on their students and make them accountable for their own successes.

One of the challenges that they have to face is their own lack of knowledge. They seek out ways through collaboration with colleagues, reading, in-service training, professional development activities, and continuing education to remain relevant. They expose their students to a wide variety of experiences inside and outside of school. Challenges are stepping stones to greater experiences for them.
Classroom Environment

These three teachers have developed environments conducive to learning. The mental image they create for their students is made real in their classrooms. Their visions motivate them to create a supporting environment for their students. A conscious effort is made to create a secure environment for all of their students. One of the ways in which they do this is to set guidelines that modify how students behave and their interactions with each other. They realize that while the students are with them, it is their responsibility to provide structure for their students, to inspire, to motivate, to teach the students how to prioritize, to set goals, and to plant seeds of responsibility that are preparing them for the future.

They provide the overall structure for their students so that it becomes easier for them to function at their maximum capacities. The teachers give students options. All three teachers believe that all students can learn and all students can achieve. These qualities help to make their classrooms centers where inquiry is fostered and encouraged to continue at home and in their communities.

Providing Feedback

The teachers provide lots of feedback for their students on the things they do well, and dwell less on the negative aspects of their students' behavior. They give lots of commendations, provide opportunities for students to
stretch above and beyond what they are capable of doing. They stated that they knew what their potentials were because their own teachers had provided feedback for them. This they valued, and such feedback helped them to be sensitive to the far-reaching effects of positive feedback on their students. They believe that providing feedback is fulfilling a part of their vision.

These three teachers not only give feedback but they valued the feedback they received from their students on what they liked or disliked. The three teachers argue that they would welcome more feedback, especially from parents. Chuck related that when he gets feedback on what he is apparently doing right or wrong as a teacher, he appreciates it immensely. He stated that he does not get as much feedback about his teaching as he would like.

Chuck, Joan, and Bev were happy for the interview process. They commented that they have never been asked how or why they became teachers, or asked about their vision as teachers. They expressed that they were gratified by the experience and that they learned a lot about themselves as teachers. They were given the opportunity to examine their teaching styles and how they did things. According to Chuck, "the new ideas, the self-evaluation has just been wonderful. I would do it again." They see it as a process all teachers should go through at some point in their teaching experiences.
Policies

Policies that these three teachers perceive will not benefit their students are ignored. These teachers know that the students are the ones who are always caught in the middle and so they do what they think is best for their students. They do not wait for school administrators, curriculum specialists or policy makers to pass down information to them. They read, they discuss with colleagues, and they keep current professionally. They always have new ideas to make their teaching relevant.

In discussing some of the challenges that may affect teachers’ visions, one that surfaced was that they were not happy when mandates were handed down to them by individuals who are far removed from the classroom because they are unrealistic. One teacher pointed out that, for a number of years, those who pass these mandates down are not acutely aware of what presently happens in the classroom. Joan prefers that teachers be asked for input. Teachers know what they want their students to achieve. They have to create the strategies to make their visions real. Hence, they should be included. This, they believe, would make education more relevant and their ideas more likely to be adhered to.

Individual Differences of Students

These teachers become perturbed when their students do not accomplish what they had hoped. Their visions allow
them to "see" potential in students and cater to their individual needs. This provides the opportunity for them to examine their teaching styles and the learning styles of their students and then teach to the abilities. They think they have the tools to cope with the abilities of all the students in their classes. They know their students. If they do not have the tools to cope with the intellectually gifted or learning disabled, they know to whom they can refer parents of these students to meet these special needs.

Community Approval

Chuck, Joan, and Bev have strong reputations in the schools and communities in which they work. They are known for having command of their subject matter, for their teaching styles in the classroom, and for maintaining very good classroom discipline. They expose their students to a wide variety of experiences. The three teachers' visions take various forms and members of their communities show appreciation for their contributions.

Technology in the Classroom

These teachers are taking advantage of the advancement in technology. As technology advances, they are willing to change their visions to keep abreast of the current trends in technology. They are willing to face the challenge of learning along with their students. They know how to make the technology work effectively for them.
Personal Reflections

There are several personal reflections that have been formulated as a result of this study.

1. Vision is a key component in outstanding teachers' repertoire of skills.

2. The teacher's vision changes to meet the educational challenges of the times.

3. The visions of teachers help them understand more clearly how their actions relate or contribute to educational goals.

4. Teachers with "ideal" visions emphasize success of their students as their primary concern.

Implications

This study has stimulated me to further reflect upon ideas that have implications for educational practice. These implications are mainly for teachers, school administrators, and researchers. The following lists are suggestions not necessarily directly flowing from the data.

Teachers

1. Opportunity should be provided for teachers to articulate how and why they became teachers and to articulate their visions so that they can get their ideas in the open so that they can be examined.

2. Teachers should develop a networking system in which they share imaging and visionary techniques. There
are other teachers who may need help in planning for the
future and would be willing to receive help in clarifying
and explaining the value of the process.

3. Teachers should develop awareness that future
teachers are being prepared in their classes every day, and
they have a responsibility to demonstrate in their teaching
and by modeling that teaching is an honorable profession, so
that some of the best minds will want to stay in the
profession rather than pursue other careers.

School Administrators

1. School administrators might be interested in the
visions teachers have and what goes on in their classrooms.
It would motivate them to help teachers in polishing their
visions. These teachers will able to contribute to the
future of the school because they have had results from
their visionary experiences.

2. Teachers should be provided with incentives to
remain current and stay in the profession. Visionary
teachers are creative individuals. It is sometimes taken
for granted that these individuals need to remain current.

Researchers

Researchers should base more of their studies on the
outstanding aspects of what is happening in classrooms and
report these findings in terms that teachers, parents, and
school administrators can understand, because many of the
studies that have been done on teachers and their teaching have focused on the negative. More research on success stories in teaching needs to be done so that there can be a balance in reports. More success stories are there than what some researchers choose to report on.

Atkins (1989) and others have pointed out that recent trends toward acknowledging the wisdom and experience of teachers have tended to be superficial. What they are advocating is that policy makers capitalize on the knowledge of teachers who have visionary qualities and include them in making policies and decisions on what should be included in teacher-education programs.

**Recommendations for Further Study**

1. This study should be extended to a larger number of teachers. Two private school teachers and one public school teacher were interviewed and observed.

2. First-year teachers as well as experienced teachers should be included in a future study. The three teachers interviewed were experienced teachers. Examining the phenomenon from the perspective of 1st- and 2nd-year teachers would benefit future research. This may help them to decide whether they want to pursue teaching as their career.

3. College and university professors should also be interviewed to see if they also have a vision of ideal teachers that influenced them in some way. The study focused
on two elementary-school teachers and one high-school teacher. It would be interesting to find out how and why college and university teachers became teachers and how their visions were developed. It would give support to the idea that every leader needs to have a compelling vision in order for him/her to adequately plan for and lead groups into the future.
APPENDIX A

LETTER AND CONSENT FORM
Andrews University  
School of Education  

November 29, 1994  

Mr. William Jackson  
The Principal  
The Good Shepherd Lutheran School  
Michigan, 49103  

Dear Mr. Jackson:  

I am a student at Andrews University pursuing a  
Ph.D. in Educational Administration and Supervision. I am  
presently writing my dissertation on the topic "Vision and  
the Ideal Teacher: Implications for Educational Practice."  
This dissertation involves the conducting of interviews and  
observations of teachers who are very good at teaching and  
have been recommended by teachers who have known them and  
have followed up their progress.  

. . . has been recommended as one of those  
teachers. He has been contacted and has kindly consented to  
be interviewed and observed.  

I am therefore seeking permission to come into the  
school and conduct this study. I can assure you that  
interruptions of the class program will be minimal.  

Thank you very much for your cooperation.  

Sincerely,  

Rosalind Aaron  
Researcher
Andrews University  
School of Education  
Informed Consent Form

1. I understand that I have the right to revoke this authorization and stop the interview at any time.

2. I understand that all information I give is strictly confidential and will be available to no one else but the researcher.

3. I understand that the research will involve being interviewed and observed and that the content of the interviews and the observations does not necessarily reflect the philosophy of the school, but the researcher’s.

4. I understand that the information obtained from the interviews and observations is for the sole purpose of research and evaluation of a teacher’s vision of an "ideal" teacher and will not be of any harm to me in any way, now or in the future.

5. I hereby volunteer to participate in the research project being done by Rosalind Aaron, from Andrews University.

6. I understand that there are no risks involved in the research.

Consenting Participant: ____________________________ Non-Consenting Participant: ____________________________
Signature: ____________________________ Signature: ____________________________
Date: ____________ Date: ____________

Interviewer’s Signature: ____________________________
Date: ____________

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APPENDIX B

NARRATIVE AND DATA ANALYSIS
NARRATIVE OF DATA ANALYSIS

This narrative will highlight the systematic approach taken through the analysis of data from domain analysis to the identification of cultural themes. The domain analysis is the first form of analysis in the Development Research Sequence (DRS). According to Spradley (1979), much care has to be taken as it is the most difficult form of analysis in the research sequence.

Whereas in other social science research there is a well-known sequence of selecting a problem, formulating hypotheses, collecting data, analyzing data, and writing up of results follow sequentially, in an ethnographic interview, the interviewer has to go back at each stage to begin the other. They all must go on at the same time.

The ethnographic sequence involves selecting a problem, collecting cultural data, formulating ethnographic hypotheses, and writing the ethnography.

**Selecting the problem.** The problem is based on a general theory of culture. Sometimes the ethnographer might narrow the problem after reviewing the ethnographic literature. But it would still take the same form: What are the cultural meanings people are using to organize their
behavior and how to interpret this aspect of their experience?

**Collecting cultural data.** This phase begins before any hypotheses have been formulated. The ethnographer begins asking descriptive questions, making general observations, and recording these in field notes.

**Analyzing cultural data.** Within a short time after collecting the data the analysis begins. It consists of reviewing field notes to search for cultural symbols, and to search for relationships among these symbols.

**Formulating ethnographic hypotheses.** Although ethnographers formulate hypotheses to test, these hypotheses arise from the culture studied. They are ethnographic hypotheses that must be formulated after collecting initial data. They propose relationships to be tested by checking what informants know. Before going on to a new phase of research, the ethnographer must go back and collect more cultural data, analyze it, formulate new hypotheses, and then repeat these stages all over again.

**Writing the ethnography.** Although writing the cultural description will come at the end of the research, it can well stimulate new hypotheses and send the researcher back for more field work. Writing in one sense is a refined process of analysis. A domain is a symbolic category that includes other categories in a domain. This is the first and most important unit of analysis in ethnographic
research. The first activity is to look for a cover term or names for categories. All terms related to this domain are listed. The next feature that is carried out is to look for a semantic relationship. The semantic relationship links a cover term to all included terms in the set. Because the domain analysis is the most difficult, a preliminary search is done. This familiarizes the researcher with possible domains and helps the researcher to move on easier to a more systematic search based on an understanding of semantic relationships. The first table in the data analysis explains this process.

The first step in searching for domains is to select a paragraph of the verbatim notes that is transcribed, a few sentences or a few sentence fragments. The second step is to look for names for things. This involves reading through the transcriptions to look for folk terms that name things. These terms are underlined, written on separate sheets of paper, or written in the margin of notes. Only the names that stand out are noted. Having completed the preliminary search for one domain the same process is used for additional domains.

The initial step in the domain analysis was to select a single semantic relationship. After a number of domains were located, the transcriptions were examined for informant-expressed semantic relations. Not many informant-expressed semantic relationships were found so the universal
semantic relationships were used. The most popular semantic relationships found, were the strict inclusion (X is a way to Y).

A domain analysis worksheet was also prepared. This proved very useful as it brought out the structure of each domain: cover term, semantic relationship, included terms and boundary. A boundary is the attention that the informant has called to the fact that some terms belong inside or outside a domain.

Specific informants' statements were selected from transcribed interview notes taken during the interviews. Even fragments of talk recorded were adequate for identifying some domains. A verbatim sample of statements produced the most domains.

Cover terms and included terms were chosen that appropriately fit the semantic relationship. Rereading of field notes was necessary, not for identifying the meaning of sentences and to focus on content, but to find out "Which terms could be a kind of something? or Which terms could be a way to something." The truth about such assertions could only be verified as the transcriptions were reviewed, observations were made, and verification made with the informants.

Structural questions were then formulated for each domain. These questions enabled the researcher to elicit from the informants more cover terms and more included
terms. The most important value of the structural question was to give the boundary of the particular domain. The questions were structured by taking the basic information from the domain analysis and rewriting it into a question. For example, "Kinds of forces that affect vision negatively: This can be rewritten as a question: "Are there other kinds of forces that affect your vision negatively?" This step made it possible for the researcher to check contextual information that has been hypothesized before in the original domains to see if they are meaningful to the informants. This step was repeated to expand the list of domains. This process also provided a list of all domains for more intensive study. The results of the domain analyses are given in a concise way in the domain analysis of Chuck, Joan, and Bev.

**Taxonomic Analysis**

A folk taxonomy is a set of categories organized on the basis of a single semantic relationship. A taxonomy differs from a domain in only one respect: it shows the relationship among all the folk terms in a domain. The taxonomy shows the relationship among the parts.

In the domain analysis units of cultural knowledge, the domains were organized into what the informants know. A domain was chosen for the taxonomic analysis by choosing one for which the most information was given. The interview notes were reviewed and more structural questions were asked
about that particular domain. In addition to the structural questions asked, all previous interviews, transcriptions and field notes yielded clues to this relationship. New terms were discovered and their relationships were verified.

A tentative taxonomy was constructed by making an outline of the taxonomy. There are three ways in which the taxonomy could be represented: a box diagram, lines and nodes, and an outline. Because of the "wordy" nature of the project, the box diagram was chosen so that the information could be accommodated.

Additional structural questions were asked to verify statements made by the informants. At this stage in the sequence, alternating periods of interviewing and analysis became more necessary. Not only were structural questions asked, but examples were asked for relating to specific terms and statements in the taxonomy. Asking structural questions interspersed with the informants' examples made it possible to complete the taxonomy. The results of this analysis can be seen in the table named Taxonomic Analysis.

**Componential Analysis**

Componential analysis is a systematic search for attributes (components of meaning) associated with cultural symbols. Componential analysis can always make use of information unknown to informants to distinguish a set of terms. The goal is to map out as accurately as possible the psychological reality of the informants cultural knowledge.
The componential analysis can be termed a macrodomain. This domain can be referred to as things informants know. Whereas a taxonomy shows only a single relationship among a set of terms, a componential analysis shows multiple semantic relationships. Componential analysis highlights contrasts. A dimension of contrast is any dimension of meaning where some or all the terms contrasts.

Many of the contrasts identified came directly from the transcribed interviews in which questions were asked. Another method used to identify contrasts was to read through all the notes and transcriptions identifying contrasts and writing them on a separate sheet of paper compiling a list of contrasts. More contrast questions were prepared to elicit needed data to fill the gaps in the knowledge. As the informants verified the contrasts new domains emerged. In the situation where that happened structural questions were asked to see if there were many folk terms or statements in the domain which originally appeared as a dimension of contrasts. A completed outline of contrasts was made. A componential analysis details a limited number of central domains, describing other aspects of the cultural scene in more general terms. The section with number-coded contrasting statements identified by arabic numerals comprises the componential analysis.
Theme Analysis

Opler (1965) proposed that people could have a better understanding of culture by identifying recurrent themes. He defined a theme as "a postulate or position, declared or implied and usually controlling behavior or stimulating activity, which is tacitly approved or openly promoted in society" (198).

Spradley (1979) defines cultural theme as: "any cognitive principle, tacit or explicit, recurrent in a number of domains and serving as a relationship among subsystems of cultural meaning p. 186. A cognitive principle is something that people believe, accept as true and valid; it is a common assumption about the nature of experience. Themes are assertions that have a high degree of generality. Cultural themes appear as folk sayings, mottos, proverbs, or recurrent expressions, but most cultural themes remain at the tacit level of knowledge. Themes not only recur again and again throughout different parts of the culture, but they also connect different subsystems of culture. They serve as a general semantic relationship among domains.

As transcribed notes were read and reread, and as interviewees talked about their particular cultural situations, themes emerged. These were noted. Another method used to identify themes was to reread all the interviews to look for unidentified domains. Examples were
highlighted and observation notes were examined. Journal data were also examined.

Spradley (1979) stated that in the same way that there are universal semantic realationships, there appear to be some universal cultural themes, the larger relationships among the domains. Looking for universal themes was another strategy used to scrutinize the data to identify cultural themes. The universal themes used are: social conflict, cultural contradictions, informal techniques of social control, managing impersonal social relationships, acquiring and maintaining status, and solving problems.

**Social conflict.** In every social situation conflicts arise among people; these conflicts often become worked into cultural themes in ways that organize cultural meaning systems. A useful strategy in studying any society is to look for conflicts among people.

**Cultural contradictions.** Most cultures contain contradictory assertions, beliefs, and ideas. One cultural contradiction that occurs in many cultural scenes has to do with the official "image" that people seem to project of themselves, and the "insider’s view" of what really goes on. Every ethnographer is well advised to search for inherent contradictions that people have learned to live with.

**Informal techniques of social control.** A major problem in every society is controlling behavior. Every society must get people to conform to the values and norms
of social life possible. In every society and every social situation, people have learned informal techniques that effectively control what they do. Gossip and informal social rewards are means which function as mechanisms of control. By examining the various domains to find relationships to this need for social control, the researcher may well discover important cultural themes.

Managing impersonal social relationships. In many urban settings, impersonal social relationships make up a major part of all human contact. In almost any urban cultural scene people have developed strategies for dealing with people they do not know. This theme may occur in various domains of the cultural scene.

Acquiring and maintaining status. Every society has a variety of status and prestige symbols; people often strive to achieve and maintain these symbols. In every cultural scene there are status symbols many of which are subtle. Appearing "cool" under pressure may give one status; expressing a high degree of religious devotion confers status in some scenes.

Solving problems. Culture is a tool for solving problems. Ethnographers usually seek to discover the problems a person’s cultural knowledge is designed to solve.

The data were carefully scrutinized for themes under the various categories. These cultural themes identified relationships throughout different parts of the culture,
they connected different subsystems of the culture. They served as a general semantic relationship among the domains. Another method used to identify domains was to write a summary of each cultural scene of each of the three teachers interviewed and observed. This was very useful as it enabled the researcher to focus on the major ideas and events discussed and observed. The section titled Identifying Cultural Themes is the last section in each of the three analyses in Appendix B.

The analysis of data took four separate but related forms. The first was to identify domains, the second was to make a taxonomic analysis, the third was to make a componential analysis, and the fourth was to identify cultural themes. The domain analysis was not a once-for-all procedure; it was repeated as new data were collected through interviews. Taxonomic analysis led to finding subsets and the relationships among the subsets. In the componential analysis, an in-depth analysis of domains was made. In the section on identifying cultural themes, immersion in the culture for a limited period made it possible to find themes. Writing a summary, using universal themes, noting the things that seemed to be important to each interviewee were also strategies used in the process.
## Domain Analysis Worksheet

1. Semantic Relationship: **Strict Inclusion**
2. Form: \( X \) (is a kind of) \( Y \)
3. Example: Group work (is a kind of) teaching strategy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Included Terms</th>
<th>Semantic Relationship</th>
<th>Cover Term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Projects</td>
<td><strong>IS A KIND OF</strong></td>
<td>Teaching Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside reading</td>
<td>Group work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialogue</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Structural Question: Are there other kinds of teaching strategies?
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DOMAIN</th>
<th>INCLUDED TERMS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reasons for Vision</strong></td>
<td>Own education in elementary school, high school and college</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning from my teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Kinds of Persons Aware of My Vision</strong></td>
<td>Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My colleagues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My principal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Student teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ways to Communicate Vision to Various Publics</strong></td>
<td>Through my actions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Being organized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lesson books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Worksheets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consistency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>Letters sent home ahead of time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Basketball games</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conferences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>Walking in and observing students demeanor in the halls, going to and from the library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>Knows I am a hard worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knows I am very structured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knows I am organized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>By my students’ actions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comments made by parents</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Kinds of Qualities Admired in Ideal Teachers                                                                 | Good role models  
|                                                                                                           |  
|                                                                                                           | Willing to help  
|                                                                                                           | Were there when I needed them  
|                                                                                                           | Willing to take the extra time  
|                                                                                                           | Firm  
|                                                                                                           | Feeling safe in their classroom  
|                                                                                                           | Dedicated, committed, hardworking  
|                                                                                                           | Honest with the kids  
|                                                                                                           | Concerned with you as an individual  
|                                                                                                           | Placed responsibility of learning on students  
|                                                                                                           | Loved what they were doing  
| Reasons for Personal Decision To Remain in Profession                                                    | Interest in teaching  
|                                                                                                           | Commitment to teaching  
|                                                                                                           | Abilities  
|                                                                                                           | Personal vision  
|                                                                                                           | Having God as central focus  
| Kinds of Characteristics of Ideal Teachers                                                                  | Honest Christians  
|                                                                                                           | Showed awful lot of love  
|                                                                                                           | Enthusiastic  
|                                                                                                           | Very personable  
|                                                                                                           | Professional  
|                                                                                                           | Human  
|                                                                                                           | Hardworking  
|                                                                                                           | Flexible  
|                                                                                                           | Creative  
<p>|                                                                                                           | Encourager |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ways to Motivate Students</th>
<th>Ways to Motivate Students</th>
<th>Ways to Motivate Students</th>
<th>Ways to Motivate Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academically</td>
<td>Spiritually</td>
<td>Socially and Emotionally</td>
<td>Kind of Commendations Made</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>by Parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set up learning centers</td>
<td>Have students work</td>
<td>Have students work</td>
<td>You encouraged our child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Find things students are</td>
<td>problems out on their own</td>
<td>things out on their own</td>
<td>more than we ever could</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good at and provide</td>
<td>Giving personal</td>
<td>Have students choose how</td>
<td>My child’s responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opportunities for them to</td>
<td>experiences of God’s</td>
<td>they would behave</td>
<td>level is going up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>excel</td>
<td>direction in life</td>
<td>Buddy system</td>
<td>My child wants to do his/her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide fun things</td>
<td>Ask how would a</td>
<td>Group activity</td>
<td>homework all the time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide them with</td>
<td>Christian act when</td>
<td></td>
<td>He/she wants to come to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opportunities to work</td>
<td>situations arise</td>
<td></td>
<td>school now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>independently of teacher</td>
<td>Give them choices</td>
<td></td>
<td>His/her attitude has gotten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask thought-provoking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>better</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>questions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mr. C. is the greatest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High achievers working</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with low achievers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have students work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>independently</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have students work in</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>groups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Ways to Foster Responsibility in Students | Working on their own  
| Fulfilling tasks by organizing and executing without teacher's assistance  
| Following guidelines to carry out tasks  
| Trusting students to be on their "ultra best" behavior in teacher's absence  
| Having students helping each other  
| Students formulate their own groups for every group activity  
| Making them accountable for all group and classroom assignments |
| Kinds of Students' Perception of Teacher | Serious person  
| Real person  
| Honest person  
| Very open person  
| Fun guy  
| Friend  
| A person who cares |
| Ways to Challenge Students to Realize My Vision | Getting them to think on higher levels (analysis, synthesis, evaluation)  
| Students initiating some class discussions  
| Encouraging students to go above and beyond what they can do  
| Through exposure  
| Showing students' work from previous classes  
| Pat on the back  
| Students doing extra things outside of school work  
| Organizing contests, sports, art expo  
| Students with special talents and abilities are further encouraged to extend these talents |
| Ways to Let Students Know Where They Are Going | Class schedule  
Card for each day’s assignment and homework  
Notices  
Announcements  
Reminders  
Leaving a blank card when there is no assignment  
Tell students something exciting that is to happen soon |
| Kinds of Responsible Behavior Evidenced in Students | Know how much work they have to get done and do it without being reminded  
Know how to use their time wisely  
Do their homework  
Take notes home and return promptly  
Can be left alone without disciplinary problems  
Initiate their own activity |
| Kinds of Forces That Affect Vision Positively | God--through prayer  
Encouraging words from students  
colleagues  
some parents  
relatives |
| Kinds of Forces That Affect Vision Negatively | Some parents--negative notes and comments  
Workload  
Colleagues who believe I do too much |
## TAXONOMIC ANALYSIS

### Taxonomy of Ways to Realize the Vision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ways to Realize the Vision</th>
<th>Challenging Students Academically</th>
<th>Challenging Students Spiritually</th>
<th>Strategies for Attaining the Vision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provide with opportunities to work independently of teacher</td>
<td>Make advertisements</td>
<td>Ask questions that evoke higher level thinking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Channel failure into success</td>
<td>Find things students are good at and give opportunities to excel</td>
<td>Students initiate discussions and teacher follow through with students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Make advertisements</td>
<td>Provide fun things</td>
<td>Through exposure to ideas and information not necessarily related to subject areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Set up learning centers</td>
<td>Cooperative learning</td>
<td>Showing students work done by previous students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cooperative learning</td>
<td>Working on games, and puzzles</td>
<td>Individual comments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Working on games, and puzzles</td>
<td>Cooperative learning</td>
<td>Pat on the back</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cooperatives learning</td>
<td>Cooperative learning</td>
<td>Incorporating extra things into the classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cooperative learning</td>
<td>Cooperative learning</td>
<td>Students with special talents and abilities are encouraged to improve those talents</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Challenging Students Academically

Provide with opportunities to work independently of teacher
Channel failure into success
Make advertisements
Find things students are good at and give opportunities to excel
Provide fun things
Set up learning centers
Cooperative learning
Working on games, and puzzles

Challenging Students Spiritually

Have them solve their own problems
Asking them how a Christian would act
Personal experiences of God working in teacher's life
Give students choices
Play together
Students being supportive of each other even when they make mistakes

Strategies for Attaining the Vision

Ask questions that evoke higher level thinking
Students initiate discussions and teacher follow through with students
Through exposure to ideas and information not necessarily related to subject areas
Showing students work done by previous students
Individual comments
Pat on the back
Incorporating extra things into the classroom
Students with special talents and abilities are encouraged to improve those talents
Experiences That Helped to Shape Teachers' Vision

Spark started with teachers
Experimenting with being an accountant
All the projects and learning experiences in elementary, high school and college
Good role models
Structure, organization, setting of priorities experienced in classroom

Ways in Which Students Know Where They Are Going

Class schedule
Posted assignments
Card for each day’s assignment
Notices
Announcements
Verbal reminders
Tell them something that is happening soon
Tardy assignment slips are placed on board by students as reminders to themselves, parents and teacher that assignment is still to be done

COMPONENTIAL ANALYSIS

Dimensions of Contrast

1.0 Responsible Behavior
   1.1 Taking notes home and return at specified time
   1.2 Students working on their own
   1.3 Students turning in assignments promptly
   1.4 Fulfilling tasks without teacher’s assistance
   1.5 Being cooperative in teacher’s presence
   1.6 Students forming their own groups for each activity
   1.7 Making students accountable for class and homework assignments

2.0 Irresponsible Behavior Seen in Students
   2.1 Returning notes when they are reminded
   2.2 Students have to be told what to do
   2.3 Teacher ignoring responsible behavior
   2.4 Fulfilling tasks with teacher’s help
   2.5 Students working independently of each other
   2.6 Accepting excuses for assignments not done

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3.0 Ways of Developing Responsibility in Students
   3.1 Fulfilling tasks without teacher’s assistance
   3.2 Rewarding responsible behavior
   3.3 Students do not have to be told what to do
   3.4 Decisions made without help of parents/teachers
   3.5 Students working dependently
   3.6 Teacher not assisting students in formation of their groups
   3.7 Accepting only legitimate excuses for assignments not done

4.0 How Students are Learning to be Responsible
   4.1 Learning to be responsible through encouragement, involvement in activities that challenge them
   4.2 Teacher being consistent
   4.3 Parents being consistent

5.0 Miscellaneous Contrasts
   5.1 Feeling safe in the classroom
   5.2 Feeling unsafe in the classroom
   5.3 Giving challenging work
   5.4 Giving students busy work
   5.5 Feedback from the various publics
   5.6 Little or no feedback from the various publics
   5.7 Teaching as a call to the ministry
   5.8 Teaching as a job
   5.9 Forces that affect vision positively
   5.10 Forces that affect vision negatively

IDENTIFYING CULTURAL THEMES

Social Conflict (Conflicts among people)

   I wish I had more time to communicate to the parents what I am doing.

   Being consistent is a tough job for a teacher.

   Some people have criticized me for doing too much.

   Parents don’t always see the time and effort put forth to help their children to be the best they can be.

   I have to be tough to be consistent.
Cultural Contradictions (Contradictions people have learned to live with)

I expect my students to be responsible.

Teacher organization in planning and presentation of subject matter are evidences of responsible behavior.

Teachers are here first and foremost for the kids, their parents their peers, the community, and the congregation (in a parochial setting).

Teaching is a ministry.

Informal Techniques of Social Control

I always want to start out the year wanting to know that I set goals for myself and I want my students to know where they are going.

Students need to be structured, to work together cooperatively, to know how to get along together.

Challenging students is a key word for me.

My enthusiasm "turns them on."

Responsibility, being organized, being consistent, and having structure encompass so many things.

Managing Impersonal Social Relationships (Strategies for dealing with people they do not know)

Teachers I loved and respected the most were those who were firmest.

The person who had the most influence on my being a teacher is my mother.

Involvement of teachers in extra curricular activities with students is of great importance to them.

Students need to be structured, to be organized, to set their priorities, and to set goals for themselves.

Are my students learning responsibility through fear or through self-discipline?
Organizing and Maintaining Status (Look for status symbols--athletic skill, prestige)

Former teachers created the spark that eventually blazed into my becoming a teacher.

I wanted to go through with my dreams.

My teachers modeled the kind of behavior they expected from their students.

Through positive comments, I could see where I was going; My vision was already forming.

A teacher must be a hard worker, flexible, and creative.

Solving Problems

I know there is one thing from my formal education that I would not tolerate in my classroom and that is students "picking on each other."

Part of my vision is to let students know where they are going.

A teacher is a minister, an encourager, a person who will stop what he/she is doing and give to others.

DOMAIN ANALYSIS #2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parts of the Educational Process</th>
<th>Learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Questioning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Classes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Active endeavor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Formal education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tools in learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Life-long learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Drive, motivation on the part of the student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher has to inspire</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ways to Develop Critical Thinking Skills</th>
<th>Dialogue</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Puzzling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Explore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Guided instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Initiative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Develop beyond</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Reasons for Being a Mathematics Teacher | Personal vision  
High school mathematics teachers  
High school English teacher  
Father  
School life  
Schooling |
|---|---|
| Kinds of Concerns in Teaching Mathematics | Changes in Federal and State Government wanting to make schools, teachers, administration, Boards of Education more responsible for education of community  
Changes coming around in Mathematics  
State Testing  
Tough standards from National Council of Teachers  
Stronger, more powerful technology  
Students, who do not have basic foundation |
| Ways to Communicate Vision to Various Publics | Post on bulletin board  
Give overview to students at beginning of school year, at beginning of quarter, reminders throughout school year  
Ask students questions |
| Kinds of Qualities of Ideal Teachers | Willing to keep learning formally and informally  
Keep reading  
Keep researching  
Willing to adapt to changes  
Making the connection between what is taught and students' everyday experiences  
Making mathematics interesting and exciting |
| Reasons for Becoming a Mathematics Teacher | High school teachers  
Father (mechanical engineer)  
Love of puzzles  
Love of solving problems  
Internally driven  
Need to make a difference  
Wanting to be involved with people |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kinds of Strategies Used by Ideal Teachers</th>
<th>Projects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A lot of outside reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dialogue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinds of Characteristics of Ideal Teachers</td>
<td>Caring, strict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Human</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maintaining high standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Willing to admit mistakes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Willing to do the time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Modeling what is expected of students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinds of Factors That Reinforce My Vision</td>
<td>Changes in education that forces administrators and teachers to be more committed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Changes that require me to set high standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Changes that reinforce my attitude (standards are high and are going to remain high)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ways in Which Technology Can Benefit Students</td>
<td>Explore possibilities they have not seen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Make hard things easy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correct use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinds of Strategies for Teaching Mathematics</td>
<td>Specify how technology is to be used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teach students how to manage time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Encourage students to do self-inventory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lecture with examples, with situations that are the same and that are different</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tutoring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Work cooperatively with classmates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have former students return to share their experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group work</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Board work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oral report of assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Question and answer sessions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Ways to Arouse Students' Interest | Appealing teaching strategies  
| | Students' experiencing success  
| | Maintaining students' self-esteem  
| | Reminders that they can do it  
| | Developing problem-solving skills  
| | Use of overhead projector  
| | Tie new material into old  
| | Problems and problem situations  
| | Mathematics labs  
| Kinds of Changes in Teaching Mathematics | Getting away from only one correct answer  
| | Having students justify answers  
| | Communicating verbally or written  
| | ho they arrive at their answers  
| | Reaching out above and beyond what they can do  
| | Students willing to admit mistakes and fixing the problem  
| | Thinking through answer to ensure it makes sense  
| | Getting a reasonable answer to problem  
| Kinds of Challenges That Face Mathematics Teachers | Student attendance  
| | Students need to be self-motivated  
| | Getting students inspired  
| | Getting students ready for the world mathematically  
| | State mandates  
| | Getting students to "buy into" mathematics (biggest challenge)  
| Results of Students Fulfilling Requirements the Hard Way | Develop the ability to face challenges  
| | Self-satisfaction  
| | Gain self-confidence  
| | Build self-esteem  
| | Develop problem-solving skills  
| | Develop the ability to process things  
| Ways Vision Has Affected Practice | Being flexible  
| | Viewing each student as an individual  
| | Developing the ability to look at furrowed foreheads and panic-stricken eyes and determine how much students are grasping concepts  

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**Taxonomy on Reasons Mathematics Teaching Is a Puzzle**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ways Students Can Develop Critical Thinking Skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dialogue with teacher and classmates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn by puzzling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explore on their own</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Through guided instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take initiative to learn things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop beyond what teacher can do in 50 minutes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concerns in Mathematics Teaching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Changes in Federal and State Government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The concept of just giving students a grade and sending them on their way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes as a result of the introduction of the technology in the classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National-testing standards are tough</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ways Standards Help Teacher's Vision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Changes in education forces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>administrators, teachers, and students to be more committed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes require teachers to set higher standards</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vision for Mathematics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Computer labs for teachers where they can spend hours experimenting and observing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Every student owning a graphing calculator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student having all equipment home with them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing a community of students that can solve problems and think</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Building Up the Puzzle

Put all pieces of information together so that students can see usefulness in mathematics.
Dynamics of teaching and dynamics of teacher help students put the pieces together.
Students looking at how mathematics is preparing them for life rather than doing mathematics for a grade.
Incorporate what is being done before with what is currently being done.

COMPONENTIAL ANALYSIS

Dimensions of Contrasts

1.0 Using Technology Correctly
   1.1 Explore possibilities students have not seen
   1.2 Help students to solve hard problems
   1.3 Calculator and computer make hard things easy

2.0 Using Technology Incorrectly
   2.1 Using technology as a crutch
   2.2 Perception is that computer and calculator are an easy way to do things

3.0 Traditional Mathematics Strategies
   3.1 Lecture
   3.2 Solving problems in books and on the board
   3.3 Taking notes

4.0 Modern Mathematics Strategies
   4.1 Lecture with examples and situations (same and different)
   4.2 Have former students return to share experiences
   4.3 Cooperative learning
   4.4 Group work
   4.5 Board work
   4.6 Oral report of assignments
   4.7 Question and answer sessions
   4.8 Use of technology

5.0 Advantages of Fulfilling Requirements
   5.1 Develop the ability to meet challenges
   5.2 Satisfaction
   5.3 Self-confidence
5.4 Self-esteem

6.0 Disadvantages of Fulfilling Requirements the Easy Way
   6.1 Cannot cope in college
   6.2 Forever changing jobs
   6.3 Running away from challenges

7.0 Disadvantages of Radical Changes in Mathematics Teaching
   7.1 Too much, too fast, too unknown, too different, is often too frightening for students
   7.2 Students lose comfort and shut down
   7.3 Students do not "buy into" drastic changes
   7.4 Difficulty in adapting to changes

8.0 Advantages of Gradual Changes in Mathematics Teaching
   8.1 Students will be more willing to adapt
   8.2 Teachers will be more willing to cooperate

9.0 Outside Influences That Get In the Way of My Vision
   9.1 "Powers" that be
   9.2 Making changes overnight
   9.3 Teacher's vision conflicting with someone else's vision
   9.4 Students need to be in class
   9.5 Extra things (looking out for child abuse, feeding students)
   9.6 Insufficient support from parents

10.0 Inside Influences That Help My Vision
   10.1 Excellent dialogue with colleagues
   10.2 A good administrator who makes teachers' work easier
   10.3 Students wanting to find out more

IDENTIFYING CULTURAL THEMES

Social Conflicts (Conflicts arise among people)

The State wants changes; and so much stronger more, technology-based mathematics taught.

The teacher is caught in the middle from pressures inside and outside of the classroom and unless the teacher has a vision, he/she is just going to be swept along with the current.

The biggest problem with mathematics teaching today is motivation.
Students must be self-motivated and teachers must be there to inspire.

The biggest conflict between State mandates and teachers is that they want to see results instantaneously and teachers are saying that changes do not happen overnight.

Parents hold teachers accountable if their children leave school without the basic skills.

Cultural Contradictions

Teachers, administrators, students, parents need to make a commitment to education.

Managing Impersonal Social Relationships

Teachers need to develop a society of students that can solve problems and that can think and the technology is going to be there to help them.

The most important thing I learned from my teachers was about my own capabilities.

The classes I liked the most were those that gave me the greatest challenge.

Students have to be willing to accept challenges that start in school and continue in the workplace.

If students develop very good mathematical skills from kindergarten, they will be better able to grapple with harder problems in high school.

Students need to be more responsible.

Veteran teachers are more willing to take interruptions.

Acquiring and Maintaining Status

My whole vision for getting into teaching, whatever, goes back to my schooling and school life.

Excellent teachers are willing to keep learning.

In three to five years, I would like to see what I am learning now introduced into my classroom because it is needed, it is necessary.
A teacher has to be anticipatory.

A teacher will meet with success when a student is able to say, "I am important to the teacher; I am part of a community."

If I can make my students "thirsty" enough, they will "drink" everything I have to offer.

Solving Problems

Mathematics teaching of itself and the mathematics behind it is a puzzle.

Educational should be an active endeavor.

I think that when there is a connection between what is in the book and what is out there, mathematics will be more interesting and exciting for our students in the next 10-20 years.

One thing that is difficult about teaching is that you never see a finished product.

DOMAIN ANALYSIS #3

| Kinds of Components of Teachers Vision | Provide a enriching environment  
Provide an opportunity for kids no matter what end of the spectrum they are on, whether they have learning problems or they are gifted  
Have students recognize what their talents are  
Take pride in the things they can do and develop those skills  
Provide the environment so that when they leave my classroom difficult things may have value  
Pull in those kids who are on the fringes |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|
| Reasons for the Formulation of Vision | Being the oldest child in the family  
The idea of being around young people  
Teacher in handicapped school  
Teacher in elementary school  
Teacher in high school  
Camp directors |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Kinds of Description of College Teacher | Affirming as far as my creativity was concerned  
Soft-spoken  
Open  
Kind  
Willing to take the time  
Sweet |
| Kinds of Description of Elementary School Teacher | Upbeat  
Relaxed in her teaching  
Project-oriented  
Lots of fun  
Enthusiastic |
| Kinds of Value of Affirmation to Teacher | Built self-confidence  
Opened up the way to a lot of feedback  
Created a very positive school experience  
Enabled me to accept challenges |
| Kinds of Things That Affect Teacher’s Vision | Teacher  
Meetings  
Grading papers  
Lack of planning time  
Students  
Lack of motivation  
Lack of interest  
Breakdown in the family  
Lack of parental support  
Pressures society places on students |
| Challenges That Conflict With Teacher’s Vision | Time constraints that are placed on teachers  
Priorities of bureaucrats and priorities of teachers are at cross purposes  
Breakdown of the family |
| **Kinds of Activities That Cater to the Learning Styles of Students** | Virtually all subjects are project-oriented
Lecture (to spark interest, to share information and to get them motivated) |
|---|---|
| **Ways to Provide Structure for Students** | Having an assignment worksheet that helps students to keep track of assignments done
Verbal and written contracts
Phone calls to parents
Communication between the home and the school |
| **Ways to Motivate Students** | Interest inventory
Learning centers
Working in small and large groups and individually
Computer games
Working on projects for various subject areas
Discussions (student-student and student-teacher) |
| **Kinds of Strategies Used to Get Parental Support** | Contracts
Close Communication
Late slips that parents have to sign |
| **Ways to Identify Gifted Students** | Standardized tests
Formal classroom evaluation
Progress in classwork
Study habits |
| **Kinds of Characteristics of Gifted Students** | Finish work quickly and accurately
More curious than usual
Welcome a challenge
Ask a lot of questions
Have a broad-base general knowledge about many things
Good problem solvers
Very imaginative
Very creative |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ways Teacher Challenges the Gifted</th>
<th>Enrichment Programs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Involvement in out-of-school things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Put parents in touch with representatives for particular districts that are responsible for gifted programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Put students on an individualized program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have student work on project of interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results of Unrealistic Expectations of Parents</td>
<td>Unwarranted pressures put on students so that they underachieve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fear of failure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lose time where they could have developed talents that they are capable of doing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advantages of Hands-on Experience</td>
<td>Additional way of learning (doing, hearing, seeing feeling)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Developing the ability to work collaboratively in groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning from peers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning new strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Solving problems together</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disadvantages of the Lecture Method</td>
<td>Not reaching the kinesthetic and visual learner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kids need to be constantly stimulated because of how the society is today</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prevents the teacher from being interactive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**TAXONOMIC ANALYSIS**

**Taxonomic Analysis on Learning Styles of Students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATERING TO LEARNING STYLES OF STUDENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interactive Tasks</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Projects and units on an on-going basis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spelling basketball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of audio and video recordings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manipulatives, games and puzzles in mathematics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Setting up of Learning Centers</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity table with uncompleted and completed projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity corner for games and puzzles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Use of Technology in the Classroom</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tape recorders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overhead (for presenting new topics and for the working of examples)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintaining a balance between visual, auditory and kinesthetic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working on portfolios in different subject areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cooperative Learning Activities</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualized instruction--catering to the individual needs of average, below average and gifted students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialogues and discussions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On-going formal and informal evaluations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Classroom Observation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classwork</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study habits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signs of giftedness in students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discipline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Look for students who are always on the fringes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Contracts</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal and written</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assignment sheets, late slips</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teacher's Presence</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wandering around the classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active role in the learning of each student</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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COMPONENTIAL ANALYSIS

1.0 Teacher's Ideals
   1.1 Starting off with lots of ideas, lots of energy
   1.2 Having high expectations for students
   1.3 Having an interest in doing what they can for students
   1.4 Motivating students

2.0 Things That Prevent Teachers From Meeting Ideals
   2.1 Grading papers
   2.2 Lack of planning time
   2.3 Students
      lack of motivation
      lack of interest
      lack of parental support
      low self-esteem
   2.4 Less communication between students and parents
   2.5 Break down in the family structure

3.0 Positives of Enrichment Program
   3.1 Beneficial for regular, gifted, and those with learning disabilities
   3.2 Students are with peers
   3.3 Helps to enrich what the teacher is doing
   3.4 Students learn from each other
   3.5 Beneficial for students of all abilities to interact together

4.0 Negatives of Acceleration Program
   4.1 Reinforcing the fact that they are different
   4.2 Becoming a potential problem for the next teacher if students have already covered material
   4.3 Students may be intellectually advanced, but do not fit in with peers socially

5.0 Advantages of the Lecture Method
   5.1 Spark interest
   5.2 Share background information

6.0 Disadvantages of the Lecture Method
   6.1 Not meeting the needs of the kinesthetic and visual learners
   6.2 Students become bored
   6.3 Teacher's inability to be interactive during a lecture
   6.4 Teacher may be unaware of potential problems
   6.5 Inability of teacher to work with individual students
7.0 Advantages of Hands-on Experiences
   7.1 Encourages dialogue, discussion, and problem-solving
   7.2 Working collaboratively in groups
   7.3 Helping each other
   7.4 Learning from peers
   7.5 Sharing ideas
   7.6 Learning more strategies

8.0 Disadvantages of Hands-on Experience
   8.1 Need a lot of background work with people within groups
   8.2 How to grade when it is a group project
   8.3 Interpersonal relations
   8.4 Discipline (noise level, movement)

IDENTIFYING CULTURAL THEMES

Social Conflicts
   Students who have the ability, but are underachievers are a challenge to me as a teacher.

   I am certainly going to motivate students while they are here, but there are some things that are out of my reach.

   One of the restraints placed on a teacher is the pressure to conform to the bureaucrats.

Cultural Contradictions
   The teacher that stood up and lectured did not impress me.

   There are very few subjects for which I do not use some hands-on activity.

Informal Techniques of Social Control
   Students who do not remember to bring in assignments promptly are given verbal and written contracts.

   Teachers really have a lot of freedom in the classroom.

   Issuing a late slip is a day-to-day check on students and making teachers aware of their child’s progress.
Working collaboratively in groups lends itself to sharing new strategies, and seeing how others have solved problems.

I believe a teacher on his/her feet is worth ten on his/her seat.

Managing Impersonal Relationships

The things that affect the kids in a negative way are the things I have the least control over—what happens to them before they come to school and after they leave.

A teacher’s vision is challenged internally and externally.

Organizing and Maintaining Status

An interest inventory is important for catering to the needs of students.

One of my strengths is that of physical fitness.

Parents, teachers and camp directors kept on telling me that I had a way with children and that kept motivating me.

I think that if my teachers and camp directors had not been there, with the security of my parents I still could have made it.

My self-confidence made my school experience very positive.

Solving Problems

Providing opportunities for students to work together and doing hands-on things, prepare students for the workplace are qualities employers are looking for in future employees rather than grades.

Teachers need to teach students that they are responsible for themselves and that they do not have the power and the ability to make proper choices.

The responsibility rests with students to solve their own problems.
Student may not be able to control what is happening around them, but they can control how they react to them.

In order for a teacher to get the cooperation of the students and their parents, verbal and written.
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NAME: Rosalind V. Aaron

PLACE OF BIRTH: Bolans, Antigua

EDUCATION:

1995 Ph.D. Educational Administration and Supervision. Andrews University, Berrien Springs, MI

1988 M.A. Educational Administration and Supervision. Andrews University, Berrien Springs, MI

1984 B.A. Secondary Education. West Indies College, Mandeville, Jamaica.

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCES:

1992-1993 Vice Principal, Antigua and Barbuda S.D.A. School, St. John's, Antigua.


1982-1984 Elementary School Teacher, Antigua and Barbuda S.D.A. School, St. John's, Antigua.

1971-1978 Elementary School Teacher, Antigua and Barbuda S.D.A. School, St. John's, Antigua.

PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

1988- Member Phi Delta Kappa, A Professional Fraternity in Education.

1993- Member Pi Lambda Theta, International Honor and Professional Society in Education.