CHARLOTTE MASON INSTITUTE: MORE ON RELATIONAL INSTRUCTION

Facilitating a Person's Learning

This paper is an appendix to the instructional descriptions of the school. It includes further descriptions on

Language Acquisition p.1

Methods: -Forms p.4 -Homework p.6 -Relational Facilities p.7 -Community Relationships p.11 -Restorative Practices p.11 -Asian Style Math Instruction p.12 -Classroom/Common Library p.14 -Narration and Retelling p.16 -Student Talk p.17

Kindergarten p.17

Retelling Literature Review p.27

Additional Research p.35

Language Acquisition

The impact of language development on reading Dr. J. Carroll Smith

In a Mason Relational Education, narration is the critical method practiced in all classrooms beginning in Kindergarten. It includes reading aloud and silently the best books on the subject matter. It also includes retelling aloud or in written, dramatic or illustrated forms what was read or demonstrated (as in a math class).

Olofsson and Niedersøe (1999) write, "There is a significant connection between early language measures and reading skills in the first four school years, (meaning the more oral language development in the early years, the better students can read in elementary school.)

Note Dr. Frederick Zimmerman's study on the use of "infant videos" with children under age 2. Although Disney took quite an exception to this piece of research, it might behoove us to notice that, according to Zimmerman, infants who spend a lot of time in front of a video do not have a vocabulary as large as those who spend less time in front of 'baby videos.'

In a research project by Wise, Sevcik, Morris, Lovett and Wolf (2007), the authors suggest that Keeping the study's limitations in consideration, the findings from this study were largely consistent with a large body of research indicating that oral language skills are related to reading achievement (Cooper et al., 2002; Olofsson & Niedersøe, 1999; Scarborough, 1990). This study, however, provided unique evidence

that receptive and expressive vocabulary knowledge were independently related to pre-reading skills, whereas only expressive vocabulary knowledge was related to word identification abilities. Findings suggest that receptive and expressive vocabulary knowledge relate to pre-reading skills in differential ways because of the nature of each type of knowledge. *Further, those children with better definitional knowledge may have an advantage in identifying words because of more thoroughly represented semantic knowledge.* (Narration does this) Finally, results from this study indicate that better listening comprehension skills facilitate word identification. (Narration does this as well.)

The early language development of children was a concern of 19th century and early 20th century British educator, Charlotte Mason. In her writings she encourages the parents of her day to promote the use of language. She says: "Bobbie will come home with a heroic narrative of a fight he has seen between 'Duke' and a dog in the street. It is wonderful! He has seen everything, and he tells everything with splendid vigour in the true epic vein; but so ingrained is our contempt for children that we see nothing in this but Bobbie's foolish childish way! Whereas here, if we have eyes to see and grace to build, is the ground-plan of his education."

According to the German theologian von Rad, this need on the part of humans to use language is indicated in the *Genesis* two narrative. He says, "The emphasis is placed not on the invention of words but on that inner appropriation by recognition and interpretation that takes place in language. Here, interestingly, language is seen not as a means of communication but as an intellectual capacity by means of which man brings conceptual order to his sphere of life. Concretely: when man says "ox" he has not simply discovered the "ox", but rather understood this creature as ox and included it in his imagination and his life as a help to his life." In other words the 'ox' becomes part of humankind's context. Through the use of his language humankind intellectually conceives of his environment. Language allows humankind to intellectually express understandings gained through interaction with the environment. Humankind uses its intellect; therefore the ox is part of humankind's effort to make meaning and sense of his environment.

This understanding brings to mind Louise Rosenblatt's Reader Response Theory. Rosenblatt believed that, "Through the medium of words, the text brings into the reader's consciousness certain concepts, certain sensuous experiences, certain images of things, people, actions, and scenes. The special meanings and, more particularly, the submerged associations that these words and images have for the individual reader will largely determine what the work communicates to *him*. The reader brings to the work personality traits, memories of past events, present needs and preoccupations, a particular mood of the moment, and a particular physical condition. These and many other elements in a never-to-be-duplicated combination determine his response to the peculiar contribution of the text." In the same way as Rosenblatt explains the interaction of a reader with a text, humankind interacts by use of oral language with his or her environment to make meaning and sense out of his or her life.

It seems that there are a number of issues that can be raised from our discussion so far. 1) Humankind uses intellect and language to make sense of life, the world, as well as texts. 2) Children, hence, from the beginning should be introduced to and make use of language constantly. 3) Children interact with oral language to understand life much the same way that Rosenblatt says that readers interact with text to make their own understanding of the text. 4) And, this interaction among innate curiosity, language and life improves children's use of language, which in turn increases their ability to read in elementary school. I realize that these points need further clarification through continued research and study. However, since the research clearly links the effect of oral language in the very early years on future reading skills, then we must consider options for child care providers and educators that will improve the oral language of very young children.

Through talking about events she believes the child is developing language, increasing knowledge base, interacting with his environment, increasing vocabulary and the ability to order and sequence events and to put language to that order and sequence thereby increasing language abilities. Mason, long before the research cited in this article, understood that oral language improves a child's potential for reading.

Wise, et al make the claim that the more words a child can say and define through oral language before school the more likely they are to read well. This should provide us with hope for all children and especially disadvantaged children.

According to Scarborough and Wise, et al a rich environment of oral language increases a child's ability to know and understand phonemes.

Reading Stats / Research Information

Allington (October, 2005)

- The U. S. Department of Education says that there is enough research to say that two things work:
 - o Class size of 20 or less
 - o One-to-one tutoring for struggling readers
- Research by John Guthrie
 - Students who are better readers read more. Since their in-school reading is all about the same (assumed to be 90 minutes per day in school), and their assigned reading is about the same (assumed to be 30 minutes per night) the real difference is in the amount of voluntary reading they do outside of school
 - 4th graders who read at the 6th grade level, score about the 85% percentile on standardized tests and spend 1 ½ hours per day in out of school reading (the half-hour of assigned reading + 1 hour of voluntary reading)
 - 4th graders who read at the 8th grade level, score about the 98% percentile on standardized tests and spend 3 hours per day in out of school reading (half-hour assigned and 2 ½ hours of voluntary reading)
 - 4th graders who read at the 2nd grade level, score below the 50th percentile on standardized tests and spend only one-half hour per day in out of school reading (half-hour assigned – if they actually do it – and NO voluntary reading)
- 2 hours of reading per day (assigned and voluntary, total for all types of reading) necessary to make one year's growth in reading
- There is no research support for having students read hard books. One hour spent reading easy books yields the same amount of growth as three hours reading hard books. (Get the same growth in reading in one-third the time if reading easy books, as opposed to hard books.)
- Over 30% of students watch 8 hours of TV per day. When TV watching exceeds 5 hours per day, there is a noticeable decrease in academic achievement.
- High Success Books works: Research by Linda Gambrell: poor readers are off-task 4 to 5 times more than good readers in most classrooms. BUT, if give the poor readers books they can read, they stay on task the same amount as good readers
- Science textbooks are written 2 to 3 years above grade level
 - o The National Academy of Science recommended that the best way to improve science education is to get rid of all science textbooks
- Textbooks should be at a level for students so they can read with 99-100% accuracy and 90% comprehension (Jeanne Chall)
- First step for struggling readers: get them to read for 2 hours per day. All students benefit best from small doses of targeted/individualized instruction and lots of high-success practice
 - o 2 hours per day = 1 year's growth
 - o 3 hours per day = $1\frac{1}{2}$ years' growth
 - o $4\frac{1}{2}$ hours per day = 2 years' growth
 - (plus ¹/₂ hour of instruction)
- Usually, the only students in a school that are getting a steady diet of high success reading are the top achieving students.
- Just putting books in the classroom doesn't work well
 - o Books only students scored at 13th percentile
 - Books and professional development for using the books students scored at the 41st percentile
- You Can't Learn Much from Books You Can't Read (Allington's article in Educational Leadership, November, 2002.
- Doing test prep improves test scores by only 2 to 5%
 - o Doing test prep for more than 2 or 3 hours per year is a waste of time
 - o In observing exemplary teachers in 6 states in grades 1 through 10, there was not one observed instance of use of commercially prepared test prep materials.
 - Exemplary teachers use a combination of multiple-level content texts (with

managed student choice) and additional instructional support for struggling readers

- The teachers embedded test-type questions and writing into their regular curriculum. E.g., after you read your book, describe your character and how he/she is alike or different from a character in another book you've read
- They also do Quick Writes: e.g., take out your journal and respond to this question in 2 or 3 sentences, e.g., was the character's problem like any problem you have ever had in your own life?
- If they were required to use a basal for reading, or a textbook for a content area, the exemplary teachers would use it for a short amount of time (e.g., one day in the week), and then they would have students reading all kinds of books of their own choice the rest of the time (e.g., reading within a theme in social studies)

METHODS:

Forms (multi-age classrooms and looping)

In a Relational educational setting, *forms* are a common practice. The word *form* is similar in meaning to other terms used today to convey the ideas of <u>multi-age</u> grouping, <u>looping</u> or <u>persistent grouping</u>. In a model of education where the learner is viewed as changing from within and not by the practices and behaviors of the teacher, such a more flexible and organic learning environment is a requirement.

In a *graded* model, education is frequently viewed as the teacher being the dispenser of information to a graded group of children. As Aina (2001) suggests, traditional programs push children into one model of learning and a lot of time is spent by the teacher trying to help the children "pass" through this model of learning. As a result many children have problems and then are labeled to get further help to make it through this system of education.

There are compelling reasons to use forms. New Zealand, a country with one of the highest literacy rates in the world, uses multiage grouping as common educational practice. Students are moved forward based on their mastery of skills rather than their chronological age (Kasten & Clarke, 1993, p 220). This approach to learning has been used by others here in the USA as well. For example, the well known educator Deborah Meier viewed looping, a term used when teachers stay with children more than one year, as an essential concept for the perfect school (Goldberg 1991). The successful charter school in Souderton, PA, Souderton Charter School Collaborative, and City High Charter School in Pittsburgh, PA has used forms and/or looping.

Multiage grouping, looping, persistent grouping or *forms* as used by a Relational model of learning provides a model of grouping students that meets the needs of students and has less emphasis on grading and curriculum needs.

The advantages of Multi-Age Classrooms are numerous. The following excerpt comes from the research of K.M. Mercer:

- It offers more opportunities for children to work and develop at their own level on a continuous basis (Wall, 1994). Minimizes the stigma and fear associated with retention (Doud and Finkelstein, 1985; Jensen and Green, 1993).
- There is increasing evidence that positive relations among peers play a

central role in one's social development and future well being (Chase and Doan, 1994).

- Prosocial behaviors, including sharing, taking turns, and helping are more apparent within multi-age classes (Katz et al., 1993; Stone, 1998).
- A better self concept and general attitude toward schooling are often associated with multi-age education (Haynes, 1996; Pratt, 1986).
- Empirical findings support the idea that children's opportunities to interact with advanced and weaker students strengthen their cognitive skills and students learn how to be followers and leaders (Chase and Doan, 1994; Stegelin, 1997, Hart-Hewins and Villers, 1997).
- This non-threatening and learning friendly atmosphere will aid to welcome success, applaud risk-taking and encourage growth and learning within all tasks.
- With the extended time that students usually remain with a teacher, parent-teacher relations evolve within multi-age classes (Grant and Johnson, 1995; Kolstad and McFadden, 1998). Within this extended period of time, both parties develop a trust and understanding of each other's role (Hart-Hewens and Villiers, 1997).
- Within a looped environment, the familiarity to students deepens and individual needs are better and more quickly realized in the second year with the same group of students (Simel, 1998).
- Parents and teachers have usually developed a rapport during the first year of schooling, and can continue to build on their relationship during the second year (Simel, 1998).
- Children and teachers feel as if a family relationship is built within a looped environment. For those students who receive less support from home, or whose lives are unstable, this secure structure can surely be a well-needed and positive situation (Simel, 1998).
- Within single-grade and multi-age situations, most teachers have the opportunity to realize each student's strengths and weaknesses by November or December. Students, too, have grown to realize what is expected from him or her and a solid relationship is often developed (Grant and Johnson, 1995).
- Looping produces minimal anxiety and frustration for parents and students, and more significantly may produce a completely different outcome for children who simply needed a few additional months to mature (Grant and Johnson, 1995).

Dr. Carroll Smith led an inner city school in Roanoke, VA, and used the practice of looping. He found further benefits: 1) Knowing in advance the routines, rules, supply needs and expectations make the beginning of the year much more routine with less problems. 2) Teachers are aware of what they taught the year before and have a much more reasonable expectation of students than a new teacher. 3) At the beginning of the school year, teachers and students spend much less time "reviewing" the previous year's work, saving valuable instruction time.

On the down side, Dr. Smith, parents and teachers realized that the third year was frequently not as beneficial as the second year. In a mobile society, new students inevitably move into a classroom midyear. In the third year of looping, new students found it more difficult to fit in. Dr. Smith also noted one rule that was followed by the

learning community--when a conflict arises between teacher/student/parents, sometimes it is best to move the student. No one "owned" a student and therefore needed to let go when necessary. Although this rule was accepted by the teachers and principal, during the four years of using looping, only one time was there a conflict between a student and a teacher such that the student had to be moved.

Barbara Hanson in *Educational Leadership* says in her article on multi-age grouping, "I can say that it was one of the most rewarding and exciting years of my career. My original fears about changing to a new grade quickly disappeared as I moved from a curriculum-centered to a student-centered classroom. Best of all, the month of June did not mark an ending; it was merely an interlude" (p. 43).

Meaningful Homework

Research demonstrates that traditional homework has little to no effect on student achievement. It does, however, prove to have an adverse effect on families. The struggle between child and parent often results. Students work all day long and then must continue to do so once at home.

Since children are persons, they have many relations and need to develop them, and this takes time. That time is eliminated by hours of homework. A Relational Education provides a schedule and learning atmosphere that allows students to learn and complete their work during school hours which allows for a healthy home life after school.

In a Relational Education, *meaningful* homework proves beneficial and less adverse to family life as traditional homework can often be.

- Children do need to read, and read a lot, however, and this is a challenge to accomplish in a culture that is entertained through other media such as television, the internet, competitive sports, and video games. To ensure that children are reading the necessary quota for high student achievement, students are required to read at home. It is considered "free reading" because *students choose* from an extensive list of engaging, rich books that delight.
- Homework becomes an individual's natural consequence when she chooses to dawdle, when he is inattentive, or she will not take extra time to study the times table. A student can not get too far behind, and a student can not develop poor working habits. Thus, a natural consequence might be this: the student does the work later to compensate for poorly managed time and attention. Again, this becomes the individual's consequence; the whole class is not assigned homework because some individuals make poor choices.

METHODS:

Relational Facilities

Core Belief: Children are persons.

Principles:

- Persons love to learn.
- Persons need an atmosphere of respect.
- Persons thrive with beauty and order around them.
- Persons need ideas and real things to learn facts and information.
- Persons don't just learn inside a school building.
- Persons need a natural inside and outside to learn to live.

Practice

- Students are respected in areas of the atmosphere, including the facility, which is as comfortable as a home:
 - o Beautiful building
 - o Beautiful grounds
 - o Places to run and play and picnic and read and study nature and garden
 - o Comfortable, beautiful furniture, rugs, lighting and other furnishings
 - o Orderly shelves, classrooms, offices, desks, and halls
 - o Orderly, tastefully decorated rooms leave little distraction
 - o Windows full of sunshine and rainy days and birds
 - o Tastefully painted rooms inviting peace, cheerfulness, inspiration
- Ideas are presented in the atmosphere throughout the facility's classrooms, offices, hallways, areas, grounds:
 - o Beautiful framed prints from the masters
 - o Excellent student work
 - o Inspiring art and historical documents and photos
 - o Inspiring quotes
 - o Bird feeders and "homes" for class pets
 - o Photographs of students and families and classes
 - o Nature study specimens fill the room
 - o Music from great composers fill the rooms
 - o Portraits of great artists, thinkers, activists, and writers tastefully adorn walls
 - o Class libraries- research shows students read more from class library selections than from traditional rooms set apart for The Library

RELATIONAL FACILITIES













RELATIONAL FACILITIES









TRADITIONAL FACILITIES













METHODS:

Community Relationships

This atmosphere is nurturing not just for the members of the learning organization itself, creating pride of ownership and personal engagement, but acts as a deliberate invitation to the wider community of Allegheny County to join in the learning adventure and revitalization of their towns and heritage. Deliberate hospitality... invitations to observe, to attend recitals and dramas, to book clubs, to displays and workshops encourage a growing partnership with home, community and school. The learners themselves begin to create the learning atmosphere and practice hospitality as a wider expression of their personhood and community.

They also build relationships with those in their community by visiting places and people outside the school. Dogwood students will spend time with community partners to develop real relationships and vocational skills through mentoring and volunteer programs. Through such service projects and internships, students learn about themselves and their community, growing a sense of respect, appreciation and responsibility, thus meeting the School's vision.

We believe that this *atmosphere* will build resiliency and increase student achievement.

Henderson & Milstein (2003) posit the schoolhouse as the place where students and teachers "build the capacity to bounce back from adversity, adapt to pressures and problems encountered, and develop the competencies... necessary to do well in life.... [t]he resiliencies are initiative, independence, insight, relationship, humor, creativity, and morality" (p.10).

Restorative Discipline and Natural Consequences

Rather than using punitive approaches to discipline and social interaction in school life, restorative means are pursued. Natural consequences result from choices.

Furthermore, the adults, of course, are living out good habits among the students, but they are also always presenting the informing ideas that inspire right action, leading to good habits and ultimately, strong, healthy character. Teachers and students support each other in the struggle that must ensue in the mutual development of intellectual, physical and social habits.

"But the relationship of morality and power is a very subtle one. Because ultimately power without morality is no longer power." – James Baldwin

This is not behaviorism...habits learned with prizes and praise, but relationship with self, one's world and others leading to hard-won ways of good living like attention, a fitting expression, goodwill and kindness, objectivity, right thinking and judging, neatness and order, and self-respect.

While Dogwood Charter School's atmosphere does much to encourage these learning habits, there is no doubt that the teacher holds the authority. But since she lives these good habits as she expects her students to, the need for classroom conflict and discipline is largely eliminated. Bad habits are simply not an option since good habits are so consistently practiced. For example, sloppy or inaccurate work is never accepted and poor choosing has consistent consequences...a child may submit work as many times as wanted to get the desired result! For those times when relationships are marred because one's poor choices hurt another, restorative rather than punitive measures are pursued, and the Restorative Practices program trains and guides students and adults in these practices.

(See article at the end of this Appendix)

MATH: ZPD Mathematical Learning Model and Math Talk

The following mathematics teaching strategies implement the Relational instructional tools of narration and student talk.

(These excerpts come from CPRM Math Reform at

http://74.125.113.132/search?q=cache:hYFM_BzurfcJ:www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/studentsuccess/lms/res earchSynopses.pdf+Zone+of+Proximal+Development+Mathematical+Learning+Model+(Murata+%26+F uson,+2006%3B+Fuson+%26+Murata,+2007&cd=4&hl=en&ct=clnk&gl=us#25)

Japanese Lesson Structure

A typical Japanese mathematics lesson features the following components: (i) the posing of a complex, thought-provoking problem to the class; (ii) individual and/or small group generation of possible approaches for solving the problem; (iii) the communication of strategies and methods by various students to the class; (iv) classroom discussion and collaborative development of the mathematical concepts/understandings; (v) summary and clarification of the findings by the teacher; and (vi) consolidation of understanding through the practice of similar and/or more complex problems.

Strengths underlying the Japanese lesson structure

Since the release of the Third International Math and Science Study (TIMSS) results in 1996, nations have been devoting a great deal of time, resources, and research to the process of unraveling the diverse findings, and exploring various methods for national mathematical and scientific reform. Since Japanese mathematics students outperformed their global peers, attention has focused on the methods of instruction and classroom management that have been adopted by Japanese educators. Lessons in Japanese classrooms were found to be remarkably different from those in Germany and the U.S., promoting students' understanding, while U.S. and German teachers seemed to focus more exclusively on the development of skills. (Martinez, 2001; Roulet, 2000; Stigler & Hiebert, 1997) The considerable time spent in Japanese classrooms on inventing new solutions, engaging in conceptual thinking about mathematics, and communicating ideas has apparently paid rich dividends in terms of students' understanding and achievement. It is somewhat ironic to note that in light of the fact that TIMSS has been criticized as being overly skill-based as opposed to featuring more problem-solving content, Japanese students, who have experienced the types of reforms promoted by groups such as the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, also outperformed the world on more *traditional* mathematics questions. It appears that the deeper understandings cultivated through these methodologies are not at the expense of technical prowess; rather this form of instruction seems to strengthen both procedural and conceptual knowledge.

References

Martinez, J. (2001). "Exploring, inventing, and discovering mathematics: A pedagogical response to the TIMSS." *Mathematics*

Teaching in the Middle School, 7(2), 114–119.

Roulet, G. (2000). "TIMSS: What can we learn about Ontario mathematics?" *Ontario Mathematics Gazette*, 38(3), 15–23.

Stigler, J., & Hiebert, J. (1999). "The teaching gap: Best ideas from the world's teachers for improving education in the

classroom." New York: The Free Press.

Stigler, J., & Hiebert, J. (1999). "The TIMSS 1999 video study." Washington, DC: United States Department of Education,

National Center for Educational Statistics. (Available at:

http://nces.ed.gov/timss/Video.asp)

Watanabe, T. (2002). "Learning from Japanese lesson study." Educational

Math-Talk Learning Community

Hufferd-Ackles, Fuson, and Sherin (2004) define a *Math-Talk Learning Community* as a community in which individuals assist one another's learning of mathematics by engaging in meaningful mathematical discourse (p. 82).

Important Aspects of a Math-Talk Learning Community

The key components within a Math-Talk Learning Community are: questioning, explaining mathematical thinking, source of mathematical ideas, and responsibility for learning. *Questioning* in an effective Math-Talk Learning Community features a shift away from the teacher as questioner to students *and* teacher as co-questioners. In this

community, students are encouraged to ask guestions of their peers in order to understand one another's thinking. *Explaining mathematical thinking* is closely related to, and an obvious product of, good guestioning. Students are increasingly afforded the opportunity to articulate their ideas and new learning to the teacher and to each other within a supportive environment. In a Math-Talk Learning Community students are able to explain, defend and justify their mathematical thinking with confidence. In a more traditional classroom the key source of mathematical ideas was often the teacher, solving problems in a procedural manner for students to then imitate. Whereas, in this environment, students as well as the teacher are each seen as important sources of mathematical ideas. The mathematical "talk" often features the negotiation of student understanding of a given concept, and the ideas of students are considered as valid and worthy of further exploration. In the Math-Talk Learning Community students increasingly take responsibility for their own learning and for the evaluation of others and self. According to the findings of Ackles, Fuson, and Sherin, 'When student thinking began to be elicited, students became more engaged and involved in classroom discourse as speakers and listeners. Their responsibility for their own learning was indicated by their desire to ask questions in class, their eagerness to go to the board to demonstrate their understanding of problems, and their volunteering to ... assist struggling students' (p. 106).

Developing an ideal Math-Talk Learning Community is a process that requires adequate time and support. One researcher's rubric outlines the noticeable characteristics of the four components at each of the four stages of growth (i.e., Levels 0–4). This "developmental trajectory," or growth continuum, enables a teacher to track the progress of their students and of themselves as they continue to evolve together as a Math-Talk Learning Community. In terms of the four components outlined above, a progression is shown to occur from a focus on answers to a focus on mathematical thinking; the role of the teacher transforms from a central position of control to one of a coach or facilitator; and the role of student transforms from one of a passive to much more active participant in the classroom learning activities. The research of Ackles, Fuson, and Sherin (2004) is particularly significant in that it indicates that even 'urban classrooms with students that are below grade level in mathematics can function and learn as a math-talk learning community.' In order to

cultivate this positive Math-Talk Learning Community environment, it is critical for teachers to be patient with their students, to listen carefully to them, to draw out their ideas whenever possible, and to encourage them to listen to each other. 'Classroom discourse and social interaction can be used to promote the recognition of connections among ideas and the reorganization of knowledge.... By having students talk about their informal strategies, teachers can help them become aware of, and build on, their implicit informal knowledge' (NCTM, 2000, p. 21). Teachers must create a classroom climate in which all students are able to make sense of the mathematics that they are learning and to gain confidence in their mathematical ability. With this confidence comes the ability for students to take risks in communicating their mathematical thinking.

Considerations regarding a Math-Talk Learning Community

- Students must have a grasp of the language of the particular strand of mathematics being studied in order to carry on 'math talk' (e.g. to describe one's own thinking, to question, or to extend the work of others)
- Mathematics must be accessible to students to be able to participate in meaningful mathematical discourse
- Not every day includes extensive "math talk" (i.e., some days may involve individual work or paired practice)
- Time is needed to develop a Math-Talk Learning Community; a growth continuum implies ongoing change
- The rubric is meant to assist teachers in monitoring their own "math-talk" progress, and that of their students

References

Hufferd-Ackles, K., Fuson, K. C., & Sherin, M. G. (2004). Describing levels and components of a math-talk learning community. *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education*, 35(2), 81–116. National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. (2000). *Principles and standards for school mathematics.* Reston, VA: Author."

Classroom Libraries & a Common Library

A relational education strives to create an atmosphere, discipline and life of learning for each child. All of our practice aims at supporting and encouraging the natural relationships that educate children. To that end, when we consider literacy, we do not focus on abstract and isolated reading skills but go beyond learning the art of reading to reaching for a school full of children who love to read and are built up from within. Studies have shown alarming trends in American culture towards illiteracy--we may be, largely, a literate people technically but increasingly, we are not a people who love to read.

Several aspects of a relational education contribute significantly to growing readers; each subject is approached through lots of literary, whole books, and children are certain early that books are our principal source of knowledge. They learn to love books as they are exposed early and often to a wide variety of literature: folktales, myths, poetry, fantasy, novels, biography, ballad and fairy tale. Imaginations are nourished intentionally through constant meaningful reading, language acquisition is built across the curriculum and is uniquely adjustable to the needs of each individual student, we have a culture of reading, and teachers and students share books with each other and through community reading groups.

Relational schools by definition are full of books and readers. Yet, there is another way we are intentional in supporting the child-book relationship and that is with our insistence on **classroom libraries**.

Research, (Morrow & Weinstein, 1982) has shown that children who have constant and easy access to books become better and more frequent readers. On top of all the good books we have in our classrooms for lessons, we have chosen to include the contents that would normally be in a school-wide library in the individual classrooms. Rather than have to go to a separate room or building to choose a book, books are attractively displayed in a corner of the classroom reserved solely for reading. Our classrooms are already home-like to provide a relaxed atmosphere for learning, but the library corner is formed with particular care so that 4-5 children at a time can sit comfortably away from regular classroom activity. Children form their reading habit in the early years, so Dogwood Charter school will have excellent classroom libraries (as defined by Morrow, 1985, Morrow & Weinstein, 1982, Routman, 1991) in all elementary classrooms filled with books from all genres and subjects and for several reading levels. Regular times for visiting the library corner will be built into the students' days and taking books home to read with family or on one's own will be part of student homework. High School students will have a common reading area lined by shelves full of books rather like a small bookshop with cozy couches, rugs and lamps to provide a quiet, peaceful, beautiful place to read and find good books. All student libraries will be updated annually.

Narration

We follow the highly effective practice of "narration" or retelling. Every reading, from whole books of the best literary quality, is followed by a narration. Material is read once and then acted out, drawn, retold, sung or copied. Mason points out the reason to narrate:

One thing at any rate we know with certainty, that no teaching, no information becomes knowledge to any of us until the individual mind has acted upon it, translated it, transformed, absorbed it, to reappear, like our bodily food, in **forms of vitality**. Therefore, teaching, talk and tale, however lucid or fascinating, affect nothing until self-activity is set up; that is, self-education is the only possible education; the rest is mere veneer laid on the surface of the child's nature." (Mason, 1925, p.240)

Research substantiates Mason's claim for studies indicating that retelling *impacts* comprehension; it does not just *reveal* it. To communicate an understanding of a story, children in Kalmbach's study were "selecting, organizing, and emphasizing certain events from that story while ignoring others" (1980, p.1). Essentially, the act of retelling required them to use cognitive mechanisms to formulate an understanding that would relate to their audience; they were not "spitting it back" as educators often

assume.

Most researchers speculate that comprehension and other literacy skills are affected by retellings because the retellings require construction of knowledge built upon past experiences, present knowledge, relationships with the audience, and the organizing, synthesizing and evaluating of text (Kalmbach, 1980; Gambrell, Koskinen & Kapinus, 1991).

Student Talk

After reading aloud or alone, students are directed to narrate and then a class discussion follows. Students interact with the ideas presented by the author as well as by their classmates. Teachers do not interrogate with comprehension questions but allow students to generate their own questions and dialogue. In his study of exemplary elementary teachers whose students consistently excelled on achievement tests, Allington (2002) discovered that effective reading teachers used this technique of *student talk* rather than *teacher interrogation*. Ivey and Fisher (2006) included teacher interrogation in their list of <u>ineffective</u> learning strategies. "Despite the long-standing practice of literal-level questioning after reading, we have no reason to believe it actually creates better readers" (p.10). When students generate their own questions and drive the conversation, students make meaning, make connections and socially interact, igniting many parts of the brain for learning.

Students not only retain more and recall more because repetition adds more to memory, but more importantly they make connections that make sense to them (quantitative change). Moreover, the children also demonstrate greater quality in what they know. They are able to make inferences and make personal connections as John, Lui & Tannok (2003) show in their study. Instead of a parts-to-whole way of understanding a story which is what happens when teachers interrogate students with questions about parts of the story, the children generated the whole story and then asked themselves questions about the parts they do not understand using metacognitive strategies. In most studies on retelling, children are not instructed in how to retell, so they have free will in deciding what is important to say and what is unnecessary. All three elements of Narration- reading aloud, retelling and student talk-result in high student achievement.

KINDERGARTEN

Guiding Principles for the Relational Education of Young Children

Ann Sullivan (teacher of Helen Keller) said, "No, I don't want any more Kindergarten materials. . . .I am beginning to suspect all elaborate and special systems of education. They seem to me to be built up on the supposition that every child is a kind of idiot who must be taught to think, whereas if the child is left to himself he will think more and better, if less showily. Let him go and come freely, let him touch real things, and combine his impressions for himself, instead of sitting indoors at a little round table, while a sweet-voiced teacher suggests that he build a stone wall with his wooden blocks, or make a rainbow out of strips of coloured paper, or plant straw trees in bead flower-pots.

Such teaching fills the mind with artificial associations that must be got rid of before the child can develop independent ideas out of actual experiences" (Mason, 1904, p 194).

A. The Principles

1. **Play** is one of the primary tools of learning for the young child. At the heart of teaching children and developing their *executive functions* is play (Leong and Bodrova, 2003). The "executive functions" include a collection of brain processes that are responsible for:

- planning,
- cognitive flexibility,
- abstract thinking,
- rule acquisition,
- initiating appropriate actions,
- inhibiting inappropriate actions, and
- selecting relevant sensory information.

According to Brown, roots of empathy and other necessary skills and principles to live well begin in play. Children's need for physical activity for healthy bodies is met through the social and physical interaction of play.

2. **Language** is another primary tool of learning for the young child. Expressive vocabulary is crucial for vocabulary development and for comprehension development. Children need opportunities to not just receive information, but for crucial language development to occur. Children need plenty of opportunities to express their language.

3. **Use of the senses** (see, hear, touch, etc) is another primary way for children to gain *real* knowledge. In order to accomplish this, children need hours of self-initiated activity.

4. The **outdoors** is the primary place where children get *real* knowledge. It is the source of enormous background knowledge needed for subsequent learning in a traditional school setting.

5. All **children have a desire to know** which is as important to feed as their physical bodies. Their desire to know must be fed through play, outdoor life, and many opportunities to learn through experience with people and objects. Their natural curiosity is nourished on things at this early age. One of the best places for *real* knowledge is outdoors.

6. **Children develop at different rates** and thus the need for a multi-age mix of children. In a Relational program of learning, pacing guides are foolish for teachers to use with children who have such varying needs. Learning diversity is expected and seen as advantageous.

7. **Children build on what they already know**. For this reason children are not empty vessels to be filled with information, but rather they are living beings with capabilities normal to the human being. These capabilities need maturing and developing. Therefore, children using these natural capabilities build new knowledge on previous

knowledge. This provides us with the clue that children need their learning to be properly sequenced.

8. The **family is the first place of learning**. It is within the family that language and learning develop. Therefore, schools need to support families. Families and communities are keys to a child's healthy and sustainable development.

9. **Children grow up in various cultures and situations**. It is important in a Relational program of learning that teachers and school officials seek to understand a child's culture and background to support families and communities.

10. **Initiative and self-direction** are important parts of a Relational learning model. Children through play learn to direct themselves toward the good of themselves and their fellow students. Learning to control the self and initiate kindness and sensitivity towards fellow human beings is crucial for the well-being of not only the child but for the community.

11. **Children need much independent time** to learn on their own. Too much adult influence can have a "devitalizing" effect on the child. Children, according to David Elkind, deify adults. Charlotte Mason in speaking about the undue influence of a teacher said, "we all know how we lose vigour and individuality under this sort of influence (1907, p 187). Therefore, children need much independent time under the watchful eye of an adult.

B. Areas of Growth

In a Relational program of education for the young child to develop properly in all areas of life, the following guidelines are met. Further, the Relational model of education recognizes that children grow and learn at different rates and therefore, insists that the broad principles below are meant to describe not prescribe.

Social and Emotional Development

According to Leong and Bodrova (2003), who have developed Tools of the Mind for implementation in Kindergartens using the work of Russian educational psychologist, Vygotsky, children through play learn to develop the executive functions. These are managed in the frontal lobe of the brain. In this portion of the brain, children's ability to make decisions, self-direct, accept or reject the feelings and thoughts of others are all developed at an early age. According to Brown, many of the serial killers and felony drunk drivers had few experiences with play and had not developed the ability to accept rejection and disagreement with others. We are social beings and need the camaraderie of our fellow humans, but without play children cannot develop in their social and emotional areas as they should. Further, according to the Nebraska Early Learning Guidelines, "The key to social and emotional development is strong, positive, secure relationships. Young children need parents, extended families, teachers, caregivers and other adults who are supportive and attentive, and who provide safe and predictable environments." This safe and secure environment helps children develop a strong sense of self while learning to welcome and socially interact with the "self" of other children.

Health and Physical Development

Through the use of play, children develop their gross motor skills, their fine motor skills, and eye-hand coordination. According to the Wisconsin Model of Early Learning (WMEL), "Gross or large motor control refers to such characteristics as balance, coordination, purposeful control, locomotion, and stability of body movements and functions." Fine motor skills include, "such abilities as manipulation of materials and tools, hand dominance, and eye-hand coordination." Sensory integration is defined by WMEL as "the neurological process of organizing the information received from the three main sensory systems – tactile, proprioceptive and vestibular. The tactile sense provides information to the brain primarily through the surface of the skin about the texture, shape, and size of objects in the environment. The proprioceptive sense provides information to the brain from the joints, muscles, and ligaments about where the body is in space and what they are doing. The vestibular sense provides information the and movement. When the brain integrates or organizes sensory information efficiently a child learns to respond appropriately and automatically."

Language development

Olofsson and Niedersøe (1999) write, "There is a significant connection between early language measures and reading skills in the first four school years."

In a research project by Wise, Sevcik, Morris, Lovett and Wolf (2007), the authors suggest that

Keeping the study's limitations in consideration, the findings from this study were largely consistent with a large body of research indicating that oral language skills are related to reading achievement (Cooper et al., 2002; Olofsson & Niedersøe, 1999; Scarborough, 1990). This study, however, provided unique evidence that receptive and expressive vocabulary knowledge were independently related to pre-reading skills, *whereas only expressive vocabulary knowledge was related to word identification abilities*. Findings suggest that receptive and expressive vocabulary knowledge relate to pre-reading skills in differential ways because of the nature of each type of knowledge. Further, those children with better definitional knowledge may have an advantage in identifying words because of more thoroughly represented semantic knowledge. Finally, results from this study indicate that better listening comprehension skills facilitate word identification. (Italics mine)

The early language development of children was a concern of 19th century and early 20th century British educator, Charlotte Mason. In her writings she encourages the parents of

her day to promote the use of language. She says:

Bobbie will come home with a heroic narrative of a fight he has seen between 'Duke' and a dog in the street. It is wonderful! He has seen everything, and he tells everything with splendid vigor in the true epic vein; but so ingrained is our contempt for children that we see nothing in this but Bobbie's foolish childish way! Whereas here, if we have eyes to see and grace to build, this is the ground-plan of his education.

The quotes above simply support the paramount importance that language development has in the growth and maturing of children. Language development in children requires a rich literacy environment and most importantly a place where children can use the language they are learning. **Story** is crucial in the development of language and children need ample opportunities to tell stories and to talk about the events in their lives. It is through the *use of language* that children grow in and show evidence of their ability to comprehend the world around them.

Mathematics, Sciences and Other Content Areas

Children have a natural curiosity to know. This innate desire to know drives young children to explore, imagine, discover and problem solve. The child implores these tools of learning to develop their understanding of the world they live in. This natural curiosity is important to develop properly for it is this type of thinking that is at the topic of Bloom's taxonomy and therefore in a Relational model of learning these abilities must be preserved in the child, not destroyed. It is through their natural curiosity that children explore in the mathematics, sciences, languages, creative arts such as architecture, painting and, in fact, in all areas of life.

Learning Environments

The instructional model used in a Relational program of learning must preserve the child's natural curiosity of knowledge. The child's environment is rich with outdoor life as well as a well planned rich indoor environment. It must also use the child's natural propensity to use language. If the research is true, receptive language is not sufficient; and therefore, expressive language must be used extensively in a Relational model of learning. Therefore, a Relational model of learning narration is used daily to allow children to develop their oral or expressive language. This is significant because of the impact of the use of oral language at an early age on reading development in the later elementary grades.

Interest Areas: Children Learn From Play

Here are some suggestions for each area. Begin at the youngest age and add items for the age of each child in your group. Remember to change materials regularly to keep areas fresh and interesting. Allow children to play with any item as long as it is safe for his/her age.

Sensory Materials	Active Play Equipment	Construction Materials
(To stimulate the five senses)	(In large, open spaces, and outside)	(In a quiet spot for building)
INFANTS (Birth to 12 months) Sucking toys Rattles Unbreakable mirrors (acrylic) Patterned crib sheets Mobiles Music	INFANTS (Birth to 12 months) Bounce chairs Mobiles (activated by movement) Things to reach and grab Adults to bounce gently upon (with caution) Bright colored balls	INFANTS (Birth to 12 months) Nesting toys Large, soft blocks
TODDLERS (12 – 24 months) add Music boxes Busy boxes Push toys Large bells, drums Non-toxic play dough and finger paint (with close supervision) Water play with cup & spoon Fruit to taste (cut into small pieces)	TODDLERS (12 – 24 months) add Crawling tunnel Riding toys Cardboard boxes 2-3 steps to climb Ramps to walk on Balls Push and pull toys	TODDLERS (12 – 24 months) add Cardboard blocks Cups to stack Toy pounding bench
2 – 3 YEARS add Sand-play with household objects Scarves for dancing Listening games Texture boards Tasting activities	2 – 3 YEARS add Low climber Low slide Wagon Homemade obstacle course Sandbox with toys	2 – 3 YEARS add Wood unit blocks Little people figures Animals Cars and trucks Train and tracks Wooden pegs, mallet, and styrofoam
3 YEARS AND UP add More tools for working with sand, Water and play dough Rhythm instruments Wide variety of music Cooking activities (with close supervision)	3 YEARS AND UP add Swings Low balancing beam Low basketball hoop Tricycle/big wheels Jump ropes Easy-to-play games such as "Follow the Leader" Parachute	3 YEARS AND UP add More unit block shapes and accessories Props for road, town scenes Woodworking bench and accessories (with careful one-on-one supervision) Construction sets with small pieces (keep away from smaller children)

From Growing Smart and Healthy Babies. Reprinted by permission of Bright from the Start: Georgia Department of Early Care and Learning.

Interest Areas: Children Learn From Play

Manipulative Toys	Doll & Dramatic Play	Book & Recordings	Art Materials
(On a low table)		(In a soft, cozy spot)	(Near water & low tables/chairs)
INFANTS (Birth – 12 months) Large rings Squeeze toys Textured balls Large measuring spoons	INFANTS (<i>Birth – 12 months</i>) Soft dolls Peek-a-boo games Songs and finger plays	INFANTS (Birth – 12 months) Records of voices, sounds, animal sounds, music Sturdy cloth cardboard books Lap books with large illustrations, picture of faces, large objects, bright shapes Puppets	INFANTS (<i>Birth – 12 months</i>) Bright socks on hands/feet Textured objects Brightly colored toys Edible finger paint (baby food)
TODDLERS (12 – 24 months) add Puzzles: 2 – 6 pieces with knobs Nesting toys Large pegboards Snap-together toys with big pieces	TODDLERS (12 – 24 months) add Blankets to wrap dolls Dishes, pans, spoons Broom, sponge Hats, unbreakable Mirror (acrylic) Shopping cart Purses Telephones Pretend food	 TODDLERS (12 – 24 months) add Books with simple stories Songs, finger plays Pictures on wall at eye level (laminated) Flannel board and flannel people 	 TODDLERS (12 – 24 months) add Frequent opportunities to explore messy edible/nontoxic substance (food, water-based finger painting) Non-toxic markers (on boxes) Chalk (on paper, cardboard, sidewalk) Fat crayons (one color at a time) Large paper to draw on (tape down)
2 – 3 YEARS add Puzzles: 4 – 6 pieces Big beads to string Stacking toys Scissors and cards to cut up	2 – 3 YEARS add Doll bed, carriages Doll clothes Realistic dolls Tables and chairs Toy stove, etc. Dress-up clothes (simple) puppets	 2 – 3 YEARS add Books with stories about familiar things Short story records, more songs, finger plays Written and picture labels on objects Flannel board accessories 	 2 – 3 YEARS add Water-based paint with large brushes Scissors and things to cut Play dough 2-3 crayons at a time Large paper, different textures, colors Stickers and paper
3 YEARS AND UP add Puzzles, peg- boards Stringing and snap together toys with smaller pieces according to ability level	3 YEARS AND UP add Boxes with dress-up clothes and realistic accessories to encourage theme Play "restaurant," "store," "gas station," "office," "airport." Let the children be your GUIDE!	 3 YEARS AND UP add More and more detailed stories Access to record/tape player with instructions on care and use Written and picture labels on objects such as: name on cup, etc., to help associate written word with objects Child's own words as dictated on artwork and in homemade books to be read back by child/adults More flannel accessories 	3 YEARS AND UP add Water colors Hole punchers Glue/paste and a variety of things to glue onto paper Magazines to cut up Things to lick and stick Crayons and markers of many colors Natural objects (leaves, pine cones, etc.) Collage materials

From Growing Smart and Healthy Babies. Reprinted by permission of Bright from the Start: Georgia Department of Early Care and Learning.

Interest Areas: Children Learn From Play

Activity	Specific Skills Learned		
Finding toys or learning materials to work with alone or with others.	Cognitive: Self-help: Social/Language: Emotional:	Makes decisions about interests and abilities. Find toys by him/her self or sets up environment for play. Learns to share, barter, manage conflict, and ask for help. Learns about acceptance and rejection. Expresses needs.	
Block play	Physical: Cognitive: Social:	Learns to balance blocks and line them up (small motor coordination). Matches blocks that look alike. May count blocks, sees pattern and design. Learns to build and plan structure. Learns to share and cooperate.	
Dramatic play	Social: Language: Cognitive: Self-help:	Plays adult roles. Develops self-image and coordinates with others. Learns to express self in another role. Decides appropriate dress and appearance for role; uses visual perceptions to assess self, others and play environment. Learns and remembers behaviors to imitate. Develops abstract thinking abilities. Dresses self: Sets up play environment and finds props.	
Setting the table	Cognitive: Social: Physical:	Counts silverware, glasses, and napkins, or places one object by each setting. Follows pattern of place settings. Cooperates with other children. May teach younger children to help. Picks up and places objects (small motor coordination).	
Sitting down to eat	Physical: Cognitive: Social/Language:	Pours milk, passes the dish (small motor coordination). Measures to pour. Understands directions. Learns appropriate table conversation and manners.	
Story time or listening to music	Cognitive:	Listens and retains information. Follows story line (sequencing) with eyes and/or ears. Recognizes words, picture, instruments, and rhythms.	
Finger plays and songs	Cognitive/Language: Physical:	Learns words, gestures, and melody (sequencing, repetition, speech and listening skills). Follows directions. Coordination (small and large motor) for gestures and finger plays.	
Dance	Cognitive/Language: Physical:	Listens to music and rhythms. Learns to understand simple movement, directions and their relationahip to music. Coordinates mevements (large motor).	
Climbing/riding	Cognitive: Physical: Social:	May count the rungs to the top of a climbing structure; plans the climb. Maps out direction and distance to ride; watches for others in path. Large motor coordination, balance. Takes turns, interacts.	
Sand play	Cognitive: Physical: Social:	Measures sand and maps out roads (spatial relationships). Pours, dumps, pushes, gathers, scoops, packs (small and large motor). Shares, interacts, and cooperates.	
Putting away toys	Cognitive: Physical: Social:	Sorts toys, follows directions. Places objects on the shelf, replaces lids, opens and shuts doors. Takes turns, learns to handle toy carefully.	

From Growing Smart and Healthy Babies. Reprinted by permission of Bright from the Start: Georgia Department of Early Care and Learning.

C. Charlotte Mason's Thoughts

Mason wrote these ideas in her book , Home Education:

- That the knowledge most valuable to the child is that which he gets with his own eyes and ears and fingers (under direction) in the open air.
- That the claims of the schoolroom should not be allowed to encroach on the child's right to long hours daily for exercise and investigation.
- That the child should be taken daily, if possible, to scenes—moor or meadow, park, common, or shore—where he may find new things to examine, and so add to his store of *real* knowledge. That the child's observation should be directed to flower or boulder, bird or tree; that, in fact, he should be employed in gathering the common information which is the basis of scientific knowledge.
- That play, vigorous healthful play, is, in its turn, fully as important as lessons, as regards both bodily health and brain-power.
- That the child, though under supervision, should be left much to himself—both that he may go to work in his own way on the ideas he receives, and also that he may be more open to natural influences.
- That the happiness of the child is the condition of his progress; that his lessons should be joyous, and that occasions of friction in the schoolroom are greatly to be deprecated (1904, p 176).

D. Outside Kindergarten

Many positive outcomes result for students when they attend kindergartens that encourage children to be outside where they can use their problem solving abilities, organization skills, use their imaginations, etc.

Research from the UK suggests the following:

- Teaching methods effectively encourage children's self motivation and interest in learning.
- It ensures that children learn at their own pace, which brings attention to their remarkable ability to organize and initiate their own play.
- The staff is careful not to disrupt the practical problem solving, and they support the children rather than direct them.
- They keep parents involved by keeping them well informed on weekly activities and learning intentions.
- The use of non-representational play greatly encourages the children to use their imagination.
- The consistent use of music, singing, and movement helps them to develop their confidence, rhythm and sense of inner calm.
- The starting points for literacy are firmly established and children demonstrate independent interest and motivation. They are eager to write, make purposeful marks and are sound in their understanding that print carries meaning.

- Mathematics is practiced by using things of nature, such as lengths of twigs, pods, and stones that are collected.
- It allows children to be more hands on with nature.

Research from the US indicates:

- It allows children to relate their shapes and colors to things of nature.
- They are able to identify the things of nature as well as notice that they are incorporated into things that they take part in every day.
- Children develop a sense of awe and wonder and respect for the Earth.
- They enjoy exploring and discovering new things, leading to a lifelong joy of learning.
- They develop curiosity, imagination and creativity.
- They develop strong powers of observation and the ability to make connections.

E. Nature's Lessons for Kindergarten Readiness

Kindergarten is a time for children to expand their love of learning, their general knowledge, their ability to get along with others, and their interest in reaching out to the world. While kindergarten marks an important transition from preschool to the primary grades, it is important that children still get to be children -- getting kindergarteners ready for elementary school does not mean substituting academics for play time, forcing children to master first grade "skills," or solely relying on standardized tests to assess children's success. Kindergarten "curriculum" actually includes such events as snack time, recess, and individual and group activities in addition to those activities we think of as traditionally educational. Developmentally appropriate kindergarten classrooms encourage the growth of children's self-esteem, their cultural identities, their independence and their individual strengths. Kindergarten children will continue to develop control of their own behavior through the guidance and support of warm, caring adults. At this stage, children are already eager to learn and possess an innate curiosity. Teachers with a strong background in early childhood education and child development can best provide for children what they need to grow physically, emotionally, and intellectually.

F. 10 signs of a Good Kindergarten Classroom

Children are playing and working with materials or other children. They are not aimlessly wandering or forced to sit quietly for long periods of time. Children have access to various activities throughout the day, such as block building, pretend play, picture books, paints and other art materials, and table toys such as legos, pegboards, and puzzles. Children are not all doing the same things at the same time. Teachers work with individual children, small groups, and the whole group at different times during the day. They do not spend time only with the entire group. The classroom is decorated with children's original artwork, their own writing with invented spelling, and dictated stories. Children learn numbers and the alphabet in the context of their everyday experiences. Exploring the natural world of plants and animals, cooking, taking attendance, and

serving snacks are all meaningful activities to children. Children work on projects and have long periods of time (at least one hour) to play and explore. Worksheets are not allowed. Children have an opportunity to play outside every day that weather permits. This play is never sacrificed for more instructional time. Teachers read books to children throughout the day, not just at group story time. Curriculum is adapted for those who are ahead as well as those who need additional help. Because children differ in experiences and background, they do not learn the same things at the same time in the same way. Children and their parents look forward to school. Parents feel safe sending their child to kindergarten. Children are happy; they are not crying or regularly sick.

Individual kindergarten classrooms will vary, and curriculum will vary according to the interests and backgrounds of the children. Some may go on more field studies than others depending on the children's experiences and upon what the community offers. But all developmentally appropriate kindergarten classrooms will have one thing in common: the focus will be on the development of the child as a whole.

Additional Resources:

Good teaching practices for older preschoolers and kindergarteners. 1990. Washington, DC: NAEYC #522. 50¢ each/100 for \$10. Spanish edition, Prácticas de enseñanza apropiados para niños mayores en preescolar y kinder, #523.

Peck, J., G. McCaig & M.E. Sapp, Kindergarten policies: What is best for children? Washington, DC: NAEYC. #141/\$6.

Credits

Copyright © 1996 by National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Taken from: http://www.kidsource.com/kidsource/content3/10.signs.kinder.K12.4.html

Retelling:

Its Effects on Cognitive Development and Beyond

Nicolle Hutchinson

University of Pennsylvania

Human Development

Professor Fegley

August 13, 2008

There is an old Chinese proverb floating around in educational circles, "Tell me, I forget. Show me, I remember. Involve me, I understand." In the year 2008, it is clear from educational journals, books, seminars, workshops, professional development and classroom practice, that instruction is becoming much more hands-on, child-centered, differentiated and inquiry-based because more and more educators are realizing from their own anecdotal classroom evidence as well as from research that children must be, as the proverb states, involved in their learning. Tremors from this paradigm shift shake the foundations of American schools today, and the pressures from such macrosystem factors as NCLB are forcing educational leaders and teachers to consider changing theoretical perspectives of learning. Instead of seeing children through a behavioral lens

which designs schools as factories that produce automatons programmed with basic skills for an industrialized workforce, educators recognize and presage the need for a different perspective on schooling for the unpredictable, technologically and globally based future. Educators do not simply pour sums, vocabulary, dates and formulas from their pitchers of knowledge into the vacant child's head that is pried open hanging on its hinges passively waiting to be shut when the mind is full. Rather, the paradigm shift is toward a respectful lens of the person that recognizes that humanistic, contextualist, constructivist approaches truly influence children's learning, for they view the child as a whole being that encompasses a mind as well as a soul, body, spirit and heart. The whole being carries her past, present, culture, religion, ethnicity, learning styles, talents, interests, and much more in life's backpack as she enters the school doors; thus, the educator must respectfully care for the growth of the whole child to empower her to learn the academic subject matter, habits, skills and ideas to develop into a well person not just a well mind.

So, how should educators then teach to help a child develop wholly? First, they use pedagogy that recognizes the developmental mechanisms that influence children's learning and development from a humanist perspective. In addition, they recognize that children still need the basic skills that were necessary for the industrial age- such as literacy skills- to be thinkers that synthesize and create and understand others perspectives and ideas to be successful in the information age (Gardner, 2007). Little learning and development can take place without reading and writing skills, so literacy development is essential and has become a popular area of study in cognitive development. Looking at the behaviors of good readers, researchers found that to comprehend, good readers make meaning, make connections, visualize, and search for story structure elements (Gambrell, Morrow & Pressley, 2007). Also, these students watch their teacher model the process, and eventually learn how to use these strategies on their own and self-regulate their learning. This approach, based on social cognitive learning theory and theory of mind, respects the need for relational learning that persons have and provides the scaffolding children need to cognitively develop.

Background of Retelling

This list of best practices for developing reading and comprehension is incomplete. It is missing "retelling." Retelling is the simple act of telling back what was read, heard, seen or experienced. Usually, in literacy instruction, it occurs immediately after the information is presented. Though it is not a new idea, it is rarely implemented because those educators who are aware of it either ignore it, dismiss it as fluff and time consuming or deem it too difficult for children (Morrow, 1985). The ancient Greeks did not think so. They considered it a nascent process for development in the rhetoric stage of their pedagogical system (Glass, 2002). Retelling was popular in the British Empire during the turn of the 20th century and spread to America around the early 1920's (Mason, 1925). Unfortunately, after the 1930's, behavioral mechanisms and strategies grew in popularity in schools for 50 years because of the influence of Pavlov and Skinner's work (Johnson, 2008). It has not been used much in the States since then. Why? This literature review seeks to find out. Does retelling influence cognitive development? If so, how and to what degree does it influence? Furthermore, does a lack of empirical data keep educators uninformed of its influences?

A look at the history and research on retelling answers these questions. First, it was in the 1980's that educators and researchers began to see the benefits of retelling as they studied it as an assessment tool of cognitive development. As the research mounted, some began to hypothesize that retelling was not only an assessment tool, or a dependent variable, but also an independent variable that affected literacy learning, especially comprehension (Kalmbach, 1980; Gambrell, Pfeiffer & Wilson, 1985; Morrow, 1985). The resulting research of the late 1980's and the relatively few studies done throughout the 1990's to the present reveal that retelling significantly affects cognitive development, especially when scaffolded, and perhaps affects other areas of development in children. The studies on retelling reviewed, compared, critiqued and evaluated here will demonstrate the effects of retelling on cognitive development in the literacy areas of comprehension, vocabulary, story structure understanding and retention of both mainstream and learning disabled students. Furthermore, a discussion of the possible developmental mechanisms will reveal why cognitive development occurs, and finally, the implications will be delineated.

Form and Function of Retelling in Research

Retelling as the Dependent Variable

Research on retelling is culturally specific because it takes on two forms and two functions. Usually it functions as an assessment tool to study particular independent variables, especially comprehension since researchers assume that retelling "reflects comprehension" (Gambrell, Pfeiffer & Wilson, 1985). Thus, students' retellings take on a specific form for assessment. For example, reading aloud and reading silently might be compared in effectiveness by judging the comprehension that the retellings reveal from both reading strategies.

Unfortunately, studies demonstrate that retellings may not be the best form of assessment. First, when behaviorists used retellings as assessments, they looked for quantitative results and counted how much the children told back verbatim, but Kalmbach's study of retelling assessment tools revealed that children were not trying to retell a story verbatim but were instead attempting to "communicate an understanding of the story by selecting, organizing and emphasizing certain events..." (Kalmbach, 1980, p.1). He concluded that retelling assessments that compared story recalls against original stories were unreliable. Second, Gambrell, Kapinus & Koskinen's study (1991) further revealed the inequities. They found that both proficient and less-proficient readers' retellings significantly improved with practice. Consequently, if the students were not given opportunities to practice retelling, then their scores were skewed because the test itself became an independent variable.

There is one instance when retelling was used as the dependent variable to determine a baseline of students' narrative performance to assist researchers when they used retelling as an independent variable. The assumption was that knowing how retelling is affected by biological factors such as age would help researchers and teachers determine reliable effects of retelling. In

John, Lui & Tannok's (2003) study, the independent variables - age, gender and the Snap tests (often used to assess retellings)- were studied to find their effects on students' retellings in the areas of comprehension, story grammar and length. They found that internal responses- the students' subjective responses to the story-improved with age, and girls demonstrated stronger inference skills than boys. Age made little difference on story grammar and length. All ages showed significant differences between factual and inferential comprehension, and the length of retellings were the same across ages. They also determined that the SNAP stories were not equivalent.

The baseline is suspect for several reasons. First, even though they considered the previous research demonstrating the effects of the audience by implying to the students that their audience had never heard the story, they ignored the research on experience with retelling. Based on the information given, the children were not well versed in the strategy of retelling, and they were only given one practice session before the testing session. As Gambrell and her colleagues demonstrated, the baseline was not accurate since retellings improve with practice. To determine that all children found it easier to tell factual rather inferential information was accurate when referring to novice "retellers." However, those with the habit of retelling would already attend and know the process and would not feel overwhelmed with the daunting task of sharing everything that they remembered. Perhaps they did not know that it was important to also share personal reactions as well as underlying themes and implied motives. Furthermore, perhaps boys can inference more with additional practice. In addition, the lack of practice may have influenced the equivalency results of the SNAP stories. Secondly, only European American children were studied. Ecosystems and macrosystems were not considered. Thirdly. the reliance on Piaget's stage framework limits the baseline. Vygotsky would argue that the children's relationship with the teacher and other students during the retellings and extra guidance through the zone of proximal development might have helped the boys make better inferences because of the practice and scaffolding (Fernyhough, 2007). Consequently, another study is necessary to prove both the validity of the proposed baseline and the invalidity of the SNAP stories since it would indeed be useful to have a baseline, if one is possible.

Retelling as the Independent Variable

If retellings improve with practice and if children process information rather than just memorize it, then retelling may function as a cognitive learning *strategy* rather than just an assessment of cognitive learning. Consequently, the form of retelling changes. Both behavioral and constructivist perspectives framed studies of this possibility.

Behavioral Perspective of the Retelling Strategy

Retelling's Effect on Retention

Through a behavioral research study modeled after Ferster and Skinner's "replication logic" experiments in 1957, Brown and Dunne (1996) conducted a study in hopes of proving that specific instructional strategies of "active responding" would condition academic fluency and retention. To enable children to attend and listen to instruction as well as retain important information, they assumed that students needed to practice immediate responses to stimuli (the shared information), and they chose immediate retelling as the response mechanism. It was unclear in the article as to the reason for choosing retelling. It was clear, however, from the process that the researchers used a mechanistic lens to frame their study. They chose ten developmentally disabled 14-16 year olds taught in a self-contained classroom. The number of students was small suggesting that the researchers believed that learning is biological and universal to all categories of students. The types of disabilities were not described, but their IQ scores were listed as being below 80 and above 50. Furthermore,

the location of the school was not included suggesting that the socio-economic status and environmental location would not play a role in development. The students experienced three conditional phases. First, they listened to different instructional audio tape recordings of a life skill once a day. Two hours later, the students recalled the information to the teacher to determine their retention of the information. The second phase required the students to listen to the same tape each day until their delayed recall of the information included 30 correct responses, and then they repeated the process with a different life skill recording. During the final stage, the students were instructed to listen to a tape and then retell in one minute the information into a tape recorder that would later be graded. They repeated this tape and process as in the other stages. The researchers expected quantitative change and found it. The dependent variables (number or correct delayed retells) increased when they immediately retold the information (independent variable/repeated stimuli) and significantly increased when they immediately retold the information (independent variable/repeated response) for nine of the ten students. To score the delayed retells, nouns and verbs were counted. Qualitative changes such as understanding and personal responses were not evaluated.

Consequently, the researchers posited that retellings were an easy active response strategy for teachers to use with developmentally disabled students, and they emphasized that the key was responding and responding quickly (1996). The premise was that the right conditions would produce the right results. Little else was taken into consideration. It was assumed that the retelling did not change form when the child knew that his retelling was to be graded. It was assumed that the students' lack of practice in retelling strategies made no difference. It was assumed that the children passively took in the information and reacted immediately, so the learning was affected by the outward forces of the teacher, not inwardly by the children.

Constructivist Perspective of the Retelling Strategy

Retelling's Effect on Retention

In their study of the effects of retelling on recall and reading comprehension, Gambrell, Pfeiffer & Wilson (1985) also found that retelling significantly improved retention of text information, but they reasoned constructivist developmental mechanisms instead of behavioral ones for the change. They studied the effects of retelling of expository text on 93 fourth graders' retention and comprehension skills by comparing the use of two generative learning strategies: immediate illustrations and immediate retellings after reading text. Considering previous research, both groups were given time to practice both strategies, and the retelling group retold their stories to an audience that had never heard the story. Thus, the form of the retelling was a different form from that of Brown and Dunne's (1996). The findings were significant. The retelling group soundly outperformed the illustrating group in retention and comprehension of text. More surprisingly, the retelling group remembered significantly more of the test reading two days later than the illustrating group remembered immediately following the test reading. Like Brown and Dunne, these researchers looked for quantitative change and found it, but they noted qualitative change as well. The retellings were more elaborate. They also demonstrate their constructivist leanings in their approach when they compared two generative strategies and looked to see if the retellings improved, suggesting that they do not think that children's minds are static computers, but are instead malleable organisms that "...throughout development are affected by experience" (Diamond, 2007, p.152).

Retelling's Effect on Comprehension

Gambrell later worked with Koskinen and Kapinus in 1991 and again demonstrated retelling's substantial effects. When they studied proficient and less proficient readers' comprehension, both retelling groups significantly improved their comprehension and their retellings after retelling practice. Interestingly, the less proficient readers' comprehension scores on their fourth retelling outscored the proficient readers' scores on their first retelling. These studies were strong because the retelling form was more natural since the children's retellings were not being judged, and they were not instructed how to retell.

Retelling also affects math comprehension. Cutler & Monroe (2006) assumed that retellings of word problems could be one more strategy students could use to solve "compare word problems," so a group of sixth graders either retold and restructured sentences to comprehend the problem after reading it while another group of sixth graders simply attempted to solve the problem immediately after reading it. At times, comparing problems confuses students, so when the problems were "inconsistent," students did not realize that they needed to conduct the opposite computational strategy than the keywords suggest. For example, a student added rather than subtracted. When children did not retell the problem, they usually used the computation key word rather than switching the computation suggesting that they did not intend on understanding the problem. Conversely, the retelling group comprehended the problem by changing the sentence structure to make more sense of the computation required. Though they may have chosen the wrong mathematical process, they did try to understand the problem. This supports the idea that retellings force a person to understand the

information.

Two studies inadvertently supported this argument. Both assessed children with retelling when they discovered that retelling impacts comprehension; it does not just reveal it. To communicate an understanding of a story, according to Kalmbach, children were "selecting, organizing, and emphasizing certain events from that story while ignoring others" (1980, p.1). Essentially, the act of retelling forced them to use cognitive mechanisms to formulate an understanding that would relate to their audience: they were not "spitting it back" as teachers often assume. Wagner, Sahlen & Nettelbladt's work concurred (1999) because their children were spitting back words from the story without meaning. In the first step of their longitudinal study of Swedish preschoolers, they compared children with language impairment to those with normal language to determine if narrative comprehension relates to productivity (amount of words) and organization. Just like Kalmbach, they concluded that strong retellings with substance and quality required comprehension. Some children repeated many words, but their retellings were shallow and lacked true comprehension. Here, again, guality was as important. Their constructivist framework was further demonstrated when the authors noted that the model they used to study narrative comprehension did not consider the dialogic discourse that connects cognitive and relational mechanisms of content comprehension, and they called for future research to study dialogic effects on comprehension. Such a Vygotskian view would also help children with language impairments since the researchers noted that retelling was demanding on the children who needed the guidance of another as well as the scaffolding of story structure models to aid them.

Retelling's Effect on Story Structure

Story structure plays a role in comprehension. First, Geva & Olson (1983) discovered that six year olds include most story structures in their retellings of narrative stories. Then Romero, Paris & Brem (2005) compared narrative and expository retellings and found that fourth graders retold narratives much more thoroughly than expository text, and they credited story structure because children had to present the texts holistically, thus showing comprehension. As both he and Moss (1997) concluded from their data, children can understand expository text and retell it well when they understand the structure of expository text, but most children were not as familiar with it as with narrative story structure.

Since knowing story structure does indeed assist comprehension, Morrow (1985), Kuldanek (1998) & Geist (2002) wanted to know if retelling assists story structure construction and understanding thus having an indirect impact on comprehension. To scaffold the children's retelling strategy, Morrow ensured that all had a chance to practice the strategy and were given instruction on retelling protocol, and then she studied students' retellings and comprehension before they were taught story structure elements and then after the scaffolding instruction. The students comprehend more with the scaffolding and practice, and retelling augmented story structure knowledge which led to improved retelling and better comprehension. Interestingly, she admitted that she did not know the developmental mechanisms that brought about the cognitive change and called for more research.

Kuldanek (1998) also assumed that direct instruction of story structure to be implemented in retellings increased learning disabled children. He chose retelling because of previous retelling work with learning disabled children that increased their comprehension, so he wanted to see if story framing, a way to understand story structure, would enhance their retellings. He added this variable because Brown and Cambourne (1987) noted in their book that retelling worked best when children were immersed in a theme and when scaffolding procedures offered aid to students.

Using story frames scaffolded the retellings and comprehension of students in Kuldanek's study as it did in Geist's (2002). Geist noted, "...teachers are unaware or ignoring the findings of researchers such as Brown and Cambourne..." (p.107). He hoped to add to the research and determine if written retellings focused on story structure would improve writing and sense of story. His work is significant because it demonstrated that second graders who used written retellings in a traditional classroom that did not focus story structure but on correct answers and more quantitative results did not show improvement in writing literacy skills and sense of story structure over their control group that did not write retellings. However, those second graders in writing workshop/

literature based classrooms (that taught story structure) who wrote retellings did show significant improvement over their control group (in the same class) that did not use retellings. The work evidenced that the philosophy and story structure instruction and class discussion found in writing workshop/literature based classrooms affected retelling and literacy skills. Thus, retelling was determined to be a part of a whole approach rather than a piecemeal, mechanistic approach.

Retelling's Effect on Vocabulary

Vocabulary usage and understanding were affected by retelling as well. Leung (2008) studied the role

of retelling with preschoolers to determine if immediate retellings of repeated read-alouds of science books would increase students' usage and comprehension of scientific vocabulary words. Considering the many studies on the positive effects of read-alouds on vocabulary development, the researcher developed a complex study to determine if the dependent invariables, vocabulary usage and understanding, were affected by the following independent variables: 1. repeated read-alouds of the same book, 2. retellings of the stories, 3. prior vocabulary knowledge levels and 4. hands-on science experiments. At first this study seemed too complex, but Leung thoroughly determined prior vocabulary words not commonly heard by three and four year olds, such as "refraction" and "opaque," and clearly separated the retellings from the hands-on experiments which occurred after several retellings. For the purposes of this review, only the results of the retellings are evaluated.

After determining that gender did not influence the students' prior vocabulary knowledge, heterogeneous groups were created at an urban YMCA consisting of a majority of European American children along with some Latino and African American children, and the group's SES was mixed. After pre-testing levels of vocabulary knowledge, the children were separated into two groups (4 year olds and 3 year olds) that were then divided into two subgroups (retelling and not retelling). The same book was read aloud to the children three times. Three different science books were read over a few months. Children attended to the teacher's reading of a science book that contained several target vocabulary words, all of which were discussed together. One group then immediately retold the story individually to university students who asked the child to "read" the story to them using the pictures of the book since they had never heard the story. (The other group did not retell.) The children shared more details since the listeners did not know consequently demonstrating more of what the children knew. The study results marked significant differences between the retellers and the non-retellers. Those who immediately retold not only used significantly more targeted vocabulary words on their post-tests from the first to last readings but also better explained the scientific concepts of those words. They concluded that young children can learn scientific vocabulary with the type of scaffolding Vygotsky recommended. The children needed repeated dialogic read alouds partnered with immediate retellings. Because this study was careful to determine prior vocabulary knowledge and the effects of gender to rule out possible independent variables and also used two well known vocabulary tests to determine basic vocabulary knowledge while also conducting pre-tests of the targeted words to rule prior knowledge out as a variable, the study proved to be reliable. It did not vary much from the processes used by the other studies of retelling. Leung did not try to determine why retelling affects vocabulary knowledge, however, but she did discuss the read alouds and informational texts. The article lacks even the reason why she chose to add retelling. Moreover, in her conclusion, she recommends ideas and strategies unrelated to retelling. As seemed to be the norm in the research considering retelling as a strategy rather than as an assessment, the author focused on the positive effects but not on the reasons why it works.

Developmental Mechanisms

Why does retelling impact cognitive development in literacy? Even though many of the researchers did not speculate reasons, the two worldviews that framed the studies – mechanistic and humanist - help determine retelling's developmental mechanisms. As Brown and Dunne (1996) noted, perhaps biology plays a role. Students do have to control their body to attend to the presented information. Eventually, they can condition themselves to automatically attend, thus forming a bodily habit. It is logical that attention affects learning.

But this cannot be supposed to account for all of the change, for as Adele Diamond reminds us, "we are social creatures" (2007, p. 152). Retellings require children to engage in narrative discourse, a process of telling the past or the future and are considered by Beals and Snow as "a natural, untrained way that children think and remember information" (as cited in Boudreau, 2008). Thus, if we are much more than brains, eyes and mouths, what other parts or developmental

mechanisms account for the cognitive change in young human beings? Bandura, Vygotsky and Bronfenbrenner constructivist models provided frameworks for the studies and can further provide reasoning for the mechanisms at work.

Their ideas and frameworks were seen throughout many of the studies. Most researchers speculated that comprehension and other literacy skills were affected by retellings because the retellings required construction of knowledge built upon past experiences, present knowledge, relationships with the audience, and the organizing, synthesizing and evaluating of text (Kalmbach, 1980; Gambrell, Koskinen & Kapinus, 1991). Consequently, the children not only retained more and recalled more because repetition added more to memory but also because they made connections that made sense to them (quantitative change). Moreover, the children also demonstrated greater quality in what they knew. They were able to make inferences and make personal

connections as John, Lui & Tannok (2003) showed in their study. Instead of a parts-to-whole way of understanding a story which is what happens when teachers interrogate students with questions about parts of the story, the children generated the whole story and then asked themselves questions about the parts they did not understand using metacognitive strategies. In most studies children were not instructed in how to retell, so they had a free will in deciding what was important to say or what was unnecessary.

Bandura's social cognitive learning would say that the children were guided, also, by the authors as they copied sentence structures and vocabulary words. According to Vygotsky's theory of mind, the teacher's scaffolding of practice and of story structure instruction aided the development that may not have occurred without the help no matter which of Piaget's developmental stage the children were passing through. Furthermore, he would argue that the relationship between the reteller and the audience played a role (Fernyhough, 2007). When the child believed the listener to be ignorant of the story, she became the "teacher" and helped someone else to know. The child may have felt a relational responsibility, tapping into Maslov's hierarchical need of self-actualization by helping others, giving the young child a sense of purpose. This sense of accomplishment and esteem acted as the motivational mechanism that promoted emotional, physical, social and cognitive

development. Bronfenbrenner (1986) would say that the children were connecting the ideas and words and situations to their own relationships with their teacher, classmates characters (microsystem) or that their development was affected by the type of books the Western school system presented to the children (macrosystem). Ultimately, retellings cannot be considered printouts of rote memory or information that were computed into the brain and then simply retrieved with a click of a button. Most of the researchers in this review assumed that the children were persons, not machines or animals, and so social, biological, emotional and contextual mechanisms were at work on cognition.

All these mechanisms helped the children to process the information to understand it before sharing it with someone, and a tennis match took place between the child and the story and the retelling. At Wimbledon, every match is unique. Each opponent reacts differently to different balls coming toward them. Every narration is different for each book and for each child because minds are malleable and experiences and ideas and temperaments change and are tapped into or not depending on the child at that moment in her development.

Unfortunately, the children in the studies performed in isolation; children retold to a tape recorder or one listener. When children retell *with* each other, Vygotsky's model suggests that a new social mechanism comes into play. The tennis match evolves into a pinball game! This child retells something that another child has not even considered which affects her cognitive or even emotional development which then triggers her to ask a question which then changes her cognitively and even prompts another child to comment on a situation he had recently experienced, and so on! The very act of questioning is a mechanism of development according to Chouinard (2007). But the children's thoughts, questions, comments, experiences and retellings are not the only parts of which the ideas are bouncing off. The books and authors also play a part. "We know that children look to adults as experts for a variety of information about the world at an early age..." (p.3). Only two studies considered the implications of the quality of the books. For her study Leung (2008) found it difficult to even find science books for children that were rich in vocabulary. Romero, Paris & Brem (2005) noted that some expository texts lacked a strong expository story structure. Poor books may not prompt strong retelling and comprehension like a rich book might. Ultimately, retellings, when scaffolded carefully, have seemingly limitless potential of impacting cognitive development and more than likely social, emotional and identity development.

Research is needed to substantiate this claim. These assumptions and the researchers' assumptions about connections cannot be studied through a social address model, as were all of these studies. Unfortunately, no one accounted for contextual mechanisms or the ecosystems of chronosystems that Bronfenbrenner and other theorists suggested. Children's ages were looked at solely biologically, not experientially. Socio-economic status was not considered. More research needs to study the many different developmental mechanisms as independent variables on retellings, especially since neuroimaging studies across groups demonstrated that not one region of the brain seemed uniquely related to either narrative discourse or comprehension (Boudreau, 2008). This means that many aspects of development might be involved at different times for both skills. The field is wide open.

Research is not only needed, but it is needed soon. Boudreau also noted in her literature review of narrative discourse and language impaired children that many longitudinal studies demonstrated the correlation between narrative discourse in the form of story retellings in earlier years to academic performance in literacy, as well as mathematics performance, in later school years (2008). Both Boudreau's review and this review demonstrate that research does prove retelling's positive effects on cognitive development in comprehension and recall, but no one is exactly sure why. Yet, what is accepted is that no one wants any child left behind, so since the art of retelling affects children's learning and growth in so many areas, then teachers need to practice

it, demonstrate ways to do it so that skeptical educators see it working, and provide classrooms for longitudinal studies from which researchers can use person-process-context models to study its numerous effects on cognitive, social, emotional and identity development. When retelling improved comprehension of at-risk kids, less proficient readers and learning disabled students, it became clear that retelling should be used and further studied for all the children's sake.

References

- Boudreau, D. (2008). Narrative abilities: advances in research and implications for clinical practice. *Topics in Language Disorders, 28*(2), 99-114.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1986). Ecology of the family as a context for human development: Research perspectives. *Developmental Psychology*, *22*(6), 723-742.
- Brown, H., & Cambourne, B. (1987). Read and retell. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Brown, S., & Dunne, J. (1996). Immediate Retelling's Effect on Student Retention. *Education and Treatment of Children, 19*(4), 387-421.
- Chouinard, M. (2007). Introduction. Children's questions: A mechanism for child development. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 72*, 1-13.
- Cutler, C., & Monroe, E. (2006). Sixth graders' oral retellings of compare word problems. *Focus on Learning Problems in Mathematics,* Spring. Retrieved July 28, 2008, from http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m0NVC/is_2_28/ai_n27019497?tag=content;col1
- Fernyhough, C. (2008). Getting Vygotskian about theory of mind: Mediation, dialogue and the development of social understanding. *Developmental Review, 28*, 225-262.
- Gambrell, L., Pfeiffer, W. & Wilson, R. (1985). The Effects of retelling upon reading comprehension and recall of text information. *Journal of Educational Research*, 78(4), 216-20.
- Gambrell, L., Kapinus, B. Koskinen, P. (1991). Retelling and the reading comprehension of proficient and less-proficient readers. *Journal of Educational Research*, *34*(6), 357-162.
- Gambrell, L., Morrow, L. & Pressley, M. (2007). Best practices in literacy instruction. New York City: The Guilford Press.
- Gardner, H. (2007). Five minds for the future. Boston: Harvard Business School Publishing.
- Geist, E. (2002). The Effect of using written retelling as a teaching strategy on students' performance on the TOWL-2. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, *29*(2), 108-111.
- Geva, E., & Olson, D. (1983). Children's story-retelling. First Language, 4(11), 85-109.
- Glass, K. (2002). Narration. *The Well Trained Mind Newsletter*, *12*, Retrieved July 28, 2008, from http://www.welltrainedmind.com/morecharlotte.php
- John, F., Lui, M., & Tannok, R. (2003). Children's story retelling and comprehension using a new narrative source. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology*, *18*(1-2), 91-113.
- Johnson, D. (2008, June). *Retelling in American history: Review of the past half century.* Breakout session presented at the Fourth Annual Charlotte Mason Conference, Boiling Springs, NC.
- Kalmbach, J. (1980). *The Structure of narrative retelling.* (Research Paper No.216317). Houghton, MI: Michigan State University.

- Kuldanek, K. (1998). The Effects of using a combination of story frames and retelling strategies with learning disabled students to build their comprehension ability. (Masters Thesis No.042). Kean University.
- Leung, C. (2008). Preschoolers' acquisition of scientific vocabulary through repeated read-aloud events, retellings, and hands-on science activities. *Reading Psychology*, *29*(2), 165-193.
- Mason, C. (1925). A Philosophy of education. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner and Co. Ltd.
- Morrow, L. (1985). Retelling stories: A Strategy for improving young children's comprehension, concept of story structure and oral language complexity. *The Elementary School Journal*, *85*(5), 646-661.
- Moss, B. (1997). A Qualitative assessment of first graders' retelling of expository text. *Reading Research and Instruction, 37*, 1-13.
- Robinson, K. (2001). Out of Our Minds. Chichester: Capstone Publishing Limited.
- Romero, F., Paris, S. & Brem S.K. (2005). Children's comprehension and local-to-global recall of narrative and expository texts. *Current Issues in Education* [On-line], *8*(25).
- Wagner, C., Sahlen, B. & Nettelbladt, U. (1999). What's the story? Narration and comprehension in Swedish preschool children with language impairment. *Child Language Teaching and Therapy*, *15*(2), 113-137.

More Research: Elements of Relational Education

Small Schools

"Many of the reforms in curriculum and school organization that are promoted by critics of education have merit and should be intensified...reducing class sizes for lower-class children (particularly in the early grades)..."(Rothstein, 2004, p.109)

- Dollars & Sense II: Lessons from Good, Cost-Effective Small Schools

Barbara Kent Lawrence et al. Knowledge Works Foundation, Concordia, and Architects of Achievement. 2005 http://www.goodsmallschools.org/

The study analyzes budgets, facilities, educational programs, and academic achievement of 25 small schools across the nation with diverse populations and approaches. The study finds that on average, these small schools spent 17 percent less per student than comparable schools in their districts while achieving equivalent or better educational results. In addition to operational costs, an analysis of more than 3,000 school construction projects revealed that smaller schools are not more expensive to build than larger, reasonably sized schools. The report also includes the following resources: case studies of 17 select small

schools, contact, demographic, budget, and facilities information by school; a school facility construction analysis summary; school test scores; a cost-savings strategies grid; criteria for selecting and evaluating schools; and selected references. A companion Web site provides a searchable online version of the book and original, in-depth school site visit reports.

- Lessons on Assessing the Costs of Small High Schools: Evidence from Seattle and Denver

Marguerite Roza, Claudine Swartz, and Larry Miller Center on Reinventing Public Education, University of Washington Policy Brief, March 2005 http://www.crpe.org/hot/PDF/CostofSmSchool_brief.pdf This four-page policy brief presents findings from a study that compared the costs of small high schools– those with fewer than 500 students– to large high schools in Seattle and Denver. The researchers examined all costs associated with educational services— school budgets, staff salaries, and central budgets— and found that although some of the most expensive high schools are the smallest, some of the least expensive high schools are also small. For example, Seattle's least expensive high school is a small school that costs 13 percent less than the district average. The researchers recommend that school and district leaders concerned about the costs of small schools should: 1) look beyond school budget totals and examine all school costs to get the "full cost" picture; 2) consider the costs of alternative options; and 3) evaluate whether spending differences between small and large schools are strategic and/or based on student need. The researchers conclude that with careful and creative budgeting practices, small schools can offer an affordable and at times, less expensive option than large schools.

 Sizing Things Up: What Parents, Teachers and Students Think About Large and Small High Schools

Jean Johnson, Ann Duffett, Steve Farkas, and Kathleen Collins Public Agenda 2002

http://www.publicagenda.org/research/research_reports_details.cfm?list=21

This report presents the opinions of teachers, students, and parents regarding the issue of school size. It is based on three national surveys of randomly selected respondents from all over the country, and is the most detailed study to date of public attitudes about this issue. Parents of children in small schools tended to be happier with their school regarding social issues and academic achievement than parents of children in large schools. While teachers in large schools complained more about overcrowding and academic standards than teachers in small schools, both expressed similar concerns in a number of areas, including poor student achievement and low morale among teachers. Students in all types of schools were generally happy with their school, but also cited problems such as substance abuse, bullying, and cheating. Overall, respondents recognized many of the advantages of small schools, but less than half showed real support for the idea of breaking up large schools. The report concludes that as of 2002, other types of reforms may be eclipsing the importance of school size, such as class size.

Rational, Traditional Aptitude-Centered, Standardized Education

Based on their research and study, the following researchers conclude:

"Clearly, something new is needed if schools are to break out of this traditional, aptitude-centered mentality and make it possible for young people to acquire the kinds of mental habits needed to lead productive, fulfilling lives. We need a definition of intelligence that is as attentive to robust habits of mind as it is to the specifics of thinking processes or knowledge structures." (Costa & Kallick, 2000, 3).

"...U.S. teachers are expected to cover far more content than teachers in other countries...Yet, German and Japanese students significantly outperform U.S. students in mathematics and science...the problem inherent in the current standards movement in the U.S.- there is simply too much content to address in an adequate manner" (Marzano, 2003, p.26).

"The rationalist tradition...has distorted the idea of creativity in education and unbalanced the development of millions of people. The result is that other equally important abilities are overlooked or marginalized. This neglect affects everyone. Children with strong academic abilities often fail to discover their other abilities. Those of lower academic ability may have other powerful abilities that lie dormant.... they become disaffected, resentful of their 'failure' and conclude that they are simply not very bright" (Robinson, 2001,
p.8).

In the post-modern, post-industrial, post-information age in the U.S., the Conceptual Age presents a future in a flattened world of incessant changes caused by the unremitting growth of modern technology and global interdependence (Friedman, 2005; Pink, 2005; Gardner, 2006). Therefore, some researchers are calling adult citizens, especially those in education, to modify the ways in which young citizens are raised and prepared for their future (Lieberman, 1988; Sergiovanni, 1992; Senge, 2000; Robinson, 2001; Gardner, 2006).

According to some researchers and theorists today, the Industrial, Modern Age and the Information Age, at least in the West, are over (Goffee & Jones, 2000; Robinson, 2001; Friedman, 2005; Pink, 2005; Gardner, 2006; Senge, 2006). We are in the Conceptual Age and experience life from a post-modern paradigm that requires community, the integration of creativity, and new skills such as collaborating, empathizing, and synthesizing (Pink, 2005; Gardner, 2006; Senge, 2006).

Scaffolding

"Without good teaching, [children's] drawing reaches a plateau usually at about the age of 12 or 13. As a result, most adults have the graphic skills of a young adolescent. Many people give up drawing altogether at this point, often through frustration. They reach a stage where their creative ambitions have outrun their technical abilities.... Children don't develop these abilities just by getting older..." (Robinson, 2001, p.132).

Cultural Capital

The research of Henderson, Mapp, Johnson & Davies, 2007) concludes:

The family-school relationship is strongly affected by what researchers call 'cultural capital...gives people resources they can invest...middle class, white families have a real advantage. Their social and cultural background gave them skills and assets that allowed them to work more easily with the school than low-income African American families. Middle class black families fared somewhat better, but only as well as working class white families. Neither group fared as well as middle-class white families, because they didn't have as much power (p.139).

Living Books and Living Ideas

"Literature motivates, provides rich vocabulary for learning, and suggests a variety of concepts to explore." Wilson, Martens, Arya, and Altwerger 2004, p.242; Wilson, G.P., et al. (2004). Readers, instruction, and the NRP. *Kappan*, 86(3), 242-246.

"In their study of instruction, Michael Pressley and his colleagues identified the following characteristics of instruction by exemplary first grade teachers: literature is emphasized, there is much reading and writing... connections are made across the curriculum throughout the day..." (Wilson et al., 2004, p.245).

Marie Clay promoted "emergent literacy behaviors: and the reading of good literature to children. The explicit teaching of skills was seen as not appropriate for young children. (Gambrell, Morrow and Pressley 2007, p.61 bottom).

"Big ideas focus learning, deepen student understanding, and foster inquiry into important ideas and issues" (Seif, 2003, p.54).

Basic content, facts and skills are not neglected because they help solve, evaluate, synthesize, compare or illustrate the big ideas. Such a balanced approach is effective, and in literacy instruction, it is referred to as balanced literacy. Children learn literacy skills such as phonemes and punctuation or mapping skills and important historical facts and use them when reading whole books, biographies, and rich expository text and when processing projects, all full of ideas used to ignite critical thinking (Gambrell,

Morrow, and Pressley, 2007).

"It concludes that in grades four through twelve, literacy instruction should address at least six key areas of concern: reading fluency; vocabulary knowledge, content knowledge, higher level reasoning and thinking skills; reading comprehension strategies; and student motivation and engagement." From Federal Support for Adolescent Literacy: A Solid Investment from Alliance for Excellent Education June 2007 p.2 Alliance for Excellent Education (Issue Brief-June 2007) Federal Support for Adolescent Literacy: A Solid Investment.

"When the content of an English course is ideas- thinking and learning through writing, reading, listening, and talking- and when students in the course pursue their own ideas and purposes in the company of friends and their teacher, the middle school English classroom has the potential to become an extraordinarily interesting place." Atwell, p.71, 1988 Atwell, N. (1998). Making the best of adolescence. *In the middle*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann, 51-85.

"Human beings think, perceive, imagine, and make moral choices according to narrative structures." (Theodore Sarbin, Narrative Psychology, 1986, p.8)

"The study of narrative and the use of stories in the work of educators is a growing phenomenon (Carter, 1993; Jalongo, 1992, Witherell & Noddings, 1991). Narratives or stories are central to our lives in that 'the stories we hear and the stories we tell shape the meaning and texture of our lives at every stage and juncture'" (Cooper, 1995, p.121, editors Lambert et al).

Robbins, C., & Ehri, L.C. (1994). Reading storybooks to kindergartners helps them learn new vocabulary words. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *86*, 54-64.

Rosenhouse, J., Feitelson, D., Kita, B., & Goldstein, Z. (1997). Interactive reading aloud to Israeli first graders: Its contribution to literacy development. *Reading Research Quarterly, 32,* 168-183.

A well-exercised imagination is crucial to making moral and rational judgments. Both ethics and logic assume imagination as a starting point. Those who lack a dynamic imagination will never be able to grow into mature wisdom. They will always be stuck in very narrow, self-centered mental grooves, following infantile rules.....

And we learn to exercise our imaginations in stories—fiction and fantasy and fairy tales most tellingly. But far deeper than either morality or logic is the importance of a sense of *play* for all of life. It is a joy and fascination with creation and life that imagination fosters most of all.

(Doug Jones, Credenda Agenda, Imaginative Succession, Vol. 13, Issue 2, 2007, Poetics)

"Literature is, so far from being the property of 'guardians of culture,' now that of the politically motivated despoilers of traditional culture. Most of his fellow professors have no interest in the 'great' works of the Western tradition—indeed, they reject the very idea of 'greatness'—except to 'deconstruct' it, along with the works to which it has been attributed, showing how their unexamined political assumptions have tended to reinforce the patriarchal, imperialist, racist, and homophobic foundation on which traditional societies have been built. If our young people are toiling their way through their educational careers while reading less than ever before for their own pleasure or enlightenment, why be surprised? No one has ever taught them that books can be read for pleasure or enlightenment—or for any other purpose than to be exposed as the coded rationalization for the lightent powers of the ruling classes that they really are. Why would you willingly read a single line of literature if that is all you supposed it to consist of?"

http://www.thenewatlantis.com/publications/is-stupid-making-us-google

Wolf worries that the style of reading promoted by the Net, a style that puts 'efficiency' and 'immediacy' above all else, may be weakening our capacity for the kind of deep reading that emerged when an earlier technology, the printing press, made long and complex works of prose commonplace. When we read online, she says, we tend to become 'mere decoders of information.' Our ability to interpret text, to make the rich mental connections that form when we read deeply and without distraction, remains largely disengaged. When the Net absorbs a medium, that medium is re-created in the Net's image. It injects the medium's content with hyperlinks, blinking ads, and other digital gewgaws, and it surrounds the content with the

content of all the other media it has absorbed. A new email message, for instance, may announce its arrival as we're glancing over the latest headlines at a newspaper's site. The result is to scatter our attention and diffuse our concentration."

> <u>http://www.theatlantic.com/doc/200807/google</u>

Today children no longer grow up within the security of an extended family, or a well-integrated community. Therefore, even more than at the time fairytales were invented, it is important to provide the modern child with images of heroes who have to go out into the world all by themselves, and who find secure places in the world by following their right way with deep inner confidence. p. 11 *The Use of Enchantment* by Bruno Bettelheim .

Narration

Aina, O. (1999). The importance of oral storytelling in literacy development. *Ohio Reading Teacher, 33*(1), 15-18.

Isbell, R., Sobol, J., Lindauer, L., & Lowrance, A. (2004). The effects of storytelling and story reading on the oral language complexity and story comprehension of young children. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, *32*(3), 157-163.

Strickland, D. S. & Morrow, L. M. (1989). Emerging readers and writers/oral language development: Children as storytellers. *The Reading Teacher, 43*(3), 260-261.

Pickert, S., & Chase, M. L. (1978). Story retelling: An informal technique for evaluating children's language. *Reading Teacher, 31*(5), 528-531.

Karnoouh-Vertalier, M. (1997). Narration as an aid to language acquisition and access to literacy. *European Early Childhood Education Research Journal, i*(2), 63-74.

Ornstein, P. A., & Naus, M. J. (1978). Rehearsal processes in children's memory. In *Memory Development in Children* edited by P. A. Ornstein, Hillsdale, NJ: L. Erlbaum Associates.

Cuvo, A. J. (1975). Developmental differences in rehearsal and free recall. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, *19*, 265-278.

Blank, M. & Frank, S. M. (1971). Story recall in kindergarten children, Effect of method of presentation on psycholinguistic performance. *Child Development*, *42*(1), 299-312.

In their study of instruction, Michael Pressley and his colleagues identified the following characteristics of instruction by exemplary first grade teachers: literature is emphasized, there is much reading and writing, tasks are matched to student competence...self-regulation is encouraged..." (Wilson et al., 2004, p.245).

The US Dept of Ed commissioned a recent review of the research on secondary literacy instruction. The study concludes for all students:

In grades 4-12, literacy instruction should address at least six key areas of concern: reading fluency, vocabulary knowledge, content knowledge, higher-level reasoning and thinking skill, reading comprehension strategies, and student motivation and engagement" (Torgesen et al., 2007).

"Rehearsals, as used in the new curriculums, are different from practice. Rehearsal takes place when people do something again in a similar but not identical way to reinforce what they have learned while adding something new. New additions increased the likelihood that the knowledge they are learning is not task-specific. Non-task-specific experiences increase the likelihood that the knowledge will be transferable and useful in a variety of ways. Rehearsal strengthens the connections among the storage areas within brain systems. If connections are not strengthened, they will disengage and fade away. Thus the adage, Use it or lose it" (Diamond & Hopson, 1998, as cited by Lowery, 1998, p.28).

Interrogative questioning, according to Ivey and Fisher's study (2006), hinders critical thinking.

In his study of exemplary 4th grade teachers with consistent successful standardized test scores, Allington (2002) noticed at least 5 traits of each teacher. One was using "student talk" (student directed dialogue and questioning) instead of teacher interrogation. He notes that "...exemplary teachers foster much more student talk...Teachers and students discussed ideas, concepts, hypotheses, strategies, and responses from one another. Teachers posed more open-ended questions" (p.744).

After reading a historical story aloud, the teacher requires students to retell it orally, pictorially, or dramatically (Wilson, Martens, Arya, & Altwerger, 2004).

Research demonstrates that one of the most important activities for building success in literacy is reading aloud to children. The experience is most valuable when accompanied by interactive discussions with adults and children to introduce new vocabulary and language structures. Such conversation leads to understanding or comprehension of the story read. (Morrow & Gambrell, 2004; Storch & Whitehurst, 2002; Bus et al. 1995; Wells, 1985; mentioned by Gambrell, Morrow and Pressley 2007, p.65 bottom)

A Broad Curriculum and Varied Classes; Atmosphere; Habit Formation

The assumption behind brain-based teaching is that research in neuroscience should guide instruction. As educational consultant David Sousa, Ed.D., puts it: "Teachers try to change the brain every day. The more they know about how it learns, the more successful they can be." So what kinds of discoveries have researchers made that might prove useful in education? Consider these:

- Complex environments produce smarter brains than do boring environments. Implications: provide lots of variety in classroom activities; offer students new challenges every day.
- Experiencing high levels of stress for prolonged periods can destroy brain cells. Implications: reduce stress (no more pop quizzes); lead students in relaxation exercises. Psychology Today, Sep/Oct 2001 Article ID: 2115

Bottoms, G., Presson, A., & Johnson, M. (1992). Making high schools work through integration of academic and vocational education. Atlanta: Southern Regional Education Board.

Gambrell, Morrow and Pressley (2007) find that exemplary teachers relate with children as persons, not pawns to be manipulated, brains to be filled or machines to be programmed:

The affective quality in the room was exemplary. [The teacher] speaks to children with respect. She does not raise her voice, nor does she use punitive remarks, inapt facial expressions, or negative intonations. In this atmosphere, and from modeling, children learn to understand appropriate ways of interacting with others (p.80).

In their study of instruction, Michael Pressley and his colleagues identified...characteristics of instruction by exemplary first grade teachers: skills are explicitly taught, self-regulation is encouraged...the environment is positive with an emphasis on cooperation..." (Wilson et al., 2004, p.245).

Teachers engage as learners, not just facilitators or sages. Raywid found in successful classrooms that "all are treated with respect and compassion and can meet with some degree of success...the teacher [demonstrates] genuine engagement with the learning" (2002, p.435).

Without a shift in pedagogy that truly respects children as persons, Robinson (2006) warns that schools will continue to "mine children's minds" instead of tapping into "their whole being... to help them make something of their future".

Atmosphere promotes Marzano's second prerequisite - habits of thinking and relating. Costa and Kallick (2000) list habits of mind and include "persisting, questioning and posing problems, and innovating" (p.8). Gardner (2007) also presages a grave need for "disciplined, synthesizing, creating, respectful and ethical minds" (p.3). Rothstein (2004) concurs, "...perseverance, self-confidence, self-discipline, punctuality, the ability to communicate, social responsibility, and the ability to work with others and resolve conflicts...these

are important goals of public education. In some respects, they may be more important than academic outcomes" (p.109).

Flow: Focused Motivation "The flow experience that results from the use of skills leads to growth; passive entertainment leads nowhere." (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, p.162). Csikszentmihalyi, M.(1990). *Flow*. New York, NY: Harper Perennial Press.

"Our schools do much more than pass along requisite knowledge to the students attending them...They also influence the way those students look upon themselves and others. They affect the way learning is valued and sought after and lay the foundations of lifelong habits of thought and action. ...contribute to the growth of character..." (Jackson, Boostrom, & Hansen, 1993, xii, noted in Donaldson, 2003, 42).

"Ladson-Billings (1994) studied eight effective teachers of African American students; six of these taught in the upper elementary grades. She reports the following characteristics as typifying these successful teachers:

- Believe all children can succeed.
- See teaching as 'pulling knowledge out' versus putting it in.
- View knowledge critically, as continually recreated and shared.
- Facilitate fluid teacher-student relationships that are equitable and extend beyond the classroom.
- Demonstrate connectedness with all students.
- Encourage students to learn collaboratively, to teach each other and be responsible for each other.
- Help students develop necessary skills.
- Seek excellence but take individual differences into account" (Allington & Johnston, 2002).

Authentic Assessment

Mary Anne Raywid, (2002). Accountability: What's Worth Measuring?

Archbald, D. (1991). Authentic assessment: What it means and how it can help schools. Madison, WI: National Center for Effective Schools Research and Development, University of Wisconsin.

Archbald, D. & Newmann, F. (1989) "The Functions of Assessment and the Nature of Authentic Academic Achievement," in Berlak (ed.) Assessing Achievement: Toward the development of a New Science of Educational Testing. Buffalo, NY: SUNY Press.

Frederiksen, J. & Collins, A. (1989) "A Systems Approach to Educational Testing," *Educational Researcher,* 18, 9 (December).

National Commission on Testing and Public Policy (1990) *From Gatekeeper to Gateway: Transforming Testing in America.* Chestnut Hill, MA: NCTPP, Boston College.

Wiggins, G. (1989) "A True Test: Toward More Authentic and Equitable Assessment," *Phi Delta Kappan,* 70, 9 (May).

Wolf, D. (1989) "Portfolio Assessment: Sampling Student Work," *Educational Leadership* 46, 7, pp. 35-39 (April).

The negative personal and societal effects of traditional testing for students are well-documented: exposure to a less challenging curriculum, significantly increased dropout rates, and lives of unemployment and welfare dependency (Oakes, 1986a; Oakes, 1986b; Shepard & Smith, 1986; Jaeger, 1991). These researchers conclude that using testing as a mechanism for sorting and selecting students for access to educational and economic opportunities is antithetical to achieving equity.

"For as long as education promotes a cat-and-mouse game whereby students have incentive to both please us and *appear* to understand what they are supposed to learn (irrespective of whether they do or not), the challenge of assessing for real understanding becomes greater. (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005, p.9 of handout)

Relational, Shared Leadership Model of a Learning Organization

-According to the research conducted by Newberg and Glatthorn (1982), "school improvement clusters around three factors- leadership, teaching personnel, and curriculum and development" (1982, p.7).

-Creating community in schools is recognized as a powerful way to engage teachers and students in successful learning and growth, and some researchers indicate that school communities in which students are truly learning to learn, think, and dialogue are communities of learners (Barth, 1990), learning communities (Sergiovanni, 1992), or learning organizations (Senge, 2000).

-According to Schmoker's (1999) work and the research of Rhoton and Shane (2006), when teachers and principals are learners as well as researchers intently learning and studying the art of teaching, their content area, and individual interests, their students are more likely to mirror them in becoming life-long learners and researchers.

-Throughout the Industrial Age, most school leaders relied upon the classical rational leadership models where leadership is found in bureaucratic, hierarchical formal roles. This is typically called the "top-down" approach. Sergiovann'si (1992) research outlines the approach: objectives were stated, people were trained, people worked, jobs were inspected, and people were rewarded or punished. According to Donaldson's research (2001), though, "the bureaucratic-structural model leaves much to be desired" (p.37) in contemporary schools because, as Sergiovanni's work suggests, "...times are different, the situations we face are different, and the people are different" (p.69). In place of this classical model, Harris and Day's research (2003) suggests the establishment of "new models of leadership that locate power with the many rather than the few ...to cope with the unprecedented rate of change in education" (p.97).

-Through his research, Spillane (2006) reveals distribution of leadership. According to Spillane, leadership, which is the wielding of power, control, or influence, is located in the "interaction of leaders, followers, and their situations" (p.4). It is *collective interaction* rather than *individual action*. Together, the leader and follower interact in various ways discovering, constructing, and sustaining the vision, goals, and directions the community follows.

-Shared leadership meets the needs of principals. The increasing responsibilities of leaders constitute a job that one person cannot handle alone (Barth, 1990; Fullan, 2003). Marzano, Walters, & McNulty's (2005) meta-analysis reveals 21 job responsibilities of effective principals. They conclude, "It would be rare, indeed, to find a single individual who has the capacity or will to master such a complex array of skills" (p.99). When many participate in the decision making, principals and other formal leaders escape the pressure to be charismatic superheroes or saviors of schools, inspiring and implementing ideas that might fade once the leaders leave (Spillane, 2006). Instead, principals "develop leadership in others, thereby strengthening school leadership beyond themselves" (Fullan, 2003, p.41).

-Shared governance meets the needs of teachers. In the Conceptual Age, some have found the existence of a "culture of permissive collegiality, the decentralization of the work" (Donaldson, 2001, p.37), and "relatively sophisticated and educated employees" that require processes that foster participation from employees (Sadler, 2003, p.426). According to Palestini's work (2003), administrative science must become "a moral science" (p.34) of solving moral dilemmas because leaders and schools do more than just make better products such as higher test scores and productive citizens. They improve lives. As critical humanists, therefore, leaders ``appreciate the usual and unusual events of our lives and engage in an effort to develop, challenge, and liberate human souls...they hope to change individuals and institutions for the better and to improve social conditions for all" (p.34). Here, the principal sees adults in the learning community thriving, resilient, solving their own problems, managing conflict, and achieving personal as well as communal goals. As a result, "teacher motivation, confidence, sense of ownership, reflection, commitment, risk taking, autonomy, teaching efficacy and... critical thinking" (Blase & Kirby, 2000, p.43) increase in schools. Ultimately, shared decision-making becomes an effective way of empowering teachers and keeping the leader's own sense of power and control in check (Palestini, 2003).

-Ingersoll's (2003) study demonstrated that control is readily distributed in the area of the academic life in which teachers hold autonomy in their own classrooms, and studies often consider this substantial evidence of distributed leadership. Ingersoll, however, found that schools do not readily distribute control in the social life of schools, and the implications are profound. His qualitative and quantitative study of teachers in high schools revealed a direct correlation that exists between teacher decision making in social areas (such as discipline and tracking) and school conflict and teacher retention. The more that social decision making is distributed among teachers, the less schools experience school conflict. If teachers have little to no leadership in this area, school conflict is high, and nearly a fifth of the teachers quit each year. Using the same data, Ingersoll demonstrates that academic leadership directly affects school conflict and teacher retention much less. A school in which teachers have a substantial amount of control and power in social issues of the school in addition to the academic issues is a school with little inner conflict and high teacher performance and teaching quality (2003).

-Shared governance meets the needs of students. Blasé and Kirby (2000) poured through various studies and concluded that sufficient research demonstrates that shared governance practice results in higher student achievement and student attendance rates. Different models of shared governance contributed to the success of the 20 schools Penlington, Kington, and Day (2008) studied in the UK. According to their findings, because staff is valued, pupils are then valued which inspires them to want to achieve. In the end, the underlying question for researchers is not whether participatory means of governance should take place or even if they are beneficial. Researchers are now focusing on the degrees, processes, and patterns of shared governance that affect these outcomes (Leithwood, Mascall, & Strauss, 2009).

-Because they are persons, rather than machines, teachers and adults in the school need to build the competencies and capacity that enable them to lead together effectively. Even though this process is time consuming and arduous work, research shows that teachers do want to collaborate, share the burden, and be collectively involved in decision making (Ingersoll, 2003; Drago-Severson, 2007). As a principal once noted, "One of the things that the teachers have asked me to do is never make a decision on my own, whether or not it's time to let go of a kid ... And we only made one decision like that but it had a big effect on the whole faculty and they came to me and they said, 'It's not right. We need to make those decisions together as a group''' (Drago-Severson, 2007, p.70).

-Relation-building is a prerequisite to trust, and it requires interaction and tolerance. A school full of diversity cannot allow teachers to hide behind classroom doors and grade level cliques and then expect the teachers to get along naturally (Lambert, 1998). Protocols, team building events, and trust building exercises help. When Drago-Severson (2007) studied 25 principals and their practices that support teacher learning and tolerance, she found that time for such interaction is critical. One principal in her study implemented service team meetings in the mornings. This time was set aside to allow the teachers to discuss the students and their immediate needs and relationships. The structure enabled teachers to share control in the school's social and academic life while simultaneously building teams of teacher leaders that construct shared understandings and develop personal and communal relationships (2007).

-Shapiro's (2008) case study provides another example of the positive relationships and high student learning that results from building teams and positive relationships. Before the school in his study implemented shared governance practices, the teachers were collectively concerned with lack of trust; interpersonal strife; struggles for control on teams; large size of school and teams; lack of recognition; and a disjointed curriculum. Shapiro's team helped the teachers and principal to develop a shared governance framework in which teams planned and implemented "trust builders...team builders...conflict resolution exercises... personality profiles...open lines of communication...small decentralized learning communities...a parent involvement program...curriculum committees...a recognition program" (p.162). Three years later, the teachers' previous issues and concerns dissipated and were replaced by starkly different concerns: "collaboration to continue, a problem-solving culture built, trust essential to success, concern that new teachers have mentors and coaches, and maintaining unity of curriculum" (Shapiro, 2008, p.172) The teachers were "focused on professional issues, not egocentric, self-focused needs" (p.172). Consequently, teachers' actions changed. They trusted others, enjoyed one another, developed a risk-taking culture, helped new teachers who then wanted to keep teaching, drove the school by constructivism, and consequently increased student knowledge as test scores accounted (2008). The

principal in Shapiro's (2008) study also built capacity for collaboration in her teachers through the corporate and individual learning that they participated in and modeled before everyone. As a consequence, students increase their learning, which Shapiro's (2008) case study showed. This confirms Sergiovanni (1992) and Elmore's (2000) notion that instruction improves when adults in schools learn.

-In their research, Lieberman and Miller (2004) found that "[I]earning in this view was not the transmission of knowledge from an expert to a novice; rather, learning was discovery" (p.22). Contrary to bureaucratic organizational structures in which the teachers' experiential leadership is an "add-on," which can lead to frustration and burn-out, learning communities allow teachers to assume "leadership as part of their work, not in addition to it" (p.22). Lieberman and Miller's (2004) research on distributed leadership in schools revealed that a principal's ability to lead this process and to distribute decision-making productively with teachers does not affect "teachers' sense of efficacy and community unless they are deliberately connected to tangible and immediate problems of practice" (p.16). Thus, the principal ensures that control is kept close to where the work is done.

-Penlington, Kington and Day's (2008) research indicates that schools successfully implementing shared governance "[prioritize] the distribution of leadership as a means of sharing tasks, ahead of developing leadership and ownership of change" (, p.70). Drago-Severson's (2007) study provides an example of ways principals can let go of control by sharing tasks. Service team meetings, like the one held each morning by one principal, not only provide an opportunity to reduce isolation, but they have a distinct purpose aimed at student achievement. Structures like these help teachers develop shared understandings and gives them ample time to address student issues like students' tendency to split the adults (2007). These studies and theories demonstrate that team building is not enough. Teachers might get along, but that does not ensure that students are learning.

-Shared governance grows through stages. In her study of schools governed by many, Lambert (2006) discovered that learning communities, such as the one in Shapiro's (2008) case study, progress through three stages of development when they begin to share the governance of the school, and they eventually experience high accountability and high leadership capacity.

Relational Approaches in The Arts

- Strategic thinking

Learning to Think Strategically_~ Julia Sloan 2006 -the arts build strategic thinkers

Student involvement in the arts contributes to their development in becoming "tenacious, team-oriented problem solvers who are confident and able to think creatively." (open letter dated August, 2009, Arne Duncan the United States Secretary of Education)

- A Core Subject

In an open letter dated August, 2009, Arne Duncan the United States Secretary of Education stressed "the importance of the arts as a core academic subject and part of a complete education for all students" (as defined by Elementary and Secondary Education Act). Student involvement in the arts contributes to their development in becoming "tenacious, team-oriented problem solvers who are confident and able to think creatively."

- The Arts Education Partnership, a private, nonprofit coalition of more than 100 national education, arts, business, philanthropic and government organizations conducted a collection of studies collectively entitled *The Impact of the Arts on Learning* "to explore why and how young people were changed by their arts experiences." A summary list of the findings from the report is quoted below:
 - 1. Learners can attain higher levels of achievement through their engagement with the arts.
 - 2. Learning in and through the arts can help "level the playing field" for youngsters from disadvantaged circumstances.
 - Students with high levels of arts participation outperform "arts poor" students by virtually every measure.
 - 4. High arts participation makes a more significant difference to students from low-income backgrounds than for high-income students.
 - 5. Shirley Brice Heath spent a decade studying dozens of after-school programs for disadvantaged

youth. These programs were broadly clustered into three categories-sports/academic, community involvement, and the arts. This research shows that the youth in all these programs were doing better in school and in their personal life than were young people from the same socioeconomic categories. To the researchers' surprise, however, the youth in the arts programs were doing the best.

- 6. Learning in arts has significant effects on learning in other domains. Research suggests a dynamic model in which learning in one domain supports and stimulates learning in a complex web of influence described as "a constellation."
- 7. When well taught, the arts provide young people with authentic learning experiences that engage their minds, hearts and bodies. The learning experiences are real and meaningful to them. While learning in other disciplines may often focus on development of a single skill or talent, the arts regularly engage multiple skills and abilities.
- 8. Engagement in the arts nurtures the development of cognitive, social, and personal competencies.
- 9. Arts programs address the community experience of students. By engaging his or her whole person, the student feels invested in his education in ways that are deeper than "knowing the answer." Evidence was found to show that the attitudes of the students toward one another were positively altered as a result of their learning experiences through the arts programs.
- 10. When the arts become central to the learning environment, schools and other settings become places of discovery.
- 11. The arts provide learning opportunities for the adults in the lives of young people, supporting the model of "lifelong learning" for students.
- 12. The arts provide new challenges for students already considered unsuccessful.
- 13. Instruction in the arts connects learning experiences to the world of real work. "Ideas are what matter, and the ability to generate ideas, bring ideas to life and to communicate them is what matters to workplace success."
- 14. Students learning through art programs were significantly more motivated to learn not just for test results or other performance outcomes, but for the learning experience itself.
- 15. The learners participating in arts programs showed development in self-regulation, identity, and resilience.
- 16. Students involved in arts programs showed a significantly higher level of engagement with their studies.
- 17. Students became "managers" seeking to "intensify the quality of their interactions, products, and performances."

MUSIC

Bluestine, E. (1995). The ways children learn music. Chicago: GIA

- Runfola, Maria (2005). The development and practical application of music learning theory. Chicago: GIA Publications.
- Burton, S. L. (2004). Educating our advocates. Music Educators Journal, May 2004. Reston: MENC.
- Colwell, R. and Richardson, C. (Eds). (2002). *The new handbook of music teaching and learning.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Dalby, B. (206). Tune assistant. Chicago: GIA
- Eisner, E. (2002). Ten lessons the arts teach. Retrieved from: http://www.naea-reston.org/tenlessons.html
- Eisner, E. (2004). Artistry in teaching. Retrieved from: http://www.culturalcommons.org/eisner.htm
- Elliott, D. (1995). Music matters. New York: Oxford
- Gordon, E. E. (1997). Learning sequences in music. Chicago: GIA
- Gordon, E. E. (2003). Improvisation in the music classroom. Chicago: GIA
- Gordon, E. E. (2004). Pattern preeminence in learning music. Early Childhood Connections, 10 (2), 7-13.
- Gordon, E. E. (2009). About music learning theory. Retrieved from: http://www.giml.org/mlt_about.php
- Grunow, R., Gordon, E. E., & Azzara, C. (1998). Jump Right In: The Instrumental Curriculum. Chicago: GIA
- Taggart, C. C. et. Al. (2000). Jump Right In: The General Music Curriculum. Chicago: GIA
- Weikart, P. Rhythmically Moving. Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Press

Relational Approaches in History and Social Studies

Zemelman, Daniels and Hyde (1998) draw on ideas "most in touch with the research...those most confirmed by the thinking...and achievements" (p.9) observed in their research:

-Students of social studies need regular opportunities to investigate topics in depth;

-Students need opportunities to exercise choice and responsibility by choosing their own topics of inquiry;

-Social studies teaching should involve exploration of open questions that challenge students' thinking;

-To make real concepts being taught, social studies must involve students in active participation in the classroom and the wider community;

-Social studies should involve students in both independent inquiry and cooperative learning to build skills and habits needed for lifelong, responsible living;

-Social studies should involve students in reading, writing, observing, discussing, and debating to ensure their active participation in learning;

-Social studies should explore a full variety of the cultures found in America, including students' own backgrounds and understandings of other cultures' approaches to various social studies concepts;

-Social studies should eschew tracking of students because it deprives various groups of the knowledge essential to their citizenship;

-Social studies evaluation must reflect the importance of students' thinking, and their preparation to be lifelong responsible citizens, rather than rewarding memorization of decontextualized facts.

Relational Approaches in Geography

What Mason realized over 100 years ago runs parallel with current respected writers like Richard Louv in <u>The Last Child in the Woods</u> and David Sobel's <u>Place Based Education</u>. Sobel contends that to start off a child's geographical learning with a 'rain forest' or the like is tedious to a child. He believes the damage involved in remote unit studies like these far outweighs their virtues. A study of something so foreign to the small child fosters an impersonal, detached, disjointed view and prevents participation which is vital in this discipline. Both Mason and Sobel quote and affirm Comenius the seventeenth century education philosopher who wrote, 'Knowledge of the nearest things should be acquired first, then that of those farther and farther off.'

Mason often writes about a child being built up from the inside out. Sobel echoes this: "A curriculum based on building a relationship between the structure of the local landscape and the shape of the children's lives must replace our nonsensical focus on the long ago and far away. We need a curriculum that aspires to ecological literacy – a deep understanding of the flora, fauna, water, culture, climate and communities that children live in." (Sobel, Place Based Education, 2004, p)

It is interesting to note that the National Geographic Society was being birthed in America at the time of Mason's writings. The availability of photographs and the spread of newspapers made it possible for people to quench their wonderings about other people and places and a surge in travel feasibility paralleled. Mason resisted using photographs to describe places to children thinking that the time taken to imagine a place would better serve the child in its 'sticking power.' The internet and 'google earth' can enhance our work but we must never underestimate the work of the mind upon vivid descriptions and personal retellings of places.

Relational Approaches in Mathematics

A. Some ideas addressed by the National Council on Teaching Mathematics (NCTM) dovetail nicely with those of Charlotte Mason.

The NCTM outlined six principles of education: equity, curriculum, teaching, learning, assessment, and technology. Equity recognizes that children are born persons, and teachers are to scaffold them accordingly to learn mathematics. Coherent curriculum links mathematical ideas that build one upon another to deepen students' understanding and problem solving at school, home, and work. Effective teachers recognize what students know, provide opportunities and resources to further their knowledge and understanding, and adapt instruction. Students learn best when teachers align conceptual understanding with facts and procedures and encourage them to think about thinking. Assessment serves two purposes: to guide teachers in making decisions about instruction and to transfer responsibility to students for their learning. Technology provides the tools to develop deeper understanding, more informed decision-making, and better problem solving through investigation and reasoning.

The council lists four components of the daily lesson: problem solving, reasoning and proof, communication, and connections. Students learn mathematics by solving complex problems through a significant amount of effort, which develops the habits of persistence, curiosity, and confidence in unfamiliar situations. By reflecting on their thinking, they can apply and adapt their strategies in other contexts. Daily lessons ought to make sense when students look for patterns and structure in exploring ideas, testing conjectures, and justifying results. When students share ideas, rationales, and arguments with each other, they make connections and sharpen their thinking. Instruction ought to allow students to connect mathematical ideas and see the role in other subjects and experiences.

The NCTM sees the way to represent mathematical concepts (pictures, concrete materials, tables, graphs, number and letter symbols, spreadsheet displays) as fundamental to how students understand mathematics. Expressing ideas through representations gives them tools to interpret data.

The council discussed five areas of math: numbers and operations, algebra, geometry, measurement, and data analysis and probability. Numbers and operations include understanding numbers and the meaning of operations and computing fluently (mentally, with paper and pencil, and using calculators). Students develop the concept that they can use more than one method, justify the one they chose, and know how useful their method is. In algebra, students learn the relationship between a set of concepts and techniques and the representation of quantitative relations. They study patterns, functions, and generalizations and apply algebra to everyday experiences and geometry. Geometry involves analyzing the characteristics of geometric shapes, studying their relationships, and solving problems through visualization, spatial reasoning, and geometric modeling to solve problems. In measurement, students measure through techniques, tools, and formulas and understand the attributes, units, systems, and processes of measurements. Measurement crosses all strands of mathematics. Students learn to ask questions and collect, organize and display data that answers these questions in data analysis and probability. They learn statistical methods for analyzing data, infer and predict based on data, and understand and apply basic concepts of probability.

"...two important instructional goals for high school students: first, that they can reason flexibly, using recursive and explicit reasoning when faced with the need to create a mathematical model for a situation; and second, that they recognize the advantages and limitations of these two ways of reasoning" (Lannin, 2004, p.217).

"The generative topic helps identify both the real-life connections and the connections with other mathematical topics" (Ritchhart, 1999, p.465). "Experience shows that many students fail to master important mathematical topics. What's missing from traditional instruction is sufficient emphasis on three important ingredients: communication, connections and contexts" (Steen, 2007, 12).

"For lots of reasons-psychological, pedagogical, logical, motivational-students will learn best when teachers combine these two approaches" (Steen, 2007, p.10).

"Math classrooms in countries that score high on international comparisons of mathematics achievement have something in common- a culture of teaching and learning designed to help students make connections and build conceptual understanding...teachers in these countries not only assigned their students challenging mathematics problems, but also used active questioning and dialogue to help students see and understand the connections among mathematics concepts as they solved these problems" (Hyde, 2007, p.43).

"...five key cognitive processes in which students must engage to understand mathematical concepts: problem solving, reasoning and proof, communication, connections and representations" (Hyde, 2007, p.44).

"We know that in reading instruction, higher-order questions and more advanced text help develop stronger comprehension. Analogously, more complex multistep problems support stronger mathematical development. However, the vast majority of problems in the U.S. textbooks are one-step exercises that rarely demand anything more than recall and routine application" (Leinwand & Ginsburg, 2007, p.35).

"...characteristics that distinguished lessons that seemed to promote student understanding from those that did not. A number of factors emerged, including the extent to which the lesson was able to engage students with the mathematics content; create an environment conducive to learning; ensure access of all students; use questioning to monitor and promote understanding and help students make sense of the mathematics content" (Weiss, Heck & Shimkus, 2004, p.25).

Relational Approaches in Physical Education and Sports

a. Academic Performance

There have been several studies done on the effect of physical activity on academic performance. The myriad of variables affecting the outcome of these studies makes it difficult to quantify in accurate numbers what the impact is. Given the difficulty of exactness there is general acceptance of the belief that a PE component in the educational process is beneficial in the academic area. Beyond academics it has been shown that behavior problems, risky behaviors, and health issues are reduced when children are involved in a regular program of PE.

This comes from a report prepared by Stewart G. Trost PhD for "Active Living Research" which referenced 36 studies on physical activity and academic achievement. The following is the link to the report:

https://activelivingresearch.org/active-education-physical-education-physical-activity-and-academic-perf ormance

One aspect of the PE program that was not present in any study reviewed for this project was an evaluation of the PE program used. It is our firm belief that using the Mason view of the child when developing and implementing the CLUSA PE curriculum we will see much better results than that of the children in the reviewed studies.

Much study has been done in a related area of memory and brain activity in older people when they engage in physical activity on a regular basis. The following is a brief review of studies done on these topics.

1. Sacrificing physical education for classroom time does not improve academic performance.

Many school systems have downsized or eliminated PE under the assumption that more classroom instructional time will improve academic performance and increase standardized test scores. The available evidence contradicts this view.

To date, five controlled experimental studies—in the United States, Canada and Australia—have evaluated the effects on academic performance of allocating additional instructional time for PE. All five studies clearly demonstrate that physical activity does not need to be sacrificed for academic excellence.

A study conducted in 2006 with 214 sixth-grade students in Michigan found that students enrolled in PE had similar grades and standardized test scores as students who were not enrolled in PE, despite receiving 55 minutes less of daily classroom instruction time for academic subjects.

Fourteen published studies analyzing data from approximately 58,000 students between 1967 and 2006 have investigated the link between overall participation in physical activity and academic performance. Eleven of those studies found that regular participation in physical activity is associated with improved academic performance.

The United Kingdom, Hong Kong and Australia observed statistically significant positive correlations between physical activity participation and academic performance. However, none of these studies assessed academic performance with standardized educational tests.For example, a national study

conducted in 2006 analyzed data collected from 11,957 adolescents across the U.S. to examine the relationship between physical activity and academic performance. Adolescents who reported either participating in school activities, such as PE and team sports, or playing sports with their parents, were 20 percent more likely than their sedentary peers to earn an "A" in math or English.

Nelson MC, Gordon-Larson P. Physical activity and sedentary behavior patterns are associated with selected adolescent health risk behaviors. *Pediatrics* 2006;117:1281-1290.

2. Achievement Test Scores

In 1999, researchers analyzed data from 759 fourth- and fifth-graders in California and found that students' scores on standardized achievement tests were not adversely affected by an intensive PE program that doubled or tripled PE time. On several test scores, students with enhanced PE performed better than students in control groups.

Sallis JF, McKenzie TL, Kolody B, Lewis M, Marshall S, Rosengard P. Effects of health-related physical education on academic achievement: Project SPARK. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*

1999;70:127-134.

b. On Task Behavior

1. Positive Effects of "Activity Breaks" on Classroom On-Task Behavior

Investigators in Georgia studied the effects of an activity break on classroom behavior in a sample of 43 fourth-grade students in 1998. Students exhibited significantly more on-task classroom behavior and significantly less fidgeting on days with a scheduled activity break than on non-activity days.

Jarrett OS, Maxwell DM, Dickerson C, Hoge P, Davies G, Yetley A. Impact of recess on classroom behavior: group effects and individual differences. *The Journal of Educational Research* 1998;92:121-126.

The previous three studies were among those reviewed by "Active Living Research". A national program of the Robert Wood Johnson Foundation

2. Emotional Well Being

Students who increase their physical activity during their middle-school years have fewer symptoms of depression according to a new study.

Higher levels of physical activity at the start of the seventh grade were tied to lower levels of depression at the same point, while increased activity over the two years of the study was associated with reduced depressive symptoms at the end of the study, say Rod K. Dishman, Ph.D., of the University of Georgia and colleagues."A naturally occurring change in physical activity across time was inversely associated with a change in levels of depressive symptoms across time," Dishman says. Their research appeared in the journal Psychosomatic Medicine. Article Date: 01 Jul 2004

3. Reduction of Diseases by Being Outside

Recent studies show that about 70% of US children (persons under 21) are not getting enough Vitamin D, a vitamin developed in the body when in the sunshine. Low Vitamin D often results in high or low blood pressure, diabetes, cardiovascular disease as well as different cancers.

Journal of Pediatrics, Dr. Michal Melamed of Albert Einstein College of Medicine, 2009

Relational Approaches in Science

I. Awe and Wonder:

"For both the students who will study and use science in their careers and for all students who need to be well-informed citizens, the broad goal of a school science program should be to foster understanding, interest, and appreciation of the world in which we live" (Zemelman, et al, 1998, p.111).

II. Ideas and Habits of Thinking:

"Science education can build a knowledge base focused on essential concepts, rather than disconnected

topics or bits of information" (Zemelman, et al, 1998, p.116).

"Understanding large ideas and themes and developing inquiring habits of mind, in other words, are the central goals for teaching and learning science" (Zemelman, et al, 1998, p.11).

"Teaching should present key topics with enough concrete detail and hands-on involvement to make them interesting and memorable, but not with so much that the main ideas are obscured and that students believe that memorizing a collection of details or carrying out a collection of steps constitutes understanding those ideas" (American Association for the Advancement of Science, 2000, p.225).

III. Books:

"Learning science means integrating reading, writing, speaking, and math" (Zemelman, et al, 1998, p.118).

"The power of printed words rests in the author's ability to enrich and extend the ideas already within a reader. New knowledge gained from reading is actually a rearrangement of prior knowledge into new connections. With something to work with, an author can help readers understand abstract ideas that they could never experience firsthand. But if readers have little in storage related to the content of what they read, they will gain little from reading" (Lowery, 1998, p.26).

IV. Humanities:

"History is especially important in making cross-subject thematic connections. Science ought to have a major presence in history courses because of the enormous impact of science and technology on all of history. And history should be taken seriously in science courses because history alone provides a context for seeing how science really works over time and how it relates to mathematics and technology and to what else is happening in human culture" (American Association for the Advancement of Science, 2000, p.242).

V. Things:

"Science study should involve doing science, that is, questioning and discovering- not just coveringmaterial" (Zemelman, et al, 1998, p.111).

VI. Scope and Sequence:

"Students should explore fewer topics in depth, not skim many superficially" (Zemelman, et al, 1998, p.117).

"...what is taught accounts for the major differences in student achievement across the countries. Disparities in student achievement, which are quite large, are not strongly related to length of school day or year, or hours spent watching television, which are the most popular culprits, but, rather, the content of the curriculum. Thus, deciding what a school's curriculum strategy becomes a crucial decision" (Odden & Archibald, 2001, p.22).

Relational Approaches in Foreign Language

Stephen Krashen (1982, 1985, 1988, 1991) is one respected authority on foreign language acquisition. His "Natural Approach" includes the following:

- Foreign languages should be learned as the native tongue was learned. That means that they should spend a significant amount of time listening to the language before being expected to pronounce the words.
- One way to mirror the way babies learn to understand the spoken language without having to supply an oral response is to give them oral directions which require a physical response (as in the game Simon Says...). This is called "Total Physical Response". This begins with simple commands and evolves into more complex commands.

- Another method is "Total Physical Response Storytelling", which involves having children narrate about pictures/picture sequences. At first the teacher will supply key vocabulary needed to converse about the picture/story. Gradually, the level of scaffolding is decreased.
- Grammar should be de-emphasized in language lessons (especially with beginners) because it makes students self-conscious, which diminishes their willingness to take risks (Krashen's "Theory of Affective Filter").
- Catton (2006) has expanded on Krashen's work. She suggests that grammar and sentence structures are absorbed unconsciously as students are immersed in a foreign language. After a sufficient incubation period, they begin to be expressed in speech naturally.
- Krashen's theories and research help bring to our awareness the shortcomings of traditional approaches which do not take into account important principles of language acquisition and the obstacles that anxiety creates when one is learning a second language." (Catton, 2006).

2011, Vol. 13.1, 77-93

Japanese Lesson Study: Teacher Professional Development through Communities of Inquiry

Brian Doig and Susie Groves

Deakin University

Japanese Lesson Study has come under increasing attention from educators in the West and throughout South-East Asia since it was revealed outside Japan through the release of the TIMSS Video Study. In this paper we argue that Japanese Lesson Study provides a model for large scale, sustainable professional development. In particular, we draw on our own experience of Japanese Lesson Study and the research literature to describe its characteristic features and examine some of the cultural assumptions that underpin its implementation.

Exploring mathematics with groups of people is inherently a cultural practice (Kazemi, Elliott, Hubbard, Carroll, & Mumme, 2007, p. 797).

Japanese Lesson Study has come under increasing attention from educators in the West and throughout South-East Asia since it was revealed outside Japan through the release of the TIMSS Video Study (Stigler, Gonzalez, Kawanaka, Knoll, & Serrano, 1999) and Yoshida's doctoral dissertation (Yoshida, 1999; for a description of the study in English, see Fernandez & Yoshida, 2004). Unlike many Western initiatives, richly funded and mandated, Lesson Study in Japan is neither funded nor mandatory. Essentially school-based and organised by teachers themselves, it pervades primary school education – and to a lesser extent secondary school education – across the country, with teachers researching their own practice in school-based communities of inquiry.

This form of professional development is no longer restricted to Japan: mathematics Lesson Study groups have been forming in the United States for over ten years and now number more than eight hundred. In the United Kingdom there has been growing interest in, and government support for, Lesson Study as a powerful form of professional development (see, for example, Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2008). Lesson Study has also been introduced in South-East Asian countries such as Indonesia and Malaysia (see, for example, White & Lim, 2008), as well as South America, South Africa (Ono & Ferreira, 2010), and Australia (for example, Hollingsworth & Oliver, 2005). China too has a long history of improving teaching and learning through school-based professional learning communities named Teacher Research Groups (see, for example, Yang, 2009).

While Lesson Study takes place across all curriculum areas in Japan, it is perhaps most commonly practised in mathematics, and this has tended to be the case in other countries too.

Why has this form of professional development generated such widespread interest? Is it because it encourages teachers to develop their own communities

of inquiry into their own teaching practices? Is it because it develops effective teaching approaches? Or is it purely a cultural artefact?

In this paper, we argue that Japanese Lesson Study provides a model for large-scale, sustainable professional development. In particular, we draw on our own experience of Japanese Lesson Study and the research literature to describe its characteristic features and examine some of the cultural assumptions that underpin its implementation.

Teacher Professional Development

Teacher professional development is driven by the need to both extend and renew teacher practice, skills and beliefs. Stimuli for such needs may be curriculum change, new classroom technology, advances in pedagogy, or all of these. However, the underlying endeavour is to improve outcomes for students, whether they be focussed on understandings, skills, attitudes, or engagement.

Unfortunately, however, research evidence suggests that, despite the money, time, and effort put into professional development for teachers, the outcomes are not always as hoped. For example, Ingvarson, Beavis, Bishop, Peck, and Elsworth (2004), reporting on findings from a large-scale study of secondary mathematics teachers, found that the literature reviewed indicated that, "much professional development appears to be ineffective" (p. 71). Reporting on a decade-long local systemic change initiative based on teacher enhancement, Banilower, Boyd, Pasley, and Weiss (2006) noted that "professional development sessions designed to deepen content knowledge and support teachers' content needs during implementation sometimes failed to delve into the very content they were designed to address, due to more pressing teacher concerns such as materials management or pedagogy" (p. 87). Further, Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, and Orphanos (2009, p. 22) suggest that, "relatively few U.S. teachers engage in intensive professional collaboration around curriculum planning".

It is not surprising then, that international attention has turned to less familiar, but apparently more successful, professional development practices, such as Japanese Lesson Study.

In searching for features of successful teacher professional development, Ingvarson et al. (2004) suggest that the relationship between student outcomes and teachers' development is reciprocal in that "the more successfully students learn, the more likely it is that the teacher will adopt practices that encourage further successful learning" (p. 23). In a similar vein, Royce (2010, p. 6) argues that, "what we know to be true for students also applies in this [professional development] situation to adults. That is, that teachers learn best by doing [teaching mathematics] and building their own understandings rather than being told". This resonates strongly with Guskey's (2002) re-iteration of his *Model of Teacher Change* where he states that, "improvements typically result from changes teachers have made in their classroom practices—a new instructional approach, the use of new materials or curricula, or simply a modification in teaching procedures or classroom format" (p. 383). Thus opportunities to experiment with classroom practice and analyse it in detail—an important feature of Japanese Lesson Study—is likely to be a fruitful path to take in teacher professional development.

Moreover, Hattie (2009), when looking for the characteristics of teachers who students claimed were the best, quotes Pehkonen (1992) as saying that these characteristics include "teachers who helped students to have different and better strategies or processes to learn the subject" (p. 108), thus indicating that professional development that provides teachers with these skills would be of benefit to students. As discussed later in this paper, Japanese Lesson Study in mathematics is based around a structured problem-solving research lesson, in which a major part of the lesson consists of students sharing, polishing and refining their solution strategies.

Loucks-Horsley, Stiles, and Hewson (1996), describing the results of the *Professional Development Project* of the National Institute for Science Education, which looked at the mathematics, science, and professional development communities' understandings of what was effective professional learning, found a large amount of consensus. For example, it was agreed, inter alia, that good professional development programs:

- are driven by a clear, well-defined image of effective classroom learning and teaching;
- provide teachers with opportunities to develop knowledge and skills and broaden their teaching approaches, so they can create better learning opportunities for students; and
- build or strengthen the learning community of science and mathematics teachers.

In this paper, we argue that Japanese Lesson Study demonstrates these features.

Japanese Lesson Study

Even more basic is the whole idea of instruction as something that can and should be improved through consultation with colleagues, trial in the classroom and critique. (Lewis, 2000, pp. 32–33)

To the casual observer, Japanese Lesson Study may seem like a simple idea. Teachers with a common focus meet and plan lessons together. These lessons may have a focus on building skills or understanding, and are known as "research lessons", which are taught by one, and observed by not only all of the teachers who are doing the planning, but also by observers who, at one end of the spectrum, may come only from the teachers' own school, or, at the other end, may come from all over Japan (see, for example, Lewis & Tsuchida, 1998). A debriefing session follows the lesson, where the lesson is discussed at some length, with modifications often suggested by the observers, who frequently include an invited academic or "veteran teacher".

Lewis (2002) describes the *Lesson Study Cycle* as having four phases:

- goal-setting and planning including the development of the Lesson Plan;
- teaching the research lesson enabling the lesson observation;

- the post-lesson discussion; and
- the resulting consolidation of learning, which has many far-reaching consequences (see Lewis & Tsuchida, 1998, for teachers' comments on the impact of research lessons on their understandings about science teaching).

While these points are stated simply, a great deal of unpacking of each is needed to fully understand the concepts and processes of Japanese Lesson Study in practice.

Goal Setting and Planning

Goal setting and planning are the critical underpinning of Japanese Lesson Study – we use the metaphor of an iceberg to represent the extent of the "underwater" support needed for planning the lesson.

Establishing long-term goals

Long-term goals in Japanese Lesson Study may be about behaviour, attitude or learning. For example, Takahashi and Yoshida (2004) give the example of a Lesson Study group in the United States wishing "to investigate how to improve the teaching and learning of measurement" (p. 439), while T. Fujii (personal communication, August 26, 2010) gave the example of a school whose long-term goal was to improve children's curiosity.

Research themes should address the "biggest gap" between the qualities students have and ideals espoused by their teachers. Selecting such a theme or goal is seen to be at the heart of successful Lesson Study and can lead to a research focus that can be maintained over several years (Lewis, 2000). This aspect of Lesson Study is often overlooked when it is adopted in other countries.

Planning the research lesson

In Japan, Lesson Study takes place across all curriculum areas, as well as in noncurriculum areas such as class meetings, although it is probably more common in mathematics and science than some other areas.

In mathematics, the research lesson, at least at the primary school level, usually follows the typical lesson pattern for a Japanese *structured problem-solving lesson*. According to Stigler and Hiebert (1999), such lessons can be described as having the following stages:

- Reviewing the previous lesson
- Presenting the problems for the day
- Students working individually or in groups
- Discussing solution methods
- Highlighting and summarizing the main point (pp. 79-80).

According to Takahashi (2006), a "Japanese mathematics lesson is designed around solving a single problem to achieve a single objective in a topic" (p. 4). This single thought-provoking question or problem with which the students

80

engage is referred to as the hatsumon. As we have argued elsewhere, the role of this single task is critical to the lesson success (Doig, Groves, & Fujii, 2011). Thus, to select an appropriate task, there needs to be a great deal of research into the mathematics involved – for example, the position of the mathematical content of the lesson within the overall curriculum – as well as the students' expected responses to the task, in order to find the best materials to assist students' learning.

This extensive research process is termed *kyozaikenkyu*. It involves the investigation of a large range of instructional materials, including textbooks, curriculum materials, lesson plans and reports from other lesson studies, as well as a study of students' prior understandings, which makes it possible for teachers to anticipate students' reactions and solutions to the problems during the lessons. While the literal meaning of *kyozaikenkyu* is the study or investigation (*kenkyu*) of instructional materials (*kyozai*), the word kyozai means much more than textbooks or curriculum materials and needs to involve learning goals. Thus, according to Watanabe, Takahashi and Yoshida (2008), "*kyozaikenkyu*, is the process to help teachers gain a deeper understanding of *kyozai*" (p. 135). Moreover, it is important to distinguish between the content to be learned in a lesson and the tasks, as it is possible to explore the same subject matter with different *kyozai*, or investigate different subject matter with the same *kyozai* (p. 133).

The extent of the research and the detail that goes into the preparation of the lesson plans for research lessons are illustrated in Figure 1, (following page) where different sections of the typically five or six page lesson plans are identified. While all teachers need to engage in *kyozaikenkyu* as part of their lesson planning, Lesson Study requires teachers to engage in it in much more depth.

In a similar sense, Ma (1999) speaks of Chinese teachers' "profound understanding of fundamental mathematics" and how this is developed through "studying teaching materials intensively" (p. 130). In contrast, when we conducted an abbreviated Lesson Study cycle, in a three-day workshop at an international conference (Doig, Groves, & Machácková, 2009), it became apparent that many participants had little in-depth knowledge relating to the content of the lesson (fractions) or experience in studying teaching materials in depth. There were clear differences among participants, apparently based on country of origin. This experience, with an international group of mathematics educators, highlights the lack of opportunity for and disposition towards detailed study of mathematical content in many countries, including Australia.

Teaching and observing the research lesson

Teaching the research lesson forms the core of Japanese Lesson Study, providing both the opportunity to test the lesson plan in the classroom and an opportunity for observation and reflection.

Brian Doig & Susie Groves



Figure 1. Sections of a lesson plan for a Research Lesson (Fujii, 2008)

Teaching the research lesson

After being presented with the *hatsumon* or problem, students work individually or in groups on the problem while the teacher engages in *kikan-shido* – sometimes referred to as "between desks walking", but perhaps more accurately as "purposeful scanning". The teacher of the research lesson takes careful notes of which students are using which strategy to solve the lesson problem (see Figure 2) and knows, from the Lesson Study group's research, expected solution strategies. The teacher's notes allow the teacher not only to monitor students' strategies but also to orchestrate their reports on their solutions in the crucial whole class discussion that follows the students' working time – the *neriage* phase of the lesson, which often occupies the majority of time in a research lesson.

As Takahashi (2006) puts it, "Because the goal of the structured problemsolving approach is to develop students' understanding of mathematical concepts and skills, a teacher is expected to facilitate mathematical discussion for students to achieve this goal" (p. 6). The term *neriage*, used for this discussion part of the lesson, indicates a kneading of student ideas, allowing them to compare, polish and refine these solutions through the teacher's orchestration and probing.

82

Japanese Lesson Study: Teacher Professional Development through Communities of Inquiry



Figure 2. A teacher using a seating plan to record his Year 3 students' solutions

Because of the extensive *koyzaikenkyu*, the teacher has an understanding of likely student responses and strategies to the lesson task, including more efficient strategies, as well as common student misunderstandings. Detailed observation of actual student responses while students work allows the teacher to carefully orchestrate the order of solutions to be shared.

The discussion of solutions is followed by the *matome* – the summing up and careful review of the discussion aimed at guiding students to higher levels of mathematical sophistication (Shimizu, 1999). In the conclusion to the lesson, students – even very young children – are often asked to reflect in writing on what they have learned during the lesson.

A surprising aspect of Japanese classrooms is the lack of modern equipment, such as over-head projectors, computers, and electronic white-boards. While schools in countries such as Australia are adopting the use of these technological products at a great rate, the countries that manufacture them, China and Japan, appear to eschew them. In Japan, the blackboard is used extensively in lessons:

- To keep a record of the lesson;
- To help students remember what they need to do and to think about;
- To help students see the connection between different parts of the lesson and the progression of the lesson;
- To compare, contrast, and discuss ideas that students present;
- To help to organize student thinking and discovery of new ideas; and
- To foster organized student note-taking skills by modelling good organization (Takahashi, 2006, pp. 6–7).

The importance of the blackboard is shown by the fact that a special term, *bansho*, is used to denote its use. At the end of a research lesson, Japanese observers frequently take photographs of the blackboard, as it reveals to students and teachers alike the progress of the lesson, and the students' responses. This helps to organise student

Brian Doig & Susie Groves



Figure 3. Photograph of the blackboard at the end of a Year 3 lesson on division

thinking and model good organisation of notes. Figure 3 shows one of the author's photographs of a blackboard at the end of a Grade 3 lesson on division.

Observing the research lesson

The teaching phase of a research lesson is conducted with many observers in attendance. These observers may include only teachers from the same school, teachers from other local schools, or teachers and academics from an extended range of schools, with some research lessons being open to teachers from all over Japan. While "in-school" Lesson Study is the most common, national schools and attached schools of universities often hold Lesson Study days across the curriculum, as do professional associations in their own curriculum areas. One Lesson Study "day" observed by one of the authors saw approximately 2000 people converge on a single Tokyo elementary school on a Saturday to observe a series of mathematics lessons. Observers, often with video cameras, crowded into the classrooms, leant in through windows along a verandah, and peered in through the doors. We have also observed Lesson Study as part of mathematics education conferences both in Japan and in Mexico at the eleventh International Congress on Mathematical Education (ICME 11).

Regardless of the type of Lesson Study, all observers are provided with a copy of the detailed lesson plan, and take comprehensive notes of the lesson, often as well as video and photographic records (see Figure 4). The main focus of the observations is student thinking and learning, with observers, like the teacher, making detailed notes of students' solution strategies. Sometimes observers choose to focus on just one or two students for the entire lesson. Observers do not interact with nor "help" the students or the teacher during the lesson, as the purpose is to observe the implementation of the lesson as planned.

Japanese Lesson Study: Teacher Professional Development through Communities of Inquiry



Figure 4. Observers taking detailed notes in a local school research lesson

The post-lesson discussion

Finally, after the children have completed the lesson, the research lesson is discussed by the teacher and all of the observers. The focus of the discussion is not personal, but is about the research lesson itself, and in particular about the learning that has taken place and the ways in which the lesson might be improved.

Typically, the discussion is chaired by the principal or some other member of the school, with an "outsider", often an academic from the local university, being invited to comment at the end of the discussion. The teacher is given the first opportunity to speak, to explain their intentions for the lesson, as well as their impressions of what was successful and what was less successful in the lesson. Other members of the planning team then explain the rationale behind the lesson and how the lesson furthers the research theme. After this, there are comments from other observers, based on their detailed notes of the lesson, and the invited commentator who pulls the discussion together and draws out implications relating to the particular lesson and learning and teaching more generally. These discussions often last up to two hours, and are, at the local level anyway, often followed by a convivial meal at a local restaurant. We have attended post-lesson discussions of forty observers, each with comments about the lesson, how it might be improved, or what its highlights were (see Figure 5).

85

Brian Doig & Susie Groves



Figure 5. The post-lesson discussion at a local school

Japanese Lesson Study as Professional Development

Lesson Study makes various types of knowledge more visible, such as colleagues' ideas about pedagogy and students' mathematical thinking, thereby enabling teachers to encounter new or different ideas, and to refine their knowledge. (Lewis, Perry, & Hurd, 2009, p. 286)

Research lessons are not about perfecting one lesson, but rather focus on developing teachers' ideas and experiences of different approaches to teaching. Research lessons make participants and observers think quite profoundly about specific and general aspects of teaching.

Lewis and Tsuchida (1998) and Lewis (2000) identify a number of ways in which Lesson Study contributes to the improvement of Japanese education. One teacher interviewed described the impact of Lesson Study this way:

Research lessons help you see your teaching from various points of view A lesson is like a swiftly flowing river; when you're teaching you must make judgments instantly. When you do a research lesson, your colleagues write down your words and the students' words. Your real profile as a teacher is revealed to you for the first time. (Teacher cited in Lewis & Tsuchida, 1998, p. 15)

Other teachers spoke of Lesson Study offering them the opportunity to "learn to see children" (Lewis, 2000, p. 14) through the systematic data gathering facilitated by the lesson plans suggesting what to look for in the research lesson and all participants pooling their data.

Lesson Study was also seen by Lewis and Tsuchida (1998) as an important way to spread ideas about new content and approaches – especially at times when there were changes in the national curriculum, with teachers not only having the opportunity to watch new content being taught but also being able to

86

discuss the reasons behind changes. Other ways in which they saw Lesson Study having an impact was through: connecting classroom practice to broader school and community goals; creating demand for improvement of practice through viewing best practice and comparing it with their own; shaping national policy; and honouring the role of classroom teachers. But perhaps the most interesting observation is that Lesson Study provides the opportunity for teachers to explore conflicting ideas, by giving "teachers a chance to bring up, discuss, and perhaps reconcile competing goals or visions of education (p. 16).

Communities of Inquiry

In Japan, Lesson Study is a model for a community of practitioner-teachers to follow as they study student thinking for the purpose of improving instructional practices in their own classrooms. (Yarema, 2010, p. 5)

In a review of past thinking and future prospects for mathematics teacher professional development, Zaslavsky, Chapman, and Lieken (2001) argue that past professional development programs mirrored the teaching of mathematics: that is to say, "transmitting information, providing ideas and providing training in skills and techniques" (p. 878). They go on to say that this has been supplanted, more recently, in many cases, with programs that require teachers to play an active role in their own professional development. As a consequence, professional development programs adopt a constructivist perspective that "teacher's knowledge [is] developing socially within communities of practice" (p. 878). For example, in examining an action research-based professional development program, the following characteristics were noted: collaborative planning of group activities and individual lessons; lessons taught by the program leader and observed by the participants, and *vice versa*; co-teaching by the leader and participants; and post-lesson de-briefing by everyone in the program.

Many, but not all, of these characteristics are also to be found in Japanese Lesson Study practice. These include collaborative lesson planning, lesson observation, and post-lesson de-briefing. Further, Stein, Smith, Henningsen, and Silver (2000) hold the view that once teachers see their own students' task responses as examples in a more general pattern, they could then reflect on their own practice from a cognitive demand perspective, the perspective that Japanese Lesson Study employs, as one of its enabling aspects, lesson task selection and implementation. Zaslavsky et al. (2001) also note that lesson tasks have a dual role: they are both lesson content that drives student learning and are also the basis for indirect learning by the teacher.

Lewis et al. (2009) propose a theoretical model for the way in which Lesson Study produces instructional improvement. The model proposes that not only does Lesson Study make various types of knowledge more visible (see earlier quote), and improve resources available to teachers, but that "lesson study enables teachers to strengthen professional community, and to build the norms". They add that, "these might include norms of inquiry and accountability and shared language and frameworks for analysis of practice" (p. 286). These norms and practices resonate with Splitter's (2009) definition of a *community of inquiry as*:

a particular kind of ... environment or culture, in which students engage together in various forms of inquiry, where the latter is understood to be any mode of thinking that is motivated by, and directed toward, clarifying, solving or resolving something which is regarded as both problematic and worthy of attention. (p. 171)

Moreover, Perry and Lewis (2009), in a description of what they call an "existence proof" that Lesson Study can be successfully adapted in the USA, regard the development of a professional community as one of the key conditions for supporting successful Lesson Study.

Adapting Japanese Lesson Study

The graveyards of U.S. educational reform are littered with once-promising innovations that were poorly understood, superficially implemented, and consequently pronounced ineffective. (Lewis, 2000, p. 33)

As Stigler and Hiebert (1999) point out, our efforts at improving teaching often ignore the fact that teaching is a cultural activity. The phenomenal growth of Lesson Study as a vehicle for professional development, primarily in the USA, but also elsewhere, has highlighted some of the cultural assumptions underlying Japanese Lesson Study and raised questions about the extent to which it can be replicated elsewhere.

Japan has a century-old history of Lesson Study. Unlike Australia, where teaching is seen very much as a private activity, teaching in Japan is seen as a public activity, with teachers' classroom performances open to collegial scrutiny and comment. The relatively high status afforded to teaching in Japan results in a stable teaching population, with teaching being seen as a life-long profession. Lesson Study requires a long-term commitment, which is also difficult when, as in Australia, models of teacher professional development are constantly changing.

Another cultural factor that distinguishes Japan and Australia is the focus on the classroom as a community of learners as opposed to a focus on individual differences. Community is built in elementary school classrooms through a range of strategies, including the thoughtful, deliberate creation and maintenance of ongoing small groups that form the underlying structure for lessons as well as for out of class activities such as eating lunch, playing games, and cleaning the school. This sense of community is in evidence in the ways in which students engage in the structured problem-solving lessons that form the basis for Lesson Study in mathematics.

The school context is also a powerful influence. In Japan, while the preparation for Lesson Study takes place outside school hours, the long-standing tradition of Lesson Study allows flexible arrangements to be made for conducting the observed lessons and the post-lesson debriefing discussions. In

88

Australia, a major constraint to such activity is the fact that most schools would need to employ casual teachers to take the place of teachers observing lessons in other classes or schools. For a more detailed discussion of some of these factors, see Groves and Doig (2010).

Lewis and Tsuchida (1998, pp. 50–51) identify what they regard as four major conditions that support Japanese Lesson Study: a shared frugal curriculum; collaboration among teachers; critical self-reflection – *hansei* – which is highly valued within the wider Japanese culture; and stability in educational policy.

While many of the factors identified above that impose constraints on the adoption of Japanese Lesson Study relate to the process, others, which may in fact constitute greater barriers, relate to the nature of the Japanese structured problem-solving lesson. In contrast to the crowded Australian curriculum, the "frugal" Japanese mathematics curriculum affords both opportunities for, and dispositions towards, a detailed study of mathematical content. It provides time for a longer-term, deeper study of a more limited number of mathematical topics, which leads to more understanding of concepts, greater skill development, and overall better achievement by all students in the class.

Moreover, as Perry and Lewis (2009) point out, Lesson Study assumes that:

teachers would begin to understand student thinking primarily through observing students during lessons. However, not all lessons include "thought-revealing tasks" ... that enable observers to study student thinking; Japanese mathematics lessons elicit student thinking more reliably than do US mathematics lessons. (pp. 376–377)

Nevertheless, Perry and Lewis (2009), in their "existence proof" case of a USA school district with a four-year successful history of Lesson Study, found significant changes that resulted in the "evolution of a more balanced, coherent model of lesson study that emphasized practitioner learning as well as lesson planning" (p. 372). Among these was teachers' increased use of reflection, which enabled them to "capture their own learning" (p. 374).

Another important support for change was the use of outside experts, with an example being given of one Japanese expert pressing teachers to include students' anticipated solutions in their lesson plans, to consider how many such solutions were likely, to think about how they would treat incorrect solutions (Perry & Lewis, 2009). Our own experience at the international conference referred to earlier (Doig et al., 2009) showed that participants were themselves only able to find a couple of possible solutions and were sceptical that the grade 3 students would be able to come up with different solutions to the problem of dividing three pizzas equally between four people. The five children who participated the following day in fact found 16 mostly different solutions.

This example also relates to the fourth major factor identified by Perry and Lewis (2009) as contributing to the shift in participants' view of Lesson Study – an increased focus on mathematical thinking, with a corresponding change in emphasis from superficial aspects to collecting detailed data on which to base

substantive conversations about pedagogy and content. One teacher was reported as saying:

A couple of the Japanese men had documented minute by minute what [students] were doing ... It made me realize as an observer how you can just get warm feelings about some things, but it's really important to be detailed in your observation and really be critically thinking. (p. 377)

In Mainland China, Teaching Research Groups have existed in all schools for over half a century (Yang, 2009). These groups, which are mandated by the government, conduct a number of different activities, some of which closely resemble (or are even sometimes seen as being identical to) Japanese Lesson Study. Typically, research lessons are taught at least twice – in fact when the authors were in China recently they saw one lesson dramatically changed as the result of the post-lesson discussion and re-taught within the space of a couple of hours.

While one possible outcome from Japanese Lesson Study is a polished, and perhaps even published, lesson on a particular topic, it is a mistake to assume that this is the main goal or, as it is common in the USA, that the same lesson is even taught again as part of the Lesson Study (Lewis et al., 2009). As Lewis (2000, p. 5) points out, "The research lesson is not a finished product that is expected to be used *in toto* elsewhere, but an example of a goal or vision of education in action".

In a similar vein, Perry and Lewis (2009) conclude that in their USA case "Lesson study evolved from an activity focused on creation of polished lessons to a comprehensive system for teacher learning from practice and external knowledge sources" (p. 383), and this might present a clue as to how Lesson Study can be adapted to better suit the Australian context.

Sustaining Professional Development

Of all aspects of professional development, sustaining change is perhaps the most neglected. It is clear that, to be successful, professional development must be seen as a process, not an event (Guskey, 2002, p. 388)

There are a number of reasons why Lesson Study offers the potential for sustained professional development. First, it offers teachers the opportunity to develop professional communities of inquiry, with ownership of the improvement effort, a commitment to inquiry, shared goals, and a sense of responsibility to their colleagues and students (Lewis et al., 2009).

Secondly, while progress is often slow at the start, the process can evolve over time with teachers beginning by weaving "some of the simpler components of lesson study (such as collaborative lesson planning) in with their existing practices, and only later ... [grasping] the significance of other ideas such as developing a lesson rationale and documenting their own learning" (Perry & Lewis, 2009, p. 388). Thirdly, Lesson Study enables teachers to build on their efforts and refine their understandings. In the case reported by Lewis et al. (2009), teachers on their own initiative decided to continue to meet to further revise their lesson to allow colleagues to observe the research lesson and collect data. This is not an uncommon occurrence in Lesson Study.

Lastly, as Perry and Lewis (2009) comment:

Lesson study may stand a better chance of survival than specific instructional reforms because it is a means for bringing practice into line with goals that can be used flexibly to support various reform ideas. (p. 387)

References

- Banilower, E., Boyd, S., Pasley, J., & Weiss, I. (2006). Lessons from a decade of mathematics and science reform: A capstone report for the local systemic change through teacher enhancement initiative. Arlington, VA: National Science Foundation.
- Darling-Hammond, L., Wei, R., Andree, A., Richardson, N., & Orphanos, S. (2009). Professional learning in the learning profession: A status report on teacher development in the United States and abroad. Retrieved from www.nsdc.org/news/NSDCstudy2009.pdf
- Department for Children, Schools and Families (2008). Improving practice and progression through Lesson Study: Handbook for headteachers, leading teachers and subject leaders. Nottingham: DCSF Publications. Retrieved 27 September 2011 from http://teachfind.com/national-strategies/improving-practice-and-progression-through-lesson-study-handbook-headteachers-le
- Doig, B., Groves, S., & Fujii, T. (2011). The critical role of task development in Lesson study. In L. Hart, A. Alston & A. Murata (Eds.), *Lesson study research and practice in mathematics education* (pp. 181–199). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.
- Doig, B., Groves, S., & Machá?ková, J. (2009). Lesson Study Could it work for you? In J. Novotna & H. Moraová (Eds.), *Symposium on elementary mathematics teaching* (pp. 269-270). Prague: Charles University Education Faculty.
- Fernandez, C., & Yoshida, M. (2004). Lesson study: A case of a Japanese approach to improving instruction through school-based teacher development. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Fujii, T. (2008, July). Knowledge for teaching mathematics. Plenary address at the Eleventh International Congress on Mathematical Education (ICME 11), Monterrey, Mexico.
- Groves, S., & Doig, B. (2010). Adapting and implementing Japanese Lesson Study Some affordances and constraints. In Y. Shimizu, Y. Sekiguchi & K. Hino (Eds.), Proceedings of the Fifth East Asia Regional Conference on Mathematics Education: In Search of Excellence in Mathematics Education (Vol. 2, pp. 699–706). Tokyo, Japan.
- Guskey, R. T. (2002). Professional development and teacher change. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, *8*(3/4), 381–91.
- Hattie, J. (2009). *Visible Learning: A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement*. London: Routledge.
- Hollingsworth, H., & Oliver, D. (2005). Lesson study: A professional learning model that actually makes a difference. In J. Mousley, L. Bragg & C. Campbell (Eds.), *Mathematics – Celebrating Achievement: 2005 MAV Conference* (pp. 168–175). Melbourne: MAV.

- Ingvarson, L., Beavis, H., Bishop, A. J., Peck, R., & Elsworth, G. (2004). Investigation of effective mathematics teaching and learning in Australian secondary schools. Canberra, ACT: Australian Government Department of Education, Science and Training.
- Kazemi, E., Elliott, R., Hubbard, A., Carroll, C., & Mumme, J. (2007). Doing mathematics in professional development: Theorizing teacher learning with and through sociomathematical norms. Paper presented at the 29th Annual Meeting of the North American Chapter of the International Group for the Psychology of Mathematics Education, Stateline (Lake Tahoe), NV.
- Lewis, C. (2000, April 28). Lesson Study: The core of Japanese professional development. Invited Address to the Special Interest Group on Research in Mathematics Education, American Educational Research Association Meetings, New Orleans. Retrieved 18 March 2011 from www.csudh.edu/math/syoshinobu/107web/aera2000.pdf
- Lewis, C. (2002). A handbook of teacher-led instructional change. Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools.
- Lewis, C., & Tsuchida, I. (1998). A lesson is like a swiftly flowing river: Research lessons and the improvement of Japanese education. *American Educator*, 14–17 & 50–52. Retrieved 25 March 2011 from http://peoria.k12.il.us/msmith/isu_cohort/ soc465/Lesson%20Like%20a%20Swiftly%20Flowing%20River.pdf
- Lewis, C. C., Perry, R. R., & Hurd, J. (2009). Improving mathematics instruction through lesson study: A theoretical model and North American case. *Journal of Mathematics Teacher Education*, 12, 285–304. DOI 10.1007/s10857-009-9102-7.
- Loucks-Horsley, S., Stiles, K., & Hewson, P. (1996). Principles of effective professional development for mathematics and science education: A synthesis of standards. *NISE Brief*, *1*(1), 1-5.
- Ma, L. (1999). Knowing and teaching elementary mathematics. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Ono, Y., & Ferreira, J. (2010). A case study of continuing teacher professional development through lesson study in South Africa. *South African Journal of Education*, 30(1), 59–74.
- Pehkonen, E. (1992). Problem fields in mathematics teaching. Part 3: Views of Finnish seventh-graders about mathematics teaching. *Research Report 108*. Helsinki: Helsinki University, Department of Teacher Education. Retrieved 30 June 2011 from http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED353262.pdf
- Perry, R. R., & Lewis, C. C. (2009). What is successful adaptation of Lesson Study in the U.S.? *Journal of Educational Change*, *10*(4), 365–391. DOI 10.1007/s10833-008-9069-7.
- Royce, C. (2010). A revolutionary model of professional development. *Science Scope*, *34*(3), 6.
- Shimizu, Y. (1999). Aspects of mathematical teacher education in Japan: Focusing on the teachers' roles. *Journal of Mathematics Teacher Education*, 2, 107–116.
- Splitter, L. (2009). The classroom as a community of mathematical inquiry. Proceedings of the Thirty-third Conference of the International Group for the Psychology of Mathematics Education (pp. 171–176). Thessaloniki, Greece: PME.
- Stein, M. K., Smith, M., Henningsen, M., & Silver, E. A. (2000). Implementing standards-based mathematics instruction: A casebook for professional development. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Stigler, J. W., & Hiebert, J. (1999). The teaching gap: Best ideas from the world's teachers for improving education in the classroom. New York: Summit Books.
- Stigler, J. W., Gonzalez, P., Kawanaka, T., Knoll, S., & Serrano, A. (1999). The TIMSS videotape classroom study: Methods and findings from an explanatory research project on eighth-grade mathematics instruction in Germany, Japan and the United States (No. NCES 99–074). Washington, DC: US Government Printing Office.

- Takahashi, A. (2006). Characteristics of Japanese mathematics lessons. Retrieved from the WorldWideWeb 10 September 2008 from http://www.criced.tsukuba.ac.jp/math/ sympo_2006/takahashi.pdf
- Takahashi, A., & Yoshida, M. (2004). Ideas for establishing Lesson-Study communities. *Teaching Children Mathematics* (May), 436–443.
- Watanabe, T., Takahashi, A., & Yoshida, M. (2008). Kyozaikenkyu: A critical step for conducting effective lesson study and beyond. In F. Arbaugh & P. M. Taylor (Eds.), *Inquiry into mathematics teacher education. Association of Mathematics Teacher Educators (AMTE) Monograph Series* (Volume 5, pp. 131–142). San Diego, CA: Association of Mathematics Teacher Educators. Retrieved from the WorldWideWeb 16 November 2010 from http://www.amte.net/AMTE_legacy/monograph/AMTE_Mono graph_5.pdf
- White, A. L., & Lim, C. S. (2008). Lesson study in Asia Pacific classrooms: Local responses to a global movement. *ZDM The International Journal on Mathematics Education*, 40(6), 915–925.
- Yang, Y. (2009). How a Chinese teacher improved classroom teaching in Teaching Research Group: A case study on Pythagoras theorem teaching in Shanghai. ZDM – The International Review on Mathematics Education, 41(3), 279–296.
- Yarema, C. (2010). Mathematics teachers' views of accountability testing revealed through Lesson Study. *Mathematics Teacher Education and Development*, *12*(1), 3–18.
- Yoshida, M. (1999). Lesson study: A case study of a Japanese approach to improving instruction through school-based teacher development. Doctoral Dissertation: University of Chicago.
- Zaslavsky, O., Chapman, O., & Lieken, R. (2001). Professional development of mathematics teachers: Trends and tasks. In A. J. Bishop, M. A. Clements, C. Keitel, J. Kilpatrick & F. Leung (Eds.), Second international handbook of mathematics education (Vol. 2, pp. 877–917). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic.

Authors

Brian Doig, Deakin University, Melbourne, Australia. Email: <brian.doig@deakin.edu.au> Susie Groves, Deakin University, Melbourne, Australia. Email: <susie.groves@deakin.edu.au> $\begin{array}{c} \text{GEORGE LUCAS EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATION} \\ \text{Celebrating } \textbf{30} \text{ years} \end{array}$

RESTORATIVE PRACTICES

Bringing Restorative Practices to Your School

Six lessons learned from replacing punitive discipline with a community-oriented, restorative approach.

By Laura McClure

October 10, 2016



© iStock.com/Steve Debenport

Schools across the country are being urged to adopt restorative approaches as an alternative to suspensions, which may disproportionately affect students of color.

But restorative practices do more than supplant punitive approaches to discipline. They can dramatically improve the school climate and strengthen the social and emotional skills of young people and adults. Instead of using punishments and rewards to influence the way students behave, restorative approaches address the underlying reasons for students' hurtful behavior and nurture their intrinsic desire to treat others with care and respect.

Making the transition to restorative approaches isn't easy. Here are six lessons we've learned as we've introduced these practices in New York City public schools.

1. Restorative approaches are all about building community and strengthening relationships. Restorative approaches are based on the idea that when we feel part of a supportive community, we respect others in that community and become accountable to it. Schools can foster this sense of community through daily or weekly circles, in advisory, or in any class -- provided teachers get the support needed to facilitate the practices. Circles help participants better understand each other, engendering a sense of empathy and connection. Adults can build the effort by modeling collaborative, respectful behavior themselves. Adults can also have their own circles, creating a safe place where they too can connect and explore challenges.



Carolina Kroor

2. Circles are powerful, if you respect the process. Circles borrow traditions from indigenous peoples: You sit in a circle around an object that has meaning for the group. You pass a talking piece, and everyone must wait till the talking piece comes to them before speaking -- including the facilitator. In circle, everyone is both a participant and a keeper; no one is in charge and no one is an observer. As students get comfortable with the circle process, they can become co-keepers. Respecting all these practices takes discipline, but it is key to the circle's power. Circle gives everyone a rare chance to share what they are feeling and experiencing. Over time, circle becomes a safe space where everyone feels that they are heard and that they belong. That's a precious thing in a school -- or anywhere.

3. Circles can be strengthened by a curriculum that sequentially builds skills. The circle naturally asks participants to use social and emotional skills that they may not have fully developed, including active listening, handling strong emotions, and respecting differences. A sequenced curriculum can guide circle keepers in gradually building these skills.

4. When problems do occur, you have an array of restorative responses to choose from. Circle provides a foundation that can both prevent problems and help handle them when they arise. You can also use a mediation process or group problem-solving session to address problems. If a serious harm happens, a restorative intervention may be in order: The person causing the harm meets with others, often including the person harmed. They reflect on the harm and agree on how it can be remedied. The person who caused harm has a chance to truly understand the impact of their actions, to be heard and understood themselves, to repair the harm, and to be welcomed back (restored) to the community. That can have a far more positive and lasting effect on a person than punishment or exile. The process can provide insights for everyone else as well.

5. Everyone needs to be part of the gradual shift. Using restorative processes takes skill. It's best if a regular member of the school staff can serve as the restorative practices specialist/coordinator. But everyone in the school needs to embrace the approach. This is challenging, since treating harm as a teachable moment (not an occasion for punishment) runs counter to many ingrained habits and societal messages. For these reasons, moving to restorative practices requires a thoughtful, staged transition.

6. It takes a dedicated principal and school-wide planning. The shift to restorative approaches takes time and commitment. Ideally, the principal convenes a collaborative team (including students) to rethink and reconstruct the school's discipline policy and create a phased implementation plan that includes support for staff. Many people are struck by the power of restorative practices. As the principal of a Bronx school that instituted them says, "We noticed that we hadn't had a single fight -- physical or verbal -- in 12 weeks. It's because we've been building trust. We've created a climate of civility and respect." That kind of atmosphere is good for everyone, students and teachers alike.

SHARE THIS STORY



FILED UNDER

Restorative Practices School Culture

Social & Emotional Learning (SEL)

BOOK EXCERPT

Making Restorative Justice Work

In a recent book, a high school principal explains how he implemented a time- and cost-effective process to improve equity in discipline.

By Zachary Scott Robbins

July 15, 2021
Restorative Practices

FORUM

SaferSanerSchools: Transforming School Culture with Restorative Practices

Twelve-year-old Tiffany (not her real name) rushes into the student office at Palisades Middle School, in southeastern Pennsylvania, U.S.A. "Hi Tiffany," says the office secretary, Karen Urbanowicz, "What are you doing here?" Tiffany says that she was getting in trouble in class. Mrs. Urbanowicz asks Tiffany what happened and Tiffany tells her story. "Did your teacher send you here?" asks Mrs. Urbanowicz. "No," says Tiffany, "I sent myself." "Good for you!" says Mrs. Urbanowicz. She takes Tiffany's personal journal out of a file and hands it to her, saying, "Write about what happened and what you think you can do better in the future." Tiffany sits down and begins to write.

What made Tiffany feel comfortable enough to refer herself to the student office? How did the office secretary know what to do when Tiffany showed up? The school was introduced to restorative practices, through a new program, SaferSanerSchools.

SaferSanerSchools, a program of the International Institute for Restorative Practices (IIRP), was developed in response to a perceived crisis in American education and in society as a whole. Said Ted Wachtel, IIRP president, "Rising truancy and dropout rates, increasing disciplinary problems, violence and even mass murders plague American schools. The IIRP believes that the dramatic change in behavior among young people is largely the result of the loss of connectedness and community in modern society. Schools themselves have become larger, more impersonal institutions and educators feel less connected to the families whose children they teach."

The IIRP was created to be the training and education arm of its sister organization, the Community Service Foundation (CSF). CSF was founded in 1977 by Ted and Susan Wachtel, teachers who left the public school system with a dream of building a different type of educational community. Over 25plus years, the private, non-profit schools



A circle in progress in a classroom at Springfield Township High School, Pennsylvania.

that they created evolved strategies to work with the toughest adjudicated delinquent and at-risk kids in southeastern Pennsylvania. These methods developed by way of trial and error, out of necessity, not ideology.

The name they gave to these strategies is "restorative practices." Restorative practices involve changing relationships by engaging people: doing things WITH them, rather than TO them or FOR them—providing both high control and high support at the same time. Said Ted Wachtel, "In our schools, we provide a huge amount of support. We're very understanding and find all sorts of ways to help kids understand their behavior, but at the same time we don't tolerate inappropriate behavior. We really hold them accountable."

Instead of zero tolerance and authoritarian punishment, restorative practices place responsibility on students themselves, using a collaborative response to wrongdoing. Students are encouraged to both give and ask for support and are responsible for helping to address behavior in other students. This fosters a strong sense of community as well as a strong sense of safety. "Restorative practices are not new 'tools for your toolbox,' but represent a fundamental change in the nature of relationships in schools. It is the relationships, not specific strategies, that bring about meaningful change," said Bob Costello, IIRP director of training.

Eventually, the IIRP began to articulate these practices and find ways to teach them to others. They also found that the processes applied to many settings, not just with troubled kids. Since restorative practices worked so well with the toughest kids in their own schools, the IIRP thought they ought to be able to work in other schools, as well.

Through a SaferSanerSchools pilot program, restorative practices have been introduced to Palisades High School (732 students), Palisades Middle School (559 students) and Springfield Township High School (855 students). The program is in various phases of implementation at the

Restorative Practices EFORUM

three schools. All have implemented restorative practices in creative ways.

A visitor walking the hallways at any of these schools feels immediately welcomed into a lively and cheerful community. Ask any student for directions and he or she provides them in a spirit of open friendliness. Staff members seem just as congenial. An observer in classrooms and at special events perceives that students have a strong connection to their school, the staff and each other.

Palisades High School was the first SaferSanerSchools pilot school. Asked how restorative practices have changed the school, Principal David Piperato said that before the program was introduced, as in many public schools throughout the U.S., the level of caring and respect among many students had declined. Restorative practices, he said, "created a more positive relationship between staff and students." Preliminary data gathered by the school indicate a clear decrease in disciplinary referrals to the student office (Figure I), administrative detentions (Figure 2), detentions assigned by teachers (Figure 3), incidents of disruptive behavior (Figure 4) and out-of-school suspensions (Figure 5) from school year 1998-1999 through 2001-2002, the years of the pilot project.

Restorative practices also helped establish a culture of collaboration among staff members. Said teacher Heather Horn, "The traditional mindset of, 'If you're doing something wrong it's not my job to confront you.' has become: 'This is a team thing and your behavior is affecting me as a teacher.'" The administrator-teacher relationship is now collaborative rather than just supervisory, said Piperato: "the right style for a high school." Restorative practices have also had a positive effect on academic performance, he said, adding, "You cannot separate behavior from academics. When students feel good and safe and have solid relationships with teachers, their academic performance improves."

Restorative practices were introduced at Palisades High School in the 1998-1999 school year. In the fall, the school had launched a new program, the Academy, for students who didn't feel connected to school and were struggling with behavior or academic performance. The Academy is project-based. Kids work with clients outside school to design websites, produce videos and build construction projects. But, said Piperato, "We made a critical error: we addressed the content of the program, not relationships between teachers and students. And from the first day, the program was as close to a disaster as you can imagine." Rebelling against the lack of structure, unmotivated kids roamed the building, their behavior rude and belligerent. Teachers turned on each other, frustrated and upset.

At that time, the IIRP presented their idea of implementing restorative practices in schools to Joseph Roy, then Palisades High School principal, and Piperato, then assistant



Palisades High School Disciplinary Data

Number of Detentions

Restorative Practices **F** O R U M

principal. Roy and Piperato realized that they could use the IIRP's assistance with the Academy immediately. Said Piperato, "This was an opportunity for them to test their theory in our most difficult setting."

Piperato said he knew that he and Roy needed to be intimately involved with the experiment from the beginning-supportive and willing to take risks. "The IIRP staff spent hours listening to us, gave us strategies for dealing with the kids and held us accountable for using them," he said. They started to see some success with the way the teachers were feeling almost immediately. The biggest step, said Costello, was when the teachers recognized that they had to take care of themselves as a team before they could help the kids. "They needed to respect their style differences, be honest, practice what they preached and work on their issues: do all the things they were asking the kids to do."

The IIRP taught the Academy staff to use the continuum of restorative practices, starting with affective statements and questions—sharing and eliciting emotions—to help students understand that they were as responsible for the success of the Academy, as well as to and for each other, as the teachers were, said Piperato. The teachers also learned how to use circles, interventions, one-onones and group meetings with kids. They introduced "check-in" and "check-out" circles at the beginning and end of each 90-minute class period—an opportunity for students to set goals and expectations together.

The strategies quickly started to show results with students. "Restorative practices helped us help students see that they need to buy into the community that we're building," said Academy teacher Eileen Wickard. Comments from Academy students indicate a strong sense of community: "We're a big family. We're all so different but we all work together." "If two people are arguing, a group of us will get together and talk to the people and try to work it through. As a group we've managed to make ourselves more mature."

Word soon spread throughout the school that the Academy had been successful with students no one had been able to reach before. Academy kids were also receiving positive recognition from the community.



"You cannot separate behavior from academics. When students feel good and safe and have solid relationships with teachers, their academic performance improves." —David Piperato

Teachers in the rest of the school consequently became more willing to listen to the "wacky touchy-feely stuff going on in the Academy," said Piperato. Roy and Piperato decided to phase in restorative practices in the rest of the building over a three-year period. They divided the staff into thirds: the "believers," the "fence sitters" and the "critics." The first year, the IIRP provided basic knowledge of restorative practices for the believers, teaching them to be a support group for each other. "That was phenomenal for us," said Horn. Teachers used to complain to each other about kids and judge them, she said. But the IIRP taught teachers how to discuss students' behavior, rather than their personalities, and brainstorm as a group about how to handle it. "Before, it was almost a taboo," said Academy teacher John Venner. "You never talked to another teacher about how they talked to kids. It was their own damn business in their own classroom. Now we find it very acceptable to hold each other accountable."

By the second year, said Piperato, the fence sitters had begun to notice the positive effects of restorative practices. The believers and the fence sitters were combined into two mixed groups, and the IIRP trained them together. The believers modeled, provided support and told stories about their experiences with restorative practices and the fence sitters learned from them. By the third year, teachers who needed evidence that the program worked were seeing it. Those who had been resistant were less so and many teachers retired. Newly hired teachers were trained with the third group. All teachers were encouraged to use restorative practices in the classroom.

English teacher Mandy Miller said that she uses restorative practices, including circles, to build relationships between students. She told a story of a girl who felt that other students were getting in the way of her learning and asked for a circle meeting to address the issue. During the circle, the girl realized that she was actually causing most of the problem herself. "That was a really hard day and people were in tears," said Miller, but since then, the entire class has been getting along fine. Miller has also found restorative practices helpful with discipline problems. "I can say, 'This is how I'm feeling. How are you feeling? And what are we going to do to work together?'" Students seem to value and understand the processes. A ninth-grade girl commented, "We do fun team-building activities in biology class to learn how to work with people you're normally not used to working with."

Assistant Principal Richard Heffernan said that in 2001-2002 they saw an increase in "harassing types of behavior," not high level incidents, but those that were creating problems nonetheless. Said Heffernan, "We asked the IIRP staff, 'Why do you think this is happening? We're supposed to have restorative practices, express our feelings, treat people with respect and be responsible for our actions.' They said the reason we'd seen this increase was that students were reporting it more, because we had created a safe environment." The culture of the students as a whole had changed. It had become acceptable

Restorative Practices FORUM



"We get along here, and that's because the kids are respected and they know it." —Edward Baumgartner

to "tell" when another student was making them feel unsafe. Added guidance counselor Monica Losinno, "Kids feel safe reporting it because they believe it will be addressed."

Heffernan and Losinno devised a program whereby a staff member is available every period of the school day to facilitate conflict resolution in a restorative manner. Eight teachers and teaching assistants received IIRP group facilitator training. When a problem arises, one of the eight talks with each of the students involved, then brings them together to help them work it through. Teacher and "conflict resolution manager" Richard Kressly said that the entire school staff was educated in restorative practices and asked to be more present in the hallways and more diligent about low level incidents. The program does not relieve teachers from handling disruptive situations in class, said Heffernan.

Kids seem to appreciate the ways in which restorative practices have created a congenial climate in their school. Said a ninth-grade boy, "If kids get in a fight they have someone to help them work it out." A ninth-grade girl added, "We don't get many fights. I think there's only been two all year. That's not many at all for a high school. Most people get along real well." A 10th-grade girl who had transferred from another school said of Palisades High School, "One thing I noticed right way was the friendly atmosphere."

Restorative practices came to Palisades Middle School (PALMS) in the fall of 2000. Said Palisades Middle School Principal Edward Baumgartner, "When I took over here two-and-a-half years ago, we were suspending 200 students a school year for everything from disrespect to not making up gym." The school climate was discourteous and disrespectful and altercations were common, he said, adding, "The behavior was the result of treatment, perceived or actual, in many cases. You've got to give respect to get it." Then, said Baumgartner, "I sat on the stage for graduation at Palisades High School in June of 2000 and saw a phenomenon that I didn't understand: kids that had routinely been behavior problems at the middle school were hugging the assistant principal and thanking her." Baumgartner learned that the high school had implemented the SaferSanerSchools program and decided to follow suit at PALMS.

"Two-and-a-half years later," he said, "everybody in this building's been trained, including all the support staff. It's changed the way we teach kids; it's changed the way we think about discipline and behavior management. We get along here, and that's because the kids are respected and they know it." And, said Baumgartner, "We've seen a statistically significant decrease in the amount of actual problems that occur each and every day." Data gathered by PALMS indicate a substantial drop from school year 2000-2001 to 2001-2002 in discipline referrals to the student office (Figure 6), discipline referrals by source: teacher, cafeteria and bus company (Figure 7) and in incidents of fighting (Figure 8).

In addition, there has been a significant increase in students reporting other students for behavior problems, students self-reporting and parents reporting their children. Kids feel comfortable saying, "I've got a problem; I need help," said Baumgartner. Also, he said, "The school cafeteria is a place where I'm real proud of the kids, a place that I would invite board members to come in and sit down every day."

"I've had an epiphany, a metamorphosis," said Baumgartner. "I used to be one of these black and white, law and order guys. Kids had to be held accountable and the only way to do that was to kick them out of school—to show the other kids that you're the boss. That doesn't work," he said. "I didn't solve prob-



Palisades Middle School Disciplinary Data

Restorative Practices **E** FORUM

lems; I just postponed them until they got to high school and then somebody else had to deal with them. Restorative practices work. We now fix and solve problems."

Asked if restorative practices have had a positive effect on academic performance, Baumgartner said, "Kids can't learn in a dysfunctional environment. If the teacher is spending valuable instructional time addressing a student who's acting out, that detracts from the instruction. If teachers can be more focused on instruction, the answer to your question has to be yes. We've gone down 400 classroom referrals, so I know that the answer is yes."

Palisades Middle School Dean of Students Dennis Gluck is also the intervention specialist—someone to facilitate restorative circles and model restorative practices for others. Gluck helped the IIRP implement restorative practices at PALMS. First, he said, the school identified six or seven kids who were really struggling and set up a restorative classroom with them. "It was really successful," said Gluck. "It showed the rest of the staff that this could work with the toughest kids in the school. The kids not only did well, but were able to help other kids." The whole staff then got excited about the possibilities of restorative practices, he said.

Restorative practices are used in classrooms in the form of circles, when kids and staff share information and problems. In discipline situations, kids can write in their personal journals, kept in the student office, about what happened and suggest how to take care of it. "Through that we process what would be appropriate, from an informal plan to a formal plan to a restorative conference," said Gluck.

Gluck said that they put a lot of thought into the processes that they developed. "We created a cafeteria committee to deal with problems, we had kids help other kids when they were in jams, and at the end of the year, some of the kids that had struggled the most went on the P.A. (public address) system saying that they loved the administrators."

Staff members appear enthusiastic about restorative practices. Veteran PALMS educational assistant Karen Bedics said that she has seen a big change in the students due to the approach. "Students at this age are very selfcentered. They need a constant reminder that other people are affected by what they do. If we have a conflict, we will meet as group and tell what part each of us, including the teachers, played in it. I'm not afraid to tell them my feelings and I always keep their feelings in mind," she said. Also, said Bedics, kids now "reprimand each other if they mess up. It means more to them to hear it from their peers." Fran Ostrosky, long-time PALMS teacher and president of the Palisades Educa-



"Usually kids will catch onto 'OK, this is how we behave at this school, this is what the expectations are and this is the culture' and they get on board." —Joseph Roy

tion Association (the teachers' union), said, "I've gotten more out of my students with this approach than I did with a more rigid approach to discipline problems. When you solve problems with them rather than coming down from 'on high' they buy into it much better." Disciplinary aid Gretchen Carr said that restorative practices have "made a tremendous impact on these kids, in their behavior, in their respect for one another and the adults. It also helps that everybody in this district has adapted to it and is practicing the same thing," said Carr. "It's not going away and the kids realize that."

Kids seem to welcome the approach. "I used to get in a lot of trouble, but teachers

talk to students and help you make the right decisions here. In homeroom we sit in a circle and talk about anything that needs to be brought up," said an eighth-grade girl. Said a seventh-grade boy, "When I disrespected a teacher and I apologized to her, it felt good. If they feel bad it'll make you feel bad too." An eighth-grade girl said, "The school has gotten to be a really nice community and people really treat each other fairly now."

District administrators are thoroughly supportive of SaferSanerSchools. "Restorative practices work," said Palisades School District Superintendent Francis Barnes. "It requires a certain level of self-discipline from all of our staff and they have accepted that challenge and the students have responded very well." Said Assistant Superintendent Marilyn Miller, "Consistently what we hear from people who visit the schools from the outside is that our students are confident, happy and articulate. That was not the case in 1998."

After helping to implement restorative practices at Palisades High School, Joseph Roy became principal of Springfield Township High School in January of 2000. His strategy for introducing restorative practices at Springfield has been to "start with a small group and then do another small group and start to expand critical mass." He picked a few teachers he thought would be interested in restorative practices training, then a few more. "We're still at the beginning of the process here," said Roy.

Specific groups have been trained, including those working with poorly motivated, at-risk students in the Spartan Project, an American studies class that combines English and social studies, as well as teams of eighthand ninth-grade teachers. Roy finds that the teaming concept is consistent with restorative practices. The entire faculty was introduced to restorative practices in the fall of 2001. "The goal," said Roy, "is to integrate the practices throughout the school. Our challenge here is changing the traditional school culture to become more restorative." Roy considers restorative practices to be "one piece of many things we do for culture-building," including treating kids with respect and having a team of teachers and parents identify the school's

Restorative Practices EFORUM

core values. "I guess you could tie it all in to restorative practices," he concluded.

The demographics at Springfield are different from those at Palisades, said Roy. "We're the first ring of suburbs around Philadelphia," he said, "so we have a lot of transfer-ins from families moving to the suburbs for the better schools. These kids are much more city street smart than suburban kids. That's part of the challenge-to take kids that are coming from a different system and have them be integrated into the culture of this school and not have the culture of this school shift toward the behavior of the Philadelphia schools." Roy said that restorative practices had definitely helped with that concern. "Usually kids will catch onto 'OK, this is how we behave at this school, this is what the expectations are and this is the culture' and they get on board," he said.

The number of discipline referrals is down dramatically already since he came to Springfield, Roy said. Data gathered by the school indicates decreases in incidents of inappropriate behavior (Figure 9), disrespect to teachers (Figure 10) and classroom disruption (Figure 11). Added Roy, "They're lower-level stuff: Johnny didn't come back to study hall after he went to the library—stuff like that." In the past, said Roy, there were many more incidents of disrespect and defiance.

Said Roy, "When I first got here there was something called 'time out.' Teachers would kick kids out of class and send them to a 'time out room.' Sometimes they'd get there, sometimes they wouldn't. If they got there they just hung out. There was no followup. We put an end to that. Now, not nearly as many kids get kicked out of class, and if they do they come to our in-school suspension room and teachers are required to follow-up and to contact the parents."

Now, instead of just "hanging out," said Assistant Principal Michael Kell, during inschool suspensions, a student is given a list of seven questions to think about along the lines of those asked in a restorative conference, i.e., What happened? Who do you think has been affected by your actions? What can you do to repair the harm? Kell discusses the questions with the student, sometimes bringing in the teacher involved, as well. He asks both to talk about how they feel and helps them mend their relationship.

Kell is an enthusiastic proponent of restorative practices. "Usually the assistant principal-the chief disciplinarian-sets the tone for the building, and in that tone we've tried to create a restorative culture here," he said. He also works with teachers to help them be more restorative and trust the practices instead of simply blaming kids for problems. "One teacher thought we were lowering his authority in the classroom by using circles," said Kell. "I told him, 'I felt bad that you felt that I wasn't supporting you. You have the ability as a teacher to say how you're going to change things. Think of it as an investment. You're going to get dividends in the future."

Kell facilitates formal restorative conferences when serious problems arise. One conference brought a school custodian together with students who had been disrespectful to him. The custodian told the kids how they had hurt him and that he felt great pride in his work. The kids apologized to him and had new respect for him after the conference. Guidance counselor Kevin McGeehan also facilitates restorative conferences. He ran a conference after members of an athletic team scratched their names into some new lockers during a school renovation. Chuck Inman, facilities director, who participated in the conference, was very impressed with the process, saying, "The kids got to realize that their actions had affected more people than they thought"-their teammates, the construction workers and the taxpayers. The incident represented \$900 worth of damage-a tiny fraction of the \$27,000,000 school renovation, but "it was the principle that was important," said Inman. As a consequence of their actions, the kids had to pay to replace the locker doors.

McGeehan also uses a restorative approach in everyday interaction with kids. "When I see a kid acting up in the hallway, instead of immediately dragging him into the discipline office, I'll pull him over, one-on-one, and try to find out exactly what's happening and to understand where he's coming from," he said. "A lot of times it's not the specific incident that's caused the conflict, but rather something that's happened earlier in the day or at home or in a previous class. Allowing that venting process alone tends to diffuse it, along with the feeling that an adult is listen-





Restorative Practices EFORUM



Palisades Middle School Dean of Students Dennis Gluck leads a circle.

ing and understanding." Said Roy, "When you get to the point where it's informal but constant, that's where you want to be."

Roy encourages teachers to use the checkin and check-out model with both classroom management and academic issues to "create the culture that says, 'We talk about stuff as a group and we help each other out.'" Eighthgrade teacher Michele Mazurek uses checkins on Mondays and check-outs on Fridays "to get a sense of community within the classroom." Just doing it twice a week has cut down on the number of incidents of teasing because students have heard each other relate some of their goals and aspirations, she said. A 12th-grade girl said that check-ins were "a way for people to open up and share what's important to them, then somebody else might relate to it. So people can relate to each other in ways they might not have."

Social studies teacher Dave Gerber was skeptical about the restorative practices training at first but is now an enthusiastic proponent of the approach. "My students know that I treat them with genuine respect and I think that's where restorative practices begins and what really helps it take shape in the classroom," he said. A senior girl agreed, saying, "The teachers respect us and we respect them back. They talk with us instead of at us." Gerber said that it's possible to use restorative practices regardless of class level or content. In response to teachers who say they don't have time to implement the approach, he said, "You don't have to spend 40 minutes doing a circle. You can spend five minutes and it is effective. You'll be able to go back next class and make up for that five minutes of content you didn't get in. If you have people arguing in the classroom all the time, what kind of learning is taking place?"

Students at Springfield Township High School seem to appreciate their school's climate. A 12th-grade girl said, "Everybody accepts everybody for who they are. Our teachers are awesome. I try and do my best just so I can be like: I'm from Springfield, this is what they've taught me; this is what I'm doing; I'm going places in life. I have that feeling. I think the majority of our school does, too."

Administrators and teachers at the three pilot schools believe that more needs to be done to continue to implement restorative practices in their buildings, but all feel that they have a solid foundation on which to build. Palisades High School teacher Heather Horn talked about the difficulties at the beginning of school year 2002-2003, due to contractual problems and a threatened teachers' strike (which never materialized) as well as a building torn apart by construction. Despite the turmoil, said Horn, there was a willingness to work toward repairing the climate among the entire staff, adding, "The effects of restorative behavior were clearer last fall than ever before."

Staff members at Palisades High School, Palisades Middle School and Springfield Township High School know that their education in restorative practices will be ongoing. To cite one example, Joseph Roy said that Bob Costello, IIRP director of training, scheduled to help Springfield implement a restorative practices-based program for the eighth grade. Time will be set aside for kids and teachers to break into small groups that will focus on goal-setting, community-building and academic issues. As Palisades High School Principal David Piperato said, "Learning to be restorative is a lifelong process." (1) Additional SaferSanerSchools pilot programs are in operation in the Netherlands, Australia and Michigan, U.S.A.

- Roel van Pagée and Joke Henskens-Reijman are school administrators who have pioneered the use of restorative practices in two ethnically diverse schools in the Hague, the Netherlands.
- Terry O'Connell, director of Real Justice Australia, an IIRP program, and colleague Matt Casey have introduced restorative practices in 20 schools throughout Australia.
- Bill Sower, Michigan regional coordinator for the IIRP, is conducting a controlled research study through the SaferSanerSchools program at a middle school in South Lyon, Michigan, U.S.A. The school has been split into two new schools one implementing restorative practices and one relying on traditional methods.

All of the people mentioned above will be presenters at the IIRP's Fourth International Conference, August 2003, in Veldhoven, Netherlands.

For information about this conference, go to: www.restorativepractices.org

For more information about the SaferSanerSchools program and available training, go to: www.safersanerschools.org

Schools Implementing Mason's Relational Ideas

Below is a list of schools that currently implement Mason's relational ideas. The degrees to which they use Mason's ideas vary. Excluding the one public school in this list, all the schools are private schools. Classical School is the charter school in Colorado Springs that integrates Mason's ideas with their classical approach. Since Dogwood is a public school, it is a non-religious, non-sectarian school with a mission differing from those of the following private schools:

- 1. Gillingham Charter School, Pottsville, PA; https/gillinghamcharterschool.org/
- 2. The Classical Academy (charter school), Colorado Springs, CO; www.tcatitans.org
- 3. Red Mountain Community School, Birmingham, AL; www.redmountaincommunityschool.com
- 4. Heritage School, Cambridge, England, UK; www.heritageschool.org.uk
- 5. City School, Austin, TX; www.cityschooltexas.com
- 6. South City Community School, St. Louis, MO; www.sccommunityschool.org
- 7. Eton End PNEU School, UK; http://www.etonend.org
- 8. Arley House School, UK; https://www.arleyprimaryschool.co.uk/
- 9. Ambleside School of Fredericksburg, Fredericksburg, TX; http://amblesidefredericksburg.com
- 10. Ambleside School of San Angelo, San Angelo, TX; http://www.amblesidesanangelo.net/
- 11. Ambleside School of Hout Bay, Hout Bay, South Africa; www.amblesideschool.co.za
- 12. Ambleside School, Herndon, VA; http://ambleside.org
- 13. Ambleside School of Ocala, Ocala, FL; www.amblesideocala.com
- 14. River Tree School, Brooklyn Park, Minnesota; www.rivertreeschool.org
- 15. Crossroads Christian School, Tyrone, GA; www.crossroadschool.org
- 16. Arborbrook Christian Academy, Matthews, NC; www.arborbrook.org
- 17. East Cobb Christian School, Marietta, GA; www.eccs.org
- 18. Intown Community School, Atlanta, GA; www.intownschool.org
- 19. Parkview Christian School, Lilburn, GA; www.parkviewchristian.com
- 20. Perimeter Christian School, Duluth, GA; www.perimeterschool.org
- 21. Redeemer School, Winston Salem, NC; www.redeemerschool.org
- 22. Clapham School, Wheaton, IL; www.claphamschool.com
- 23. Wilberforce School, Princeton, NJ; www.wilberforceschool.org
- 24. West Dallas Community School, Dallas, TX; https://www.wdcschool.org/
- 25. Covenant Christian School, Dallas, TX; www.covenantdallas.com
- 26. Regents School of Austin, Austin, TX; www.regents-austin.com
- 27. Providence Christian School of Texas, Dallas, TX; http://pcstx.org
- 28. The Village School of Gaffney, Gaffney, SC; www.thevillageschoolofgaffney.org
- 29. Signal Mountain Christian School, Signal Mountain, TN; http://www.smcstn.org/

Historic Relational Schools of the UK compiled by John Thorley jt275@etherway.net

The Parents National Education Union (PNEU) was an organization founded by Charlotte Mason. They provided a curricular program for public and private schools, governesses and home schools. Often these schools were lead and taught by graduates of Mason's teacher training college. The PNEU also published a journal for years.

- The following list contains in total about 430 schools in the UK and abroad.
- Under the influence of Mr Household, Director of Education for Gloucestershire and also Chairman of the PNEU Council, many (perhaps most) Gloucestershire [public] primary schools also used the PNEU curriculum in the 1920s and 1930s. These are not listed here.
- No list of PNEU schools abroad survives for the period after 1964. In 1988 there were 16 affiliated schools abroad (WES/PNEU Journal vol.23, no.3, October 1988, p.29), though the names of the schools are not listed.
- In each entry the first line is the name and address of the school. In some cases the 'school' is apparently a small group of children in a private house. Where this seems to be the case, the proprietor's name is listed alphabetically rather than the name of the house/school.
- The dates marks when the school joined the PNEU and when a school became a Parents Union School (PUS).

7 Royal Terrace West, DUN LAOGHAIRE, Co. Dublin, Eire (1964) 9 Alexandra Place, ARBROATH, Angus, Scotland (1964) Abbotsholme, Near ROCESTER, Derbyshire (1938) Abbotswood, Preston Avenue, RUSTINGTON, Sussex (P, 1938) May 1924 III.161, 162, 163 Adams, Miss, The Haven, LACOCK, Wilts. (P) May 1933 I.140 Aldbourne PNEU School, Gloucester Road, TANKERTON, WHITSTABLE, Kent (P, 1938) October 1934 111.83.84 Alexandra House School, HEMEL HEMPSTEAD, Herts. (P) January 1928 1.34 All Saints Hall, Downshire Square, READING, Berks. (1938) All Saints School, CROXLEY GREEN, Herts. (P) December 1930 1.28, 111.64 Allen, Mrs, 93 Brighton Road, PURLEY, Surrey (P) March 1927 1.96, 97, 98, 99, 100 Alleyn Court School, Wickham Avenue, BEXHILL-ON-SEA, Sussex (P) September 1931 I.136, II.15, 35 Ambleside, 28-30 Winn Road, SOUTHAMPTON, Hants. (P, 1938) September 1923 1.23 Ambleside, New Church Road, HOVE, Sussex (P, 1938) September 1930 1.115Ambleside PNEU School, Creffield Road Hall, WEST ACTON, LONDON W3 (P, 1938) July 1926 1.66, 11.46 Ambleside PNEU School, SANDOWN, Isle of Wight (P, 1938) September 1927 III.68 Ambleside School, 1 West Drive, CHEAM, Surrey (P, 1938, 1964 at 108 Cornwall Road, but in 1978 back at West Drive) September 1924 III.140 Ambleside School, ALVERSTOKE, Hants. (P, 1938) May 1920

III.58

Applegarth, STOCKSFIELD, Northumberland (P) April 1936 11.97 Ardmore School, 6 Court Road, TUNBRIDGE WELLS, Kent (P, 1938) January 1933 1.49, 111.78 Ardmore, ST AUSTEL, Cornwall (P) September 1937 IV.8 Arkell, Miss, 14 Court House Road, FINCHLEY, LONDON N.12 (P) ? III.93 Arley, EAST LEAKE, LOUGHBOROUGH, Leicestershire (1964) Arncliff House, London Road, BOXMOOR, Herts. (P) September 1926 1.35, III.67 Arnold Lodge School, Kenilworth Raod, LEAMINGTON SPA, Warwicks. (P) January 1937 II.144, III.181 Ash C of E School, ASH, Kent (P) April 1923 1.56 Ashbourne PNEU School, Dove House, ASHBOURNE, Derbyshire (1964 and 1978) Ashleigh House School, Windsor Avenue, BELFAST, N. IRELAND (PNEU Journal, 1973, introductory pages) Baycliffe PNEU School, LYMM, Cheshire (1964) Beachborough Park, FOLKESTONE, Kent (P) September 1929 1.38, 39 Bearsden Private School, BEARSDEN, Dumbartonshire, Scotland (P) September 1929 II.102 Bedford House, 9 Vernon Avenue, HUDDERSFIELD, Yorks. (1938) Beehive Preparatory School, 233 Beehive Lane, Redbridge, ILFORD, Essex (1964) Belgrave School, BRAY, Co. Wicklow, Eire (P) January 1928 II.38 Bengeo PNEU School, 4 Bengeo Street, HERTFORD, Herts. (P) September 1936 II.70 Bennett, The Misses, 4 Gainsborough Road, IPSWICH, Suffolk (P) January 1927 11.44 Benson (Miss), The Mount, CHURCH STRETTON, Shropshire (P) September 1923 I.85, II.147

Bettshanger School, EASTRY, Kent (P) September 1936 II.52, III.75

Beulah PNEU Class, Beulah, POOLEY BRIDGE, Cumberland (1964)

Bicknell, Miss, 1 Westfield Grove, GOSFORTH, NEWCASTLE-UPON-TYNE (1938)

Birtwistle (Miss), 131 Sloane Street, LONDON SW1 (P, 1938) October 1908 1.59, 60, II.85, III.94, 95, 96

Bisterne Church of England School, RINGWOOD, Hants. (P) July 1933 III.47

Blanchard, G.A., Haining Croft, HEXHAM, Northumberland (P) January 1929 1.72

Blynkbonnie School, Brooklands, RINGWOOD, Hants. (1964)

Braeside PNEU School, 130 High Road, BUCKHURST HILL, Essex (1964)

Breaches, WESTERHAM, Kent (P) 1938 III.85

Breckels, Miss, 43 Herbert Road, Emerson Park, HORNCHURCH, Essex (P) March 1927 II.72

Bridge, Miss A., c/o Mrs Smalley, Stockcroft, Malthouse Lane, KENILWORTH, Warwickshire (P) April 1933 III.179

Brignall Grange, BARNARD CASTLE, Durham (1964)

Brownlie, Misses, 7 Hillhead Street, GLASGOW W.2, Scotland (P, 1938) October 1927 1.79, II.99

Brushend, BURLEY, Hants. (P, 1938) April 1932 I.26, II.138, III.59

Burgess Hill School, Keymer Road, BURGESS HILL, Sussex (P, 1938, 1964 and 1978) February 1906 I.122, 123, II.42

Callis Court, ST PETER'S IN THANET, Kent (P) September 1932 1.50, 51, 52

Campion House, West Hill, SYDENHAM, LONDON SE26 (P) September 1932 II.62, III.97

Canford School, WIMBOURNE, Dorset (P) January 1934 III.23

Carswell, Northwhyte Road, FELPHAM, BOGNOR REGIS, Sussex (P, 1938) January 1935 III.160

Charlotte Mason College Practising School, AMBLESIDE: see House of Education

Chaseborough School, Station Road, VERWOOD, Wimbourne, Dorset (P, 1938) September 1935

II.137

January 1934

Chavender School, Christchurch Street, RINGWOOD, Hants. (P, 1938) May 1933 (January 1936) I.22, II.139, III.50 Chiddingstone Castle, EDENBRIDGE, Kent (P, 1938) September 1932 II.45, III.80, 81 Chilgrove Manor, CHICHESTER, Sussex (P) January 1912 III.154 Chilmark House, Chilmark, SALISBURY, Wilts. (1964) Church Manor Way Senior Girls' School, PLUMSTEAD, LONDON SE2 (P) July 1934 II.29 Church of England School, Weston-sub-Edge, BROADWAY, Worcs. (P) January 1933 I.144 Church of England Village School, WESTONBIRT, Glos. (P) ? 111.43 City Council Girls' School, CANTERBURY, Kent (P) August 1937 II.131, III.87, 88, 89, 90 Clark, Mrs Roger, Whitenights, STREET, Somerset (P) January 1927 1.87 Clive Hall, PENCISELY, Llandaff, CARDIFF, Wales (P) January 1935 (or October 1938) II.80, III.178 Coles, Miss, South Lawn, Frith Hill Road, GODALMING, Surrey (P) August 1933 II.126 Colls Road Senior Girls' School, PECKHAM, LONDON SE 15 (P) July 1934 II.18 Connaught Road Girls' Senior School, LEYTONSTONE, LONDON E11 (P) July 1932 I.62, III.102 Cranford House, MOULSFORD, Berks. (1938, 1964 and 1978) Cranley Court School, GERRARDS CROSS, Bucks. (P, 1938) March 1936 11.43, 111.6 Crayden, Miss, Northstoke, Clarence Road S., WESTON-SUPER-MARE, Somerset (P) September 1931 1.88 Croft Hall School, WESTERHAM, Kent (1964) Crofton House, St Cuthbert' Street, BEDFORD (P, 1938)

Crook (Miss): see Ward (Miss)

Crossways, Alexandra Road, FARNBOROUGH, Hants. (P, 1938) April 1923 III.61, 62

Cruppi, Madame, 25 Bis Rue de la Paroisse, FONTAINEBLAEU, France (P) ?

II.123

Dand, Mrs and Toller, Mrs, St Anne's, WOODBRIDGE, Suffolk (P) January 1931 1.94

Desmoor School Ltd., Ewhurst, CRANLEIGH, Surrey (1964)

Dormer House, MORETON-IN-MARSH, Gloucestershire (1964 and 1978)

Downleaze School, PETERSFIELD, Hants. (P) November 1938 III.60

Downshire Preparatory School, All Saints Hall, Downshire Square, READING, Berks. (in 1939 at Westcote Road, READING) (P) January 1933 I.2, III.2, 3

Drewsteighton School, BEARSDEN, Dumbartonshire, Scotland (1938)

Dunarden, BRIDGE OF WEIR, Scotland (P, 1938) September 1929 II.98

Dunnow Hall, NEWTON-IN-BOWLAND, Yorks. (P)

II.107

Dyer, Miss, St John's House, BANBURY, Oxon. (P) May 1930 II.149

Eastland, Miss, Silvington, DEDHAM, Essex (P) September 1935 III.32

Ebbutt, Mrs, Redriff, Herne Bay Road, WHITSTABLE, Kent (P) October 1934 II.134

Edmonds (Miss), 71 Meadway, LONDON NW11 (P) September 1933 I.61

Elmwood, HARROGATE, Yorks. (P) January 1937 II.94

Endsleigh House School, COLCHESTER, Essex (1938)

Eton End PNEU School, 35 Eton Road, DATCHET, Bucks. (1964 and 1978)

Evans, Mr A. Howard, BETTSHANGER, Eastry, Kent (P) September 1936 II.133

Eversley, Bath Road, HALIFAX, Yorks. (P, 1938) 1930 Fairfield PNEU School, Linemere, Farleigh Road, BACKWELL, Somerset (1964 and 1978)

Falkner House PNEU School, 19 Brechin Place, LONDON SW7 (1964 and 1978)

Falkner House Pre-Preparatory School, 19 Pembridge Villas, LONDON W11 (1964 and 1978)

Faunce, Miss, and Lambert, Miss, 3 Queen's Gardens, LONDON W2 (1938)

Fauvel (Miss), The Berrystead, OUNDLE, Peterborough, Northants. (P) January 1934 I.69

Finches, Orsett, GRAYS, Essex (1938)

Fisher, Mrs, 58 Belgrave Road, EDINBURGH, Scotland (P, 1938) September 1936 II.105

Flexford House, HIGHCLERE, NEWBURY, Berks. (1964 and 1978)

Flexlands PNEU School, Station Road, CHOBHAM, Surrey (1964 and 1978)

Fourways, IWERNE COURTNEY, Dorset (P) September 1938 III.24

Foxley PNEU School, Manor Drive, Shurlock Row, READING, Berks. (1964 and 1978)

Franciscan Road Girls' School, LONDON SW 17 (P) January 1919 II.28, III.108

Furzedown School, 3 Granville Road, LITTLEHAMPTON, Sussex (P) May 1927 I.121

Garden House School, 53 Sloane Gardens, LONDON SW1 (1978)

Gibbs' School, 134 Sloane Square, LONDON SW1 (P) March 1904 II.87, III.98, 99, 100

Girls' Council School, Cobden Place, SEVENOAKS, Kent (P) March 1932 1.48

Glencar School, CLONAKILTY, Co. Cork, Eire (P, 1938) January 1933 II.40

Glencross, Miss, Carswell, Northwyke Road, FELPHAM, Bognor Regis, Sussex (P) January 1935 II.77

Glencruitten, OBAN, Scotland (P) October 1935 IV.63

Glenlea, Carr's Crescent, FORMBY, Lancs. (P, 1938) January 1920 II.41

Glenshee House School, 149 Half Moon Lane, HERNE HILL, LONDON SE24 (P, 1938) December 1924 II.74, III.101

Glyn House School, North Foreland, BROADSTAIRS, Kent (P, 1938) April 1936 II.54, 136 Gramercy School, Southdown Hill, BRIXHAM, Devon (P, 1938, 1964 and 1978) September 1935 II.90, III.19 Gt. Whelnetham V. School, BURY ST EDMUNDS, Suffolk (P) March 1922 1.93 Greenfield School, Constitution Hill, WOKING, Surrey (P) January 1935 II.60, III.152 Greengates, HENLEY-IN-ARDEN, Warwickshire (1938) Greenways School, Pen-y-Groes Road, Rhiwbina, CARDIFF, Wales (P) November 1937 III.176 Gweedore Garden School, BRENTWOOD, Essex (P, 1938) 1920 I.13, 14, II.78 Haddon Dene School, BROADSTAIRS, Kent (P) January 1931 1.54, 55 Haining Croft, HEXHAM, Northumberland (P) January 1929 11.96 Harrowby School, Swakeleys Road, ICKENHAM, Middlesex (P) May 1936 II.128, III.113 Hatherop Castle School, Nr CIRENCESTER, Glos. (1978) Haylett Grange School, Merlin's Bridge, HAVERFORDWEST, Pembrokeshire, Wales (1964 and 1978) Haylock House, School, Park Road, IPSWICH, Suffolk (P, 1938) January 1927 II.111 Highfield, Castle Hill (listed as 2 West Road in 1978), MAIDENHEAD, Berks. (1938, 1964 and 1978) Highfield Sunday School, New North Road, HUDDERSFIELD, Yorks. (P) September 1931 I.146

Highlands, PEPPARD COMMON, Oxfordshire (1938)

Hill Croft School, BENTHAM, Lancs. (P) September 1927 I.58

Hillcrest PNEU School, CASTLE CARY, Somerset (1964 and 1978)

Holding, Mr: see Taylor, Mr

Home Close, CRINGLEFORD, Norwich, Norfolk (P) January 1937 III.126 Home Orchard, STREET, Somerset (1938)

Homelands PNEU School, Park Road West, WOLVERHAMPTON, Staffs. (P, 1938) September 1937 III.136

Hopelands PNEU School, Regent Street, STONEHOUSE, Gloucestershire (1964 and 1978)

Hooker, Miss, Hookstead, CROWBOROUGH, Sussex (P) May 1924 I.128

Hookstead, CROWBOROUGH, Sussex (P, 1938) May 1924 III.165, 166

House of Education Practising School, AMBLESIDE, Westmorland (1938) III.184

Howes, Miss: see Merle Beck, Miss

Howitt House School, New Lodge, Hanbury, BURTON-ON-TRENT, Staffs. (1964 and 1978)

Ingleside School, The Beeches, CIRENCESTER, Glos. (P, 1938, 1964 and 1978) September 1923 III.44

Inglewood, NEWTON FERRERS, PLYMOUTH, Devon (P) January 1939 III.21

Johnstone, Miss, The Vicarage (122 High Street), ETON, Bucks. (P, 1938) May 1936 II.115, III.7

Jordan, Miss, 6 Ebrington Terrace, LONDONDERRY, N. Ireland (1938)

Jukes, Miss, 3 Linton Road, OXFORD (1938)

Keppel Barrett, Miss, Raynescott, TADWORTH, Surrey (P) September 1934 1.101

Kerrywood, 107 Westmoreland Road, BROMLEY, Kent (1964)

King Alfred's School, LEISTON, Suffolk (1938 and 1964)

Kings Cliff School, 38 Sussex Square, BRIGHTON, Sussex (P) September 1931 I.117

Kingsleigh School, Sutton Avenue, SEAFORD, Sussex (P, 1938) September 1926 I.137, III.173

Kingsley, Station Road, KENILWORTH, Warwicks. (P) April 1923 II.64

Kippington House, SEVENOAKS, Kent (P, 1938) May 1922 I.46, 47, II.6, 86

Lady Lees, South Lytchett Manor, POOLE, Dorset (P) October 1930 1.12 Lambert, Miss: see Faunce, Miss

Latrigg, Thurstaston Road, HASWALL, Cheshire (P, 1938) September 1929 III.14 Laurence, Miss, Cranford House, MOULSFORD, Berks. (P) September 1935 11.26 Laverock PNEU School, LIMPSFIELD, Surrey (from 1936 OXTED, Surrey) (P, 1938) October 1929 I.104, II.57, III.142, 143, 144 LCC Columbia Road Junior School, HACKNEY, LONDON E2 (P) ? II.116 Lea House, KIDDERMINSTER, Worcs. (P, 1938) January 1928 I.143, II.150, III.180 Lee, Miss, Crowscroft, SOMPTING, Sussex (P) January 1932 I.129 Leman House PNEU School, Ballygate, BECCLES, Suffolk (1964 and 1978) Linton House School, Richings Park, IVER, Bucks. (P) January 1938 III.8, 9, 10 Littleburn Home School, BURLEY-IN-WARFDALE, Yorks. (P, 1938) April 1930 III.191 Llwynymor PNEU School, MUMBLES, Glamorgan, Wales (P, 1938) November 1924 II.83, III.175 Lowood, Herrings Lane, BURNHAM MARKET, KING'S LYNN, Norfolk (1964) Lungley, Mrs, 6 The Drive, WEST WICKHAM, Kent (P) March 1936 II.19 Mackay, Mrs, Leybourne, Silverhill, ST LEONARDS-ON-SEA, Sussex (P) January 1936 II.129 Malden, Miss, 10 High Street, RYE, Sussex (P) May 1937 III.171 Matfield Grange Preparatory School, PADDOCK WOOD, Kent (1938) Matheson (Miss), Dunarden, BRIDGE-OF-WEIR, Scotland (P) September 1928 1.81

Mayfield, 35 Algers Road, LOUGHTON, Essex (1938)

Mereswearth, The Drive, RICKMANSWORTH, Herts. (P, 1938) January 1917 I.32, 33

Merle Beck, Miss, and Howes, Miss, 60 Boundary Road, WALLINGTON, Surrey (P)

October 1928 I.102

Merrion House School, ST LEONARDS-ON-SEA, Sussex (P) October 1930 1.126

Mickleton Council School, CAMPDEN, Gloucestershire (P) December 1930 I.20

Mill House School, at the Old Reed Barn, ASH, Kent (P) April 1921 I.43

Miss Lambert's School Educational Trust Ltd., 3 Queen's Gardens, Hyde Park, LONDON W2 (1964)

Monkton Combe Junior School, COMBE DOWN, BATH, Somerset (P) January 1937 III.132

Moorlands, Ringwood Road, VERWOOD, WIMBOURNE, Dorset (P) September 1935 III.27

Morony, Miss, 125 Upper Richmond Road, LONDON SW15 (1938)

Murrayfield, HESWALL, Cheshire (P, 1938) September 1912 III.15

New Court PNEU School, UCKFIELD, Sussex (1964 and 1978)

Norris, Miss, c/o Mrs Farr, Green Gates, HENLEY-IN-ARDEN, Warwickshire (P) January 1938 III.182

North End, Beacon Park, PICKERING, Yorks. (P) ?

III.192

Northend Farm PNEU School, Northend Farm, LEAMINGTON SPA, Warwicks. (1964)

Northstoke, Clarence Road South, WESTON-SUPER-MARE, Somerset (P, 1938) September 1931 III.131

Northumberland Lodge, Northumberland Avenue, Palm Bay, MARGATE, Kent (P) May 1934 III.71

Norvic House PNEU School, 3 Cambridge Terrace, LONDON W2 (P, 1938) (In December 1938 at 22 Talbot Square, W2) September 1927 I.67, III.109, 110

Nottingham PNEU School, EAST LEAKE, Notts. (P, 1978) April 1927 III.127

Oakfield, WEST BYFLEET, Surrey (P, 1938) September 1922 II.50

Oakhurst, Boxgrove Avenue, GUILDFORD, Surrey (P) January 1930 I.113

Oaklands School, Birtley House, BRAMLEY, Surrey (P, 1938) July 1920 II.127 Oaklea, BUCKHURST HILL, Essex (P, 1938) September 1911 1.15, 16 Oldfield, SWANAGE, Dorset (P, 1938) III.28 Orchard Cottage, Lanton, JEDBURGH, Roxburghshire, Scotland (1938) Orston C. of E. School, ORSTON, Notts. (P) May 1930 1.75 Overstone School, NORTHAMPTON, Northants. (P, 1938 and 1964) September 1929 I.70, 71, II.113 Overthorpe Hall School, Nr BANBURY, Oxfordshire (1978) Paris British School, 17 Rue de Verneuil, PARIS, France (P) January 1936 II.121 Parks, Miss, ICKENHAM, Middlesex (P) May 1936 II.20 Partlands PNEU School, 9 Partlands Avenue, RYDE, Isle of Wight (1964) Peakland PNEU School, College Road, BUXTON, Derbyshire (1938) Pebworth Council School, STRATFORD-ON-AVON, Warwickshire (P) December 1924 I.139 Pensionat St Joseph, MONTARGIS, France (P) II.122 Peterborough Lodge School, 6 Netherhall Gardens, LONDON NW3 (P, 1938) Julv 1921 III.107 Petrocelli, Mrs, The White Cottage, WHITCHURCH, Oxon. (P) III.130

?

?

?

PNEU Playroom, The Chantry, Theatre Street, NORWICH, Norfolk (P, 1938) September 1937 III.121

PNEU School, 4 Gainsborough Road, IPSWICH, Suffolk (P) January 1927 1.91, 92

PNEU School, 13 Waverley Street, NOTTINGHAM, Notts. (1964 and 1978)

PNEU School, 22 Burns Street, NOTTINGHAM, Notts. (P, 1938) April 1927 1.77

PNEU School, 44 Alumhurst Road, BOURNEMOUTH, Hants. (P, 1938) May 1919 II.142, III.54, 55

PNEU School, 51 Newbridge Crescent, WOLVERHAMPTON, Staffs. (1964 and 1978)

PNEU School, 60 Boundary Road, CARSHALTON, Surrey (P, 1938) October 1928 II.25

PNEU School, BACKWELL, Somerset (P, 1938) September 1935 III.133

PNEU School, Bere Court Road, PANGBOURNE, Berks. (1964)

PNEU School, CARNOUSTIE, Angus, Scotland (P, 1938) September 1936 II.103

PNEU School, Glebelands Road, KNUTSFORD, Cheshire (P, 1938) September 1932 III.11, 12

PNEU School, HETHERSETT, NORWICH, Norfolk (1938)

PNEU School, Lindfield, HAYWARDS HEATH, Sussex (P) September 1932 I.133, 134, 135

PNEU School, Mereswearth, RICKMANSWORTH, Herts. (P) January 1937 II.124

PNEU School, Preston Avenue, RUSTINGTON, Littlehampton, Sussex (P) May 1924 I.124, 125

PNEU School, The Square, Compton, CHICHESTER, Sussex (1978)

PNEU School, Westfield Grove, GOSPORT (GOSFORTH?), Newcastle-on-Tyne (P) October 1924 II.95

PNEU School, White Knowle Road, BUXTON, Derbyshire (P) January 1933

PNEU School, Wolsey Road, MOOR PARK, Herts. (P, 1938) October 1930 I.27, III.112

PNEU School, Yonder Lodge, CHOBHAM, Surrey (P, 1938) September 1935 II.59

Queen Margaret's School, 9 Darnaway Street, EDINBURGH, Scotland (P, 1938, 1964 at 29 India Street) 1918 1.83

Quidhampton School, Fairfields Road, BASIINGSTOKE, Hants. (P, 1938) April 1926 II.24, III.53

Ramsay, Miss, 102 Brincliffe Edge Road, SHEFFIELD, Yorks. (P, 1938) September 1930 III.193 Reed Barn, ASH, Kent (P, 1938) April 1921 II.51

Rickmansworth PNEU School, 88 The Drive, RICKMANSWORTH, Herts. (1964 and 1978)

Ridge House, Cold Ash, NEWBURY, Berks. (1938)

Rochester Lodge, Warden Bay, SHEPPEY, Kent (P) April 1937 III.70

Rookwood House School, 4 Western Road, ANDOVER, Hants. (P, 1938) September 1935 II.23

Rosslyn House School, THAMES DITTON, Surrey (P, 1938) August 1926 I.107, 108, II.3, 82, III.146, 147

Roundhay Preparatory School, St Edmund's Parochial Hall, LEEDS, Yorks. (1964)

Rustington House School, RUSTINGTON, Sussex (1964)

Rustington PNEU School, Claigmar Road, RUSTINGTON, Sussex (1964 and 1978)

Rynd, Miss, Woodhurst, CRAWLEY, Sussex (P) May 1932 I.130, 131, 132

St Agnes School, 25 Burton Crescent, Headingley, LEEDS, Yorks. (1938, 1964 and 1978)

St Alfred's School, LEISTON, Suffolk (P) April 1935 II.120

St Anne's School, Bow Cottage, SONNING, Berks. (P) January 1935 II.27, III.4

St Anne's School, London Road, CHELMSFORD. Essex (P, 1938) February 1925 II.88, III.37, 38

St Audrey's, Newcastle Road, CONGLETON, Cheshire (P, 1938) September 1935 II.108, III.13

St Catherine's School, BUDE, Cornwall (P, 1938) December 1917 I.8. III.17

St Cedd's PNEU School, Rainsford Road, CHELMSFORD, Essex (P, 1938 and 1964) (in 1938 and July 1939 in Maltese Road, CHELMSFORD) September 1933 II.67, III.35, 36

St Christopher's, BEXHILL, Sussex (P, 1938) August 1924 II.13, II.34, III.155

St Christopher's, Richmond Road, HORSHAM, Sussex (P, 1938 and 1964) September 1917 I.119, III.159

St Christopher's School, North Place, ST. IVES, Cornwall (P, 1938)

I.7, III.18 St Christopher's, ST IVES, Cornwall (P) January 1934 II.92 St Clare, SOUTHWICK, Sussex (P, 1938) October 1925 III.157, 167, 168, 169 St Columba's PNEU School, DUNBAR, East Lothian, Scotland (P) April 1927 1.82 St David's, FOWEY, Cornwall (P) May 1934 III.16 St David's PNEU School, 102 Palatine Road, DIDSBURY, MANCHESTER, Lancs. (P, 1938) April 1926 III.91, 92 St Francis PNEU School, The Green, Newton Ferrers, PLYMOUTH, Devon (1964) St George's School, TORRINGTON, Devon (1938) St Giles School, GREAT MAPLESTEAD, HALSTEAD, Essex (P) March 1918 III.41 St Hilda's PNEU School, Parkfield Avenue, AMERSHAM, Bucks. (P) May 1933 1.5, 6 St Hilda's School, BUSHEY, Herts. (P, 1938) June 1920 1.29 St Hilda's School, Dorset Road, BEXHILL, Sussex (P) September 1921 II.12 St Ives School, Three Gates Lane, HASLEMERE, Surrey (P, 1938, 1964 and 1978) May 1912 II.31, III.148 St John's, GREEN HAMMERTON, YORK (P) January 1937 III.195 St John's House, BANBURY, Oxon. (1964) St Julian's PNEU School, Quinta Nova, CARCAVELLOS, Portugal (P) October 1932 11.4 St Lucy's School, Priory Road, NEWCASTLE-UNDER-LYME, Staffs. (P, 1964 at Beaconsfield, Second Avenue, Porthill) September 1938 III.135 St Margaret's PNEU School, Eaton Grove, SWANSEA, Wales (P, 1938) April 1925 (or 1923)

St Martin's Priory School, GILLINGHAM, Dorset (P) March 1926

II.79, 81, III.177

January 1934 (not PUS in May 1939)

II.117

St Mary and St Agnes School, BABBACOMBE, Torquay, Devon (P, 1938) October 1932 11.89 St Mary's, Church Home, Clyde Road, DUBLIN, Eire (P) October 1930 11.37 St Mary's C. of E. School, SOUTH LUFFENHAM, Rutland (P) November 1928 1.78 St Mary's School, 20 Maclaren Road, BOURNEMOUTH, Hants. (P, 1938) September 1930 II.143 St Mary's School, Eastwood Boulevard, WESTCLIFF-ON-SEA, Essex (P, 1938) January 1926 III.30 St Mary's School, Maclaren Road, MOORDOWN, BOURNEMOUTH, Hants. (P) September 1930 III.56, 57 St Mary's School, WESTERHAM, Kent (P, 1938) April 1924 1.41, 11.48, 111.73 St Mary's Senior Girls' Elementary School ('Junior Mixed' in July 1938), BRIGHTON, Sussex (P) September 1919 I.116, III.153 St Michael's Lodge, UCKFIELD, Sussex (P) September 1936 II.109, III.164 St Michael's Rectory School, INGOLDISTHORPE, Norfolk (1964) St Michael's School, Plymouth Road, TAVISTOCK, Devon (P, 1938, 1964 and 1978) May 1936 II. 91, III.20 St Monica's, BURNHAM OVERY, Norfolk (P, 1938) June 1928 III.125 St Monica's School, KINGSWOOD, Surrey (P) September 1931 I.105, 106, II.125 St Nicholas, HARLOW, Essex (P, 1964) September 1938 111.34 St Peter's Parish Room, BEDFORD, Beds. (P) January 1934 1.1 St Peter's School, WESTON-SUPER-MARE, Somerset (P) January 1927 1.90, III.134 St Phillips R.C. Secondary School, MANSFIELD, Notts. (P) September 1932 1.73

St Phillips School, SCALBY, SCARBOROUGH, Yorks. (P) September 1924 III.188, 189 St Vincent's School, BASINGSTOKE, Hants. (P) May 1938 III.51, 52 St Vincent's School, Walton Hall, WELLESBOURNE, Warwicks. (1964) St Winifred's, KENLEY, Surrey (1938) Sea Gulls, Brighton Road, LANCING, Sussex (P) September 1932 I.127 Senior Girls' Council School, Hanham Road, KINGSWOOD, Gloucestershire (P) April 1918 1.19 Sharron, Ashurst Wood, EAST GRINSTEAD, Sussex (P, 1938) April 1930 III.172 Shaston PNEU School, 18 Bimport, SHAFTESBURY, Dorset (1964) Sherwood Hall School, FINCHLEY, LONDON N2 (P) May 1935 11.7 Sibton Park School, LYMINGE, Kent (1964 and 1978) Silfield School, Gayton Road, KING'S LYNN, Norfolk (1964) Smeeton, Miss, 227 Belmont Road, BOLTON, Lancs. (1938) Smith, Miss Una, Finches, Orsett, GRAYS, Essex (P) September 1937 111.40 Sopley Church of England School, CHRISTCHURCH, Hants. (P) September 1935 III.46 Southfield School, School Lane, HALESWORTH, Suffolk (1964 and 1978) Southlands School, 85 Radford Road, LEAMINGTON SPA, Warwicks. (P) September 1938 III.183 South Lawn, Frith Hill Road, GODALMING, Surrey (1938) Springfield School, Hallsford Bridge, Stondon Road, ONGAR, Essex (1964 and 1978) Springfields School, New Road, ESHER, Surrey (P) April 1928 I.103, III.141 Stafford (Miss), Hollygirt, Elm Avenue, NOTTINGHAM, Notts. (P) September 1923 I.76 Stallard, Miss, Clark Road, WOLVERHAMPTON, Staffs. (P) January 1921

II.30

Stalmine, Kent Road, FLEET, Hants. (P) September 1934 III.48, 49

Stanford House, School, Wellington Esplanade, SOUTH LOWESTOFT, Suffolk (1938)

Staunton C. of E. School, ALVERTON, Notts. (P) October 1930 I.74

Stepping Stones, St John's Hall, BOXMOOR, Herts. (P, 1938) January 1928 III.65, 66

Stratton Park, Brickendonbury, HERTFORD, Herts. (P, 1938) September 1910 II.69, III.63

Stretton House, Thorneyholme Drive, KNUTSFORD, Cheshire (1964 and 1978)

Summerfields, HAILSHAM, Sussex (P) March 1938 III.158

Sutton House, BEXLEY, Kent (P, 1938) April 1927 I.53

Tay Park Hotel (listed as Taypark PNEU School 1938), BROUGHTON FERRY, Angus, Scotland (P, 1938) September 1936 II.104

Taylor, Mr, and Holding, Mr, 134/5 Sloane Square, LONDON SW1 (1938)

Temple Fortune PNEU Junior and Senior School, 71-3 and 87 Bridge Lane, LONDON NW11 (P, 1938) September 1932 I.64, 65, II.114

The Beacon, BEXHILL-ON-SEA, Sussex (P) ? !II.130

The Bee Hive PNEU School, 120 Hadlow Road, TONBRIDGE, Kent (P) May 1938 III.77

The Brocas, Church Hill, CAMBERLEY, Surrey (P, 1938) January 1922 II.9, 84

The Caldecott Community, The Mote, MAIDSTONE, Kent (P) October 1934 II.11, 61, III.72

The Clock House, CHARING, Kent (P, 1938) May 1935 II.56, III.82

The Collingwood School, Ashbrooke, Roman Road, MIDDLESBROUGH, Yorks. (1938)

The Council School, BISHOPS'S CLEEVE, CHELTENHAM, Glos. (P) July 1924 III.42

The Council School, Childswickham, BROADWAY, Worcs. (P) April 1928

I.142

The Craig Preparatory School, WINDERMERE, Westmorland (1938)

The Den, BOGNOR REGIS, Sussex (P, 1938) January 1927 II.76

The Dene, CATERHAM, Surrey (P, 1938) May 1930 I.110, III.149

The Dolphin School, Raddenstile Lane, EXMOUTH, Devon (1964 and 1978)

The Garden School, Barrow Way, Riverhead, SEVENOAKS, Kent (P) January 1935 II.110

The Gateway PNEU School, The Lons, BITTON, BRISTOL, Somerset (1964)

The Girdler's Collegiate School Ltd., HERNE BAY, Kent (P) January 1923 I.42

The Grove House, BRIDPORT, Dorset (P, 1938) February 1909 III.25, 26

The Guest House School, Northumberland Avenue, Palm Bay, MARGATE, Kent (P) May 1934 I.37, II.53

The Hall, MONKSTOWN, Co. Dublin, Eire (P) September 1933 II.39

The Hall School, 69 Belsize Park, LONDON NW3 (1938)

The Haven PNEU School, LACOCK, Wilts. (P, 1938 at HARDENHUISH, Nr Chippenham, Wilts.) May 1933 II.118

The High Peak PNEU School, 1 Rockwood, The Park, BUXTON, Derbyshire (1964)

The High School for Boys, St Giles' Gate, NORWICH, Norfolk (P) September 1937 III.122, 123, 124

The Laurels, CLAYGATE, Surrey (P) January 1927 I.112

The Lodge, DEDHAM, Essex (P) January 1937 IV.21

The Manor House, KNEBWORTH, Herts. (P) January 1936 II.71

The Manor House School, MILFORD, Co. Armagh, N. Ireland (P, 1938) January 1936 II.36

The Manor Lane School, Bridge Street, KINETON, Warwicks. (1964)

The Manor School Educational Trust (called The Manor House School 1978), Great Durford, SALISBURY, Wilts. (1964 and 1978)

The Mount, CHURCH STRETTON, Shropshire (1938 and 1964)

The Old Hall PNEU School, HETHERSETT, NORWICH, Norfolk (P, 1964) May 1925 III.117, 118, 119, 120

The Old Vicarage, 11 Church Lane, Darley Abbey, DERBY (1938, 1964 and 1978)

The Pippins (see Lee, Miss)

The Red House, ETON, Bucks. (P) May 1936 II.66

The Reed Barn, ASH, SANDWICH, Kent (P) April 1921 III.74

The Rowans School, WIMBLEDON, LONDON SW20 (P) December 1938 III.103, 104

The Schoolhouse, DRUMMORE, Wigtonshire, Scotland (P) September 1936 II.100

The Schoolhouse, SANDHEAD, Stranraer, Scotland (P) January 1936 II.101

The Sneep PNEU School, West Quarter, HEXHAM, Northumberland (1964)

The Valley School, HATHERSAGE, SHEFFIELD, Yorks. (P) September 1938 III.187

Thurgarten PNEU School, Long Meadow, THURGARTEN, Notts. (1964)

Timberlake, Mrs, 31 Hillmorton Road, RUGBY, Warwicks. (P) January 1936 II.65

Tipperary, Staircoat Green Road, HALIFAX, Yorks. (P) April 1930 1.145

Titheradge, Mrs Jex, Orchard Cottage, Lanton, JEDBURGH, Scotland (P) October 1929 I.84

Toller, Mrs: see Dand, Mrs

Trafalgar House, LYMINGTON, Hants. (P, 1938) September 1927 I.25, II.141

Truman, Mr and Mrs, Trezion, ST IVES, Cornwall (P) September 1935 II.93

Uphill School for Girls, Totterdown Hall, WESTON-SUPER-MARE, Somerset (P) October 1928 1.89

Vermount, Hastings Road, PEMBURY, Tunbridge Wells, Kent (P) September 1935 II.73 Vine House School, Park View Road, SOUTHALL, Middlesex (P, 1938) May 1936 III.111 Virginia House Settlement, Palace Street, PLYMOUTH, Devon (P) January 1939 IV.12 Wansfell PNEU School, 76 Clarence Road, ST ALBANS, Herts. (1938) Ward (Miss) and Crook (Miss), 1 Quarry Place, SHREWSBURY, Shropshire (P) February 1909 1.86 Wavertree, HORLEY, Surrey (P, 1938) January 1921 I.111, II.16, III.150 Wentworth School, St Margaret's, TWICKENHAM, Middlesex (In May 1939 at 42 Heathcote Road, ST MARGARET'S-ON-THAMES, Middlesex) (P) January 1938 III.114, 115 West Dene School, 167 Brighton Road, PURLEY, Surrey (P, 1938 and 1964) March 1927 II.49, III.137, 138, 139 West Hill House School, MALMESBURY, Wilts. (P, 1938) April 1929 II.119, III.185 West Watch Studio, Traders' Passage, RYE, Sussex (P, 1938) May 1937 II.132 Westfield, TRING, Herts. (P, 1938) September 1932 1.30, 31 Westleigh PNEU School, 78 Whitbarrow Road, LYMM, Cheshire (1964 and 1978) White Hill House, Headley, BORDON, Hants. (P) September 1933 (?) 1.24 Winton School, BEN RHYDDING, ILKLEY, Yorks. (P, 1938) September 1928 I.147, III.190 Woodbine Cottage, Rudgwick, HORSHAM, Sussex (1964) Woodridings School, HATCH END, Middlesex (P) July 1926 II.10 Wootton Court, WOOTTON, Kent (P) May 1933 1.57 Worcester House, SIDCUP, Kent (P, 1938) May 1927

III.69

Wynyard Park, STOCKTON-ON-TEES, Durham (P) January 1935 IV.19

Totals by Region

Bedfordshire		2
Porkshiro	10	2
Buckinghamshire	6	
Combridgoshiro	0	
Chashira	7	
Corpuell	7	
Curriwali	/	1
Cumperiand		
Derbysnire		6
Devon		8
Dorset	2	10
Durham	2	
Essex		17
Gloucestershire	8	
Hampshire		18
Isle of Wight		2
Herefordshire		0
Huntingdonshire	0	
Kent		36
Lancashire		4
Leicestershire		1
Lincolnshire		0
London	25	
Middlesex		5
Norfolk	9	
Northamptonshire	2	
Northumberland	6	
Nottinghamshire	8	
Oxfordshire		6
Rutland	2	
Shropshire		3
Somerset	11	0
Staffordshire		5
Suffolk	10	5
Surrey	10	25
Succey		25
Marwickshiro		11
Westmorland		2
Wiltebirg	F	2
whitshire	2	
Worcestersnire	3	
Yorkshire	16	
Eire		5
N. Ireland	3	
Scotland	17	
Wales		5
France		3
Portugal	1	2
	÷	
Total		362

OVERSEAS

A list of PNEU schools overseas is given in the 1938 and 1964 lists (though some also occur above). Overseas schools are not included in the 1978 list. Only one school (Selwyn House at Christchurch, New Zealand) is common to both lists.

1938:

	The Wilderness School, 41 Northcote Terrace, MEDINDIE, S. Australia
Brazil: Canada: Malaysia: Japan: Kenya: Malta: New Zealand:	Nictheroy British School, 41 Miguel de Frias, Nictheroy, RIO DE JANEIRO, Brazil Waycroft PNEU School, St Leonard's Avenue, Lawrence Park, TORONTO, Canada Miss M. Blair, 687 Circular Road, KUALA LUMPUR, Malaysia The Yokohama International School, 234 Yamate Cho, YOKOHAMA, Japan The Lake PNEU School, NAIVASHA, Kenya Miss D. Larchin, Great Britian Hotel, 67 Strada Mezzodi, VALLETTA, Malta St George's School, WANGANUI, New Zealand Selwyn House, 105 Papanui Road, CHRISTCHURCH, New Zealand Total 10
1964:	
Africa:	Cameroons Development Corporation, Bota, VICTORIA, West Cameroon Cameroons Development Corporation, Tiko, VICTORIA, West Cameroon Mrs S.G. Gordon, British Embassy, LEOPOLDVILLE, Congo The British School, ASMARA, Eretria/Ethiopia Konongo Gold Mines Ltd., KONONGO, Ashanti-Akim, Ghana Miss O.M. Snell, THOMPSON FALLS, Kenya Miss I.M. Fisk, 5 Rue Dante, TANGIER, Morocco Cerne Cottage Nursery School, Avondale SALISBURY, S. Rhodesia
Americas:	The January School, 120 Spadina Road, TORONTO 4, Ontario, Canada
	Antofagasta British School, Casillas SYT, ANTOFAGASTA, Chile
	The PNEU School, Apartardo Aereo 11284, BOGOTA 2, Colombia
	Belencito English School, Apartado Aereo 4260, BOGOTA, Colombia
	The British School, Nicaragua Sugar Estates Ltd., INGENIO SAN ANTONIO, Nicaragua
	George Moody Stuart School, Golden Rock, Basseterre, ST KITTS
	Sevilla School, Brechin Castle, Couva, TRINIDAD
	St Ursula's Infant School, Road Town, Tortola, BRITISH VIRGIN ISLANDS
Australasia:	Selwyn House, 105 Papanui Road, CHRISTCHURCH, New Zealand
Europe:	The English School Vienna, Grinzingerstrasse 95, VIENNA, Austria
	British Embassy School, BONN, Germany
	Mondello School, Piazza Caboto 4, Moldello-Valdesi, PALERMO, Sicily
	Numont PNEU School, Jarama 5, Colonia del Viso, MADRID, Spain
	St George's English School, Nena Casas 81, Tres Torres, BARCELONA, Spain
	Geneva English School, 5 Rue du Prince, GENEVA, Switzerland
Middle East:	St Christopher's Church of England School, BAHRAIN
	Barjisiyah School, Basrah Petroleum Co. Ltd., BASRAH, Iraq
Far East:	The Parents' School, FORT COCHIN, Kerala, India
	Harrington House School, 4a Nungambakkam High Road, MADRAS, India
	Mrs E. Sannoo, Food Specialities Ltd., MOGA, E. Punjab, India
	Mailsiphon School, MAILSI SIPHON, District Multan, West Pakistan

BAHRAIN	St Christopher's Middle School (22.3, October 1987, 23; also in 1964 list)
<u>BRUNEI</u>	Shell Panaga School (21.3, October 1986, 10) Calvert School (20.2, June 1985, 42)
<u>CYPRUS</u>	Anglo-American International School (22.3, October 1987, 23)
DUBAI	Dubai College (22.3, October 1987, 23) Jebel Ali High School (18.1, February 1983, 14)
<u>EGYPT</u>	Alexandria British Primary School (22.2, June 1987, 23ff.)
INDIA	WES Korba School, Delhi (21.3, October 1986, 16ff.)
INDONESIA	Mrica School, Java British International School, Jakarta (both in 23.2, June 1988, 3ff.)
IRAQ	Saddam Dam School, near Mosul (22.2, June 1987, 26) Kier International, Baghdad (18.2, June 1983, 7)
KOREA	Hyundai Foreign School, Ulsan International School of Pusan Daewoo Foreign School, Okpo Davy McKee Kwangyang Primary School (all in 21.3, October 1986, 24ff.) Seoul British School (19.1, February 1984, 26ff.)
MALAYSIA	Alice Smith School, Kuala Lumpur Seraya School, East Malaysia (in WES/PNEU Journal, 23.2, June 1988, 3ff.)
NEW ZEALAND	Selwyn House PNEU School, Christchurch (14, 1979, 111-4; also in 1938 and 1964 lists)
NIGERIA	Grange School, Ikeja (22.3, October 1987, 21; 21.2, June 1986, 34ff) St Saviour's School, Ikoyi (21.2, June 1986, 34ff.) Torno WES School ((20.3, October 1985, 23) WES Leyland School, Bodija (20.2, June 1985, 22ff Balfour Beatty WES School, Belanga Dam (20.2, June 1985, 32) Shiroro International WES School (18.1, February 1983, 18ff.) Borini-Prono Association, Kaduna (18.1, February 1983, 18) Tilbury Bodija WES Association (18.1, February 1983, 18) IITA School, Ibadan (18.1, February 1983, 18)
<u>Papua new Guine</u>	A Ramu Sugar School (21.2, June 1986, 25ff.)
SINGAPORE	Dover Court Preparatory School Tanglin School International School (all in WES/PNEU Journal, 23.2, June 1988, 3ff.)
<u>SPAIN</u>	Numont PNEU School, Jarama 5, Colonia del Viso, Madrid (1973, introductory pages; also in 1964 list)
TANZANIA	Balfour Beatty WES School, Njombe (19.1, February 1984, 7ff.)
THAILAND	Bangkok Patana School (WES/PNEU Journal, 23.2, June 1988, 3ff.) Total 35

Narratives

A Parent's Narrative on a Relational Education

My son, Alex, was educated in Charlotte Mason schools first through 10th grades.

He spent his pre-k and kindergarten years in public school. He became increasingly bored and turned off by school and learning. He was diagnosed with ADHD and put on medication.

In first grade, we put him in a Charlotte Mason school, Parkview Christian, in Tucker, GA. I like to say it cured his ADHD. He was able to stop the medication. The change in school made all the difference for him in his attitude toward learning and his ability to pay attention and succeed in school. Of all the things we tried to help him be more focused and less hyper (traditional medications, dietary supplements, alternative medicine, chiropractic, allergy treatments, special diets), changing schools was the only thing that produced clear and definite results.

After three years at Parkview, he transferred to another Charlotte Mason School, Ambleside, in Fredericksburg, TX, where he stayed through 10th grade.

The stimulating, challenging curriculum at both schools was an important part of the difference for him. The small classes and the atmosphere in the classroom were helpful, too, I believe. He was always interested in school. They studied real natural objects and the great classics in art, literature and music, and he developed interests in a wide variety of subjects, without being motivated by grades or rewards. Every year from 3rd through 10th grade, he acted in a play (Shakespeare, Moliere). We were very pleased with the philosophy of the schools and the effects on Alex's learning and achievement.

Over the past five years, some of the activities Alex has been involved with voluntarily are: writing poetry, composing and playing original music on various instruments (in groups and at home on his own), photography, drawing and painting, and reading, including books and articles on science, psychology and philosophy.

He transferred, because we moved, to a large Catholic high school for his last two years, where he did well. He is now in his freshman year at University of Dallas, studying biology.

Our daughter, Erika, also attended the same schools and she is like Alex now interested in many subject areas and doing very well (high honor roll every semester) in the large Catholic high school she now attends. Anna Migeon [anna@annamigeon.com]

A Narrative from a Public School Teacher

I've been a teacher for a long time. I'm not a backward-looking person, but I do miss the days when my class was my class. Back then, my students learned the basic content of the prescribed curriculum every year, but also had time to dig deeper into a topic of interest, spend extra time on an art project, or put together a recipe book for Mother's Day. Teaching and learning were not prescribed by national standards or state-developed high stakes tests. I might not be comfortable calling the education back then "child-centered," but it was at least child-friendly. What I know now – that I would not have been able to express then – is that relationships must occupy a higher place than procedures, schedules, budgets, or government mandates if the needs of children, families, communities, and society are to be served.

At present, I spend my busy days teaching students with special needs in a public middle school. I rarely have occasion to mention the name of Charlotte Mason or the Relational Education model. Still, the ideas and methods undergird everything I do. The Relational philosophy helps me in ways that may be barely discernible to my teaching colleagues but are becoming steadily more apparent to me.

When I am part of a team meeting to discuss the abilities and needs of a struggling student, I hear reports of test scores, grades, behavior ratings, and classroom observations. When it's my turn to contribute, I most often share something the student has written: a journal entry, an essay, or a story. These pieces give a glimpse into a child's heart and mind and help the team focus on personhood, interests, and relationships, not just deficiencies and areas of struggle. At a recent meeting, a young man read his essay about his dad. This boy feels a great loss because his mother and father have recently separated. Afterward, we all wiped our eyes before continuing the meeting, and proceeded with a better understanding of the young man's academic and behavioral struggles.

When my students tire of preparing for upcoming state tests by cramming bits of knowledge set forth in the state standards, I open a book and begin to read. The children relax, connect, and draw strength from the beauty, truth, and vitality of living books. Today, I read pages from *Wind in the Willows, Farmer Boy*, and *Where the Red Fern Grows*. My sixth grade students retell images of Rat and Mole they see in their minds that I don't even recall reading to them. My eighth graders read page after page about Billy, Little Ann, and Old Dan's adventures in the Ozark hills. This year I can't stop them. Last year I couldn't get them started. My last period group of boys settles around a table and marvels at the life of Almanzo Wilder. Sheep shearing, breaking a team of young oxen, and staying home from school to plant potatoes are not experiences these children have had. They wonder, question, and learn, even though they are not subjected to lists of "comprehension questions" in a workbook or vocabulary words printed on a worksheet.

When my students misbehave and fail to meet classroom and school expectations, they are given detention and failing grades. Rules are set forth in the handbook printed in their planner, which they are to have with them at all times. School staff and parents become frustrated when poor attitudes and habits seem to increase rather than change for the better. I try to follow Relational principles of one-at-a-time habit formation and natural consequences for poor behavior. I try not to nag and lecture. I take time to devise unique, one-of-a-kind consequences that relate to a particular rule infraction. I try to be as disinterested and unemotional as possible and leave a child's spirit and personhood intact when their behaviors fall short. Progress is slow, but one small step in the right direction may become a turning point.

There are more relationship-based ideas I want to try. For a long time, I've been thinking about ways to give my students more opportunity to talk. They love to talk. They need to talk. They blurt. But without some sort of structure, their talking gets out of control in volume and topic and somehow leads

to general pushing and shoving. In my school, teachers either rigidly reinforce the no-talking-without-raising-your-hand procedure or just try to talk over the chaos. It recently occurred to me that it might be possible to teach middle school students to carry on polite conversation based on a mature adult model of listening politely, taking turns, and staying on topic. We're working on it. In one class last week, we politely discussed all-terrain vehicles (ATVs) for a short time with only minimal redirection and without the raise-your-hand rule. I believe we all learned a thing or two about ATVs. I know I did.

My early years of teaching were not consciously based on a relational model, although I believe I instinctively understood the importance of relationships in education. These methods are sensible and effective. When in doubt, I acknowledge the personhood, build on important current relationships, and respect the possibilities of each of my students. That starting point sets us in the right direction; following as many other relational principles as possible moves us further on.

Donna M. Johnson, Ed.D. Windom, MN May 5, 2010

A Narrative from an Alumnus of a Relational School

I'm not the average Ambleside alumnus, though it's debatable whether there's a large enough sample size to get an average out of those who have graduated from the school anyway. As you're hearing this I'm likely navigating Denver International Airport on my way back to the Colorado School of Mines. A little over twelve hours from now I will be grabbing several hundred dollars worth of books for classes whose titles include "Intro to Modern Cryptography", "Computer Networks and Analysis," "Operating Systems" and "Engineering Economics." At 10 a.m. Mountain Time I will start the sixth and penultimate semester of my Computer Science degree at an engineering school in the foothills of the Rockies, a mile and a quarter above sea level. The rest of Ambleside School of Fredericksburg's class of 2007 are at liberal arts colleges a mile or so closer to the earth's core.

You would think that, at first glance, an engineering student would be the least likely to come back to a literature and arts focused school with praise on his lips. After all, Mines has precious few required liberal arts courses, and I completed those requirements mostly with classes from the Economics and Business department. Yet I realize that the classes you take at a place like Ambleside are only a part of the equation that is a high school education. The other part, the one that has ended up being more valuable to me, is the habits formed and the relationships made while here. Due to Ambleside's tougher-than-average curriculum and high expectations from teachers who cared about all facets of my being, I was unafraid of Mines's reputation as a difficult college. Ambleside's student-focused grading system has taught me to focus on learning subjects as fully as possible, rather than simply shooting for a letter or number grade. I'm not making all A's, but my grades are respectable and I haven't lost the love of learning that was taught me at Ambleside.

Curriculum Overview

Our curriculum is based on living books, living ideas, and living things. *Living books* are the great stories and scientific works that we have read and loved for generations, written by authors with a passion for their work. They ignite *living ideas*, those insights that happen when a child discovers something, learns something new, and enters the "grand conversation" of inquiry and discovery. We also offer a rich curriculum of *living things*—musical instruments, acting, outdoor life, and handwork are part of every student's education at Dogwood.

Reading, Literature, and Comprehension

Reading is central to our Charlotte Mason education. We use the Balanced Literacy Approach to include both phonics and whole language instruction. We have small, teacher-guided reading circles based on students' reading levels, independent reading circles, writing workshops, word study, copywork, and recitation. Every child participates at his or her own level, while being gently scaled to the next level.

Math and the Sciences

Dogwood's mathematics curriculum emphasizes understanding of math concepts instead of rote memorization of equations and formulas. Students cover not only the core curriculum required by PA state standards, but they also learn to understand and use its applications in real life.

We teach the sciences with a combination of hands-on experiments, complimentary narratives that engage our students' minds and ground the theoretical in the practical, and textbooks.

History and Citizenship

We learn history in context, using stories, timelines, and contemporary narratives. We also learn citizenship—economics, ethics, and civic responsibility.

Languages, Arts, and Music

Do you know a Monet when you see it? Do you know Tchaikovsky when you hear him? Do you know which passage of Shakespeare is your favorite, and why? Do you know the Latin roots of English words, or how to chat with your friend in Spanish? Our children will! All of the students will participate in composer and artist studies; every year, each class will learn the work of three artists and three composers in depth. All of our students will learn to sing and play an instrument such as the piano, guitar, or other band or orchestral instruments. Our students will learn Spanish starting in Kinderleben and begin Latin in 5th grade. These are not electives; all of our students participate. In addition to giving your child new interests and ways to interact with their world, research shows that children who are rich in the arts do better in the traditional school subjects.

Nature Journals, Outdoor Life, and Field Studies

Our students spend a lot of time outdoors. In nature, they begin the process of learning to observe. They get hands-on experience with the sciences from biology, geography, geology, and so on. These help them develop mental habits of thinking, ordering, and sequencing. As our students learn to see, know, and love the abundance of life unfolding around them, they grow to protect and love our environment. Most importantly, nature becomes a place of solace and peace that children can go to when they need to be calmed or encouraged. All of our students keep their own nature journal where they draw, use dry brush painting, and write notes to record what they observe in the world around them.

Atmosphere

Research shows that we learn best in an alert yet relaxed state—when we are comfortable, in a beautiful environment, and engaged and interested in what we are doing. At Dogwood we will purposefully create this atmosphere with small classes (capped at 20 students K-5, 25 students 6-12), homey classrooms with rugs, plants, and natural lighting, and beautiful wooden tables and chairs instead of desks. We will keep interest high through short class periods and lots of variety, interspersing intense subjects with easier ones and time outdoors.

Authentic Assessments

We will hold exams three times a year at the end of each trimester (12-week period). Instead of fill-in-the-blank, true-or-false, or multiple-choice questions, we use an open-ended question format that assesses what our students have learned over the course of the trimester. Our students will also take the state-required PSSAs and Keystone Exams.

After School Clubs

Every year students participate in choosing weekly after-school clubs, examples are LEGO club, gardening club, Odyssey of the Mind, and chess club.

Athletics and Sports

Physical education and sports are valuable for many reasons—they train students in the discipline of shared rules, develop healthy bodies, and teach the joy of hard work and accomplishment. As our students learn physical activities, games, and sports, they are also learning how to participate in relationships with others. How do you win with dignity and grace? How do you lose with dignity and grace? How do you treat those you compete against? How do you pull your weight on the team, and play unselfishly for the team? These questions must be faced head on by all of our students, not just the "athletic" ones. All of our students will participate in sports, and in upper school, all students will be required to play a competitive sport for one season so that they learn how to handle pressure, how to be resilient when things get tough, how to be a team
player, and how to win and lose. Since everyone competes, we will offer both traditional and non-traditional sports:

Examples: Archery Golf Boys' Basketball Girls' Basketball Cross Country Spirit Team Fencing

Students who want to participate in sports that we don't offer are allowed to play with their sending school district's sports teams.

Our curriculum and its implementation will be monitored by both the Charlotte Mason Institute and the Pennsylvania Department of Education, and will meet and surpass Pennsylvania's state standards. The Charlotte Mason Institute is a nonprofit organization that brings together relational educators from across the globe to accredit schools, train teachers, and tailor curriculum for public, private, and home schools. The Institute's public charter branch has also worked with Gillingham and we are using the same non-sectarian curriculum based on the teachings and philosophy of Charlotte Mason.

Dogwood's Community

Dogwood's mission is that our students will be proud of who they are, where they come from, and of what they bring to their community and beyond. To do this, they need to form meaningful relationships with their community, discovering their heritage, their community's strengths, and finding ways to serve its unique needs. Dogwood will provide many opportunities for students to connect with and serve their local community, such as:

• Service Projects

Service projects will include our staff, administration, and families where they come together to give back to the community. Examples of services projects: blood drives, volunteer for setup and cleanup at community events, pick up litter in the community, and take part in community fundraisers that benefit local agencies. Additionally, all high school students will be required to complete no fewer than 20 hours of community service each year. Many of these hours can be completed through opportunities that individual students seek out on their own.

Community Conversations

We will invite community leaders, parents, local businesses, and entrepreneurs into the school regularly to speak with our students. They will share stories about who they are, what they do, and answer questions from our students. Through these visits, we will simultaneously build relationships here in the community and introduce our students to a wide range of post-graduation options, STEM careers, and trades. We will also host "Get to Know Us" tours, where we introduce our community members to our educational model and classrooms and sit down for conversation on how we can work together.

• Internships

All of our juniors and seniors will participate in internships, where they work with local business leaders to gain hands-on experience in a career for which they have expressed an interest.

Special Programs

We will share our students' artistic and musical growth with our families and community through events like an annual Veterans Day celebration, Winter Recital, Shakespeare performance, and ARTSpring (our celebration of the arts).

• Field Studies

Our students will experience field studies at least once a month. We will visit local historical sites, industries, colleges, and businesses.

Outdoor Life

We will also spend a significant amount of time outdoors. We want our students to know and to love the beauty of their community, so we create practical relationships with the natural world by taking time to observe, draw, paint, and identify local flora and fauna. We take classroom studies outdoors to local parks, thus creating an appreciation and ownership for the local resources available to them. Through hands-on experience, we come to understand our interdependence and take responsibility for our local and world environment.

Gillingham Charter School *Kinderleben Report Card*

Student Name: Student Name School Year: 2019-20

Teacher's Name: Teacher Name



The mystery of a person is indeed divine, and the extraordinary fascination of history lies in the fact that this divine mystery continually surprises us in unexpected places. We attempt to define a person . . . but he will not submit to bounds; some unexpected beauty of nature breaks out; we find he is not what we thought, and begin to suspect that every person exceeds our power of measurement. Charlotte Mason

Conduct		
A true education also works toward a good character. Therefore habits are important at Gillingham Charter School because habits developed well over time build character and character enables children to do the right thing at the right time. But conduct is more than habits. It is also about relationships, that is, caring about others, the classroom, the community, nature and all the wonderful things in our world. C Consistently O Often S Sometimes R Rarely		
	T1	T2
	T1	T2
Demonstrates respect and concern for others	S	0
Interacts appropriately with adults	С	С
Works and plays cooperatively in a variety of settings	S	0
Shows respect for property and materials	С	С
Displays self-control	S	0
Develops and verbalizes solutions to simple problems	S	0
Listens attentively to others while in small and large groups	S	S
Follows verbal and nonverbal directions promptly	С	С
Follows classroom guidelines and expectations	С	С
Participates in class activities and discussions	S	0
Displays a curiosity for learning and understanding	С	С
Initiates and completes tasks in a timely manner	С	С
Uses materials creatively and purposefully	С	С
Does not distract others	С	S
Works independently	С	С
Cares for personal needs and belongings	С	С
Stays involved in a self-selected activity for an appropriate time	C	C
Takes appropriate risks in familiar environments	С	C

^{*}Note - The term Kinderleben was coined by Dr. Jack Beckman, Professor of Education at Covenant College. It means child life.

Academics

A true education, one rich in ideas, relationship and purpose is one in which the child seeks out, gathers and appropriates knowledge for him or herself. Kinderleben* at Gillingham Charter School is concerned not only with a child's mastery of concepts, but also his or her progress in mastering the art of learning. This requires that the child's imagination flourishes through play. All academics are taught through play and thus children thrive and develop in their whole person.

M Mastery

DEV Developing

NYO Not Yet Observed

	T1	Τ2
Reading Readiness		
Recognizes the uppercase letters	DEV	DEV
Recognizes the lowercase letters	DEV	DEV
Matches sounds with corresponding letter	DEV	DEV
Identifies the beginning sounds of a word	M	М
Identifies the ending sounds of a word	DEV	М
Identifies the medial sounds of a word	DEV	DEV
Blends sounds to make a word	DEV	DEV
Identifies and produces rhyming words	DEV	DEV
Understands that words are made up of one or more syllables	DEV	DEV
Tracks print left to right, top to bottom	M	М
Writes words using beginning and ending sounds	DEV	DEV
Prints first name on unlined paper	M	M
Prints last name on lined paper	DEV	M
Speaks using complete sentences	M	M
Narrates/dictates a story about an event or experience	DEV	DEV
Makes predictions about a story	DEV	DEV
Answers questions and contributes ideas relevant to the literature discussion	DEV	DEV
	T1	T2
Math		
Counts orally to 20	M	Μ
Counts orally to 50 or more	DEV	М
Counts to 20 by twos	NYO	DEV
Counts to 50 by fives	NYO	NYO
Counts to 100 by tens	M	М
Recognizes numerals 0 to 10 out of sequence	M	М
Recognizes numerals 10 to 20 out of sequence	DEV	DEV
Writes numerals 1 to 10	M	М
Writes numerals 11 to 20	DEV	DEV
Writes numerals 21 to 30	NYO	DEV
Pairs and counts objects using one-to-one correspondence	M	М
Discriminates between relationships such as more than, less than	DEV	DEV
Discriminates between long and short	DEV	DEV
Discriminates between before, after and next	DEV	DEV
Sorts objects by one or more attributes	DEV	DEV
Shows concepts of addition to 10 with objects	NYO	DEV
Shows concepts of subtraction less than 10 with objects	NYO	NYO
Can perform patterning activities	M	М
Can verbally continue a pattern	DEV	М
Identifies penny, nickel, dime and quarter by name	NYO	NYO
Uses non-standard objects to measure (sticks, shoe lengths, etc.)	NYO	DEV
Identifies a circle, square, rectangle, triangle	M	M
Identifies sphere, cube and cone	DEV	DEV

Motor Skills

C Consistently O Often S Sometimes R Rarely

	T1	T2
Motor Skills		
Demonstrates strengthened hand and eye coordination when working with a variety of other tools (beads, blocks, brushes, scissors, glue, etc.)	С	С
Holds and uses pencils using a three finger grasp	С	С
Traces, copies and generates shapes, letters and numerals (in play or creative activity)	С	С
Coordinates large arm movements such as easel painting, woodworking, and climbing	С	С
Demonstrates basic locomotor movements such as walking, running, jumping, hopping, galloping, and skipping		С
Demonstrates nonlocomotor movements such as bending, stretching, pulling and pushing	С	С
Balances on one foot for approximately five seconds	S	S
Commonto		

Comments

T2 Comments

Student is a very enthusiastic student. She has a positive attitude towards school. She shows keen interest and participates in school experiences. This term, I have seen her blossom academically. Recently I have observed student gets extremely emotional over things that are bothering here. These are times when she is very tired and has less patients. Even though she has improved in communicating with her fellow classmates, Student needs to further develop her communication during times when she is upset.

When studying artwork by Claude Monet, Student was usually able to observe details in the prints. She successfully learned the differences and similarities between arachnids, reptiles, and amphibians in nature study. When assessed, she was able to explain to me that amphibians can breathe underwater when they are first born and reptiles breath through their lungs.

Student loves to read and gets excited when she receives a new word sort. The sort she is currently working on focuses on blends and digraphs. When assessed, she identified 25 capital letters and 25 lowercase letters. Also, Student was able to identify 21 sounds. When reading sight words, she read 19 correctly. She is at grade level for reading. The more she practices sight words, the more confident of a reader she will become. For term three, Student will focus on sounding out and blending words. In math, Student loves making numbers and enjoys completing different math activities. She can identify numbers 1-20, except for 13. She improved in her counting skills and can count by ones up to 59, and twos up to 14. She can also count by tens up to 100 during term three, she will be counting by fives. When writing numbers, Student has great control of her pencil. She can write 1-29 independently.

T2 Comments

This term, Student continued learning Spanish using the TPRS method by creating Spanish stories together as a class, and by singing and gesturing songs. The Spanish themes we focused on this term were family members, clothes, and jobs. She often listened to stories and sang songs in Spanish, and understood most of the spoken Spanish, as evidenced by responding correctly to questions and singing the songs. Anabelle mostly responded correctly to Spanish commands given in class. She sometimes chooses and practices the habits that are necessary when learning a second language: respectful behavior towards others, attentiveness, and responding immediately and properly to commands and directions.



Narrative Report

2019-20

Term 2

Student Name Teacher Grade 05

Attendance

	Term 1	Term 2	Term 3
Excused	2	9	0
Unexcused	0	0	0
Tardy	3	1	2

HABITS

Gillingham is committed to partnering with parents in the cultivation of healthy habits and choices.

The following habits and choices have been manifested to the given degree:

C - Consistently U - Usually S - Sometimes R - Rarely

	T1	T2
Habit of Attention (maintains focus, follows instructions)	S	U
Habit of Best Execution (thorough, accurate in completing tasks)	U	U
Habit of Imagining (delights in the heroic, exhibits curiosity)	С	С
Habit of Initiative (sees what needs to be done and problem solves without prompting)	С	С
Habit of Leadership (encourages, includes all, stays on task)	С	U
Habit of Neatness and Order (in work, handwriting, dress, and possessions)	U	U
Habit of Participation & Effort	С	U
Habit of Punctuality (observes appointed times)	С	С
Habit of Reading (comprehends, reads aloud with expression)	С	С
Habit of Remembering (recalls knowledge and facts)	С	U
Habit of Respect (for self, others, those in authority, things, ideas)	С	U
Habit of Responsibility (manages belongings and assigned tasks)	С	С
Habit of Risk Taking (tries new things, experiments, risks being wrong)	С	С
Habit of Telling Back (narrates sequentially, uses vocabulary, includes details & ideas)	С	С
Habit of Temper (friendly, cheerful, patient)	С	U
Habit of Truthfulness (avoids exaggerating or minimizing)	С	U
Habit of Voice (respectfully speaks up for self and others, seeks restoration)	С	U

The Humanities (History, Literature, Poetry, Citizenship)

T2 Comments

In Literature, Student actively participated in the reading and discussions of Where the Red Fern Grows, developing some understanding of the characters and the plot through her narrations. She carefully studied the Hundred Years' War, and she adequately knows the bravery and determination of young Joan of Arc. While reading the Pushcart War, she thoroughly examined and comprehended the turning point of the plot and the changing character traits. Student has contributed greatly to Grand Conversations with great effort by providing basic thoughts and ideas she developed from the living ideas from her readings.

Language Arts

T2 Comments

Student is currently reading at the Fountas and Pinnell S reading level, with developing accuracy, fluency, and expression, which is low for grade level. Because of her efforts in her reading group, she shows a secure ability to understand, analyze, and evaluate a story and ideas. She sometimes makes inferences to connect at a higher level with her text and the living ideas at a beginning level. Her handwriting skills demonstrate great attention to details with some ability to transfer her skills to her daily writing. Student maintained her word study level at Within Words. Practicing her spelling patterns and continuing to read will increase her word knowledge.

Mathematics

T2 Comments

This term, Student accurately estimated quotients when dividing whole numbers. She confidently demonstrated her knowledge of adding, subtracting and multiplying fractions and decimals along with plotting on coordinate grids, place value of decimals, and order of operations. Student also maintained her ability to work with numbers involving exponents. She needs continued practice to master adding, subtracting and multiplying fractions. She with some success used these skills to tackle more complex word problems. Student also enjoyed reviewing multiplication while playing engaging math games.

Music

T2 Comments

When asked to melodically dictate, Student meets expectations. Given a starting note, she is able to with a few mistakes tell back the correct solfege and notes for the rest of the melodic line. Student also is at a level of beginning mastery related to reading and notating notes on the treble clef staff. Overall, this term has been one of progress for Student, and with continued focus and effort, her musical skills will grow!

Art

T2 Comments

Art

Student eagerly took on new projects this term. It was a huge change to go from one art teacher to another and she exceeded my expectations. She has shown a lot of flexibility in her art endeavors. We are studying portraiture and painting using impressionistic styles. Her painting of a happy memory was beautiful and colorful. Student has put a lot of effort into mastering the color wheel. She is working on applying those concepts to color theory with her demonstration of complementary colors.

We have also been studying radial symmetrical designs. Student understands symmetry but not radial symmetry. She has created several detailed radial symmetrical designs.

The Sciences (Nature Study, Natural History, Geography, Science)

T2 Comments

Student read about and discussed the life habits and instincts of the Peregrine Falcon. She struggled to discuss the stories Frightful's Mountain and Frightful's Daughter to analyze the typical and atypical habits of a Peregrine Falcon. Specifically, she is developing the ability to compare and contrast the habits of a falcon raised in captivity to those of a wild falcon. Through regular and careful observations of Pennsylvania's "Falcon Cam," she was able to observe wild Peregrine Falcons throughout their hatching season. Utilizing these observations to expand her understanding and

connections to her readings proved to be a bit of a challenge.

The Studies (Picture, Composer, Shakespeare, Handwork)

T2 Comments

Student attentively listened to and discussed numerous musical pieces of the Italian composer, Giovanni Gabrieli, with effort. She shared her observations and thoughts in supporting detail. In picture study, she further developed her ability to study details through observation of the paintings of Berthe Morisot. She successfully completed detailed studies of Morisot's paintings including "The Harbor at Lorient" and "View of Paris from the Trocadero." She successfully reads and understands Shakespeare's play, Julius Caesar and is trying hard to understand his unique language and techniques. In Handwork, she is developing her mastery and her attention to detail and fine motor skills of paper craft. She was able to complete her projects with little frustration and with care, accuracy and effort.



Attendance

Upper School Report Card

 Term 1
 Term 2
 Term 3

 Excused
 3
 0
 1

 Unexcused
 0
 0
 1

Student Name 2019-20

Grade: 11

	T1	T2
English Language Arts		
Student has mastered this term's concepts and skills:	YES	YES
		T2
Keyboarding		
Student has mastered this term's concepts and skills:		YES
		T2
Handwork		
Student has mastered this term's concepts and skills:		YES
Г	T1	T2
Interactive Math III		-
Student has mastered this term's concepts and skills:	YES	YES
		_ T1
Physical Education & Health		
Student has mastered this term's concepts and skills:		YES
	T1	T2
Spanish		
Student has mastered this term's concepts and skills:	YES	YES_
Music 11		TIEG
Student has mastered this term's concepts and skills:		<u>YES</u>
		VEC
Student has mastered this term's concepts and skills:		
Test Drev		
Test Prep		VEC
Student has mastered this terms concepts and skins:	T1	<u> </u>
Dhysias		14
Filysics Student has mastered this term's concents and skills:	VES	VES
Student has mastered this term's concepts and skins.	1125	<u> </u>
Shakasnaara		
Student has mastered this term's concepts and skills:		YES
Student has mastered this term's concepts and skins.	T1	T2
Theater		± #
The student has mastered concepts and skills for this class:	VES	YES
Student: Student Name	Homeroom Teacher:	Teacher

		T2
Good Reads		
Student has mastered this term's concepts and skills:		YES
	T1	T2
Instrument Lessons		
Student has mastered this term's concepts and skills:	YES	YES
		T2
Personal Finance		
Student has mastered this term's concepts and skills:		YES

Upper School Portfolio Assessment Program: An Overview

Adapted from:

"Guidance for Using Student Portfolios in Educator Evaluation" by the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education

&

"Assessment, Articulation, and Accountability" by the North Carolina Department of Education (1999)

August 2018

Amended December 2018

OVERVIEW

Why Use Portfolio Assessments?

Research shows that students at all levels see assessment as something that is done to them by someone else—out of their control or circle of influence¹. Most often, they do not acknowledge knowing any evaluation criteria beyond the letter grade or percent correct recorded on their work. Portfolios can bridge this gap by providing a structure for involving students in developing and understanding criteria for good work and through the use of critical thinking and self-reflection, enable students to apply these criteria to their own work efforts and that of other students'. Through the use of Portfolios, students are regularly asked to examine how they succeeded or failed or improved on a task or set goals for future work. No longer is the learning just about the final product, evaluation or grade but becomes more focused on students developing metacognitive skills that will enable them to reflect upon and make adjustments in their learning in school and beyond.

Research has found that students in classes that emphasize improvement, progress, effort and the process of learning rather than grades and normative performance, are more likely to use a variety of learning strategies and have a more positive attitude toward learning. Ames, Carole and Archer, Jennifer. "Achievement Goals in the Classroom: Students' Learning Strategies and Motivation Processes Journal of Educational Psychology," 1988. American Psychological Association, Inc.

What is a Student Portfolio? A portfolio is best described as a purposeful collection of student work that tells the story of the student's efforts, progress, or achievement in a content area.ⁱⁱ "Purposeful" describes the way that student work is selected and is indicative of the story you want the portfolio to tell. A portfolio serves many purposes:

- It highlights or celebrates the progress a student has made;
- it captures the process of learning and growth;
- it helps place students academically; or,
- it can also showcase the final products or best work of a student.

Ultimately, a portfolio is not just the pile of student work that accumulates over a quarter, semester or year.

A portfolio is different from a folder in that it includes:

- o Explicit guidelines for selection
- o Comprehensible criteria
- o Clear objectives
- o Selective and significant pieces
- o Students' self-reflection pieces
- o Evidence of student participation in selection of content
- o Students' self-evaluation

Instead, it is a very intentional process: both teacher and student must be clear about the story the portfolio will be telling, and both must believe that the selection of and reflection upon their work serves one or more meaningful purposes. Although approaches to portfolio development may vary, in an effective portfolio the student must be an active participant involved in constructing the story of his or her journey academically through the portfolio process of selecting, organizing and reflecting.

Effective portfolios have the following characteristics in common:

- They clearly reflect student learning objectives (SLOs) identified in the core or essential curriculum;
- They focus upon a student's performance-based learning experiences; knowledge and skill acquisition; habits; collaboration and attitude;
- They contain work samples that stretch over a designated period of time and represent a variety of assessment tools; and
- They contain student self-assessments and reflections of work samples.

"Students are crucial instructional decision makers. We must build classroom environments in which students use assessments to understand what success looks like and how to do better the next time. In effect, we must help students use ongoing classroom assessment to take responsibility for their own academic success." -Rick Stiggins, (2005)



It is hard work, but your efforts will be well-rewarded by your students' increased motivation, involvement in their own learning, and by improved achievement. The challenge of portfolio assessment lies in the organization of the whole endeavor. Effective portfolio assessment requires planning in advance and keeping records. These will quickly become a habit and result in more efficient, professional work.

PROS	CONS
1. Provides tangible evidence of the student's knowledge, abilities, and growth in meeting selected objectives which can be shared with parents, administration and others	1. Takes time
2. Involves a considerable amount of student choice - student-centered	2. Presents challenges for organization and management
3. Involves an audience	3. Requires diligent effort to
4. Includes a student's explanation for the selection of products	communicate the process and reasons to stakeholders
5. Places responsibility on the students by involving them in monitoring and judging their own work	
6. Encourages a link between instructional goals, objectives, and class activities	
7. Offers a holistic view of student learning	
8. Provides a means for managing and evaluating multiple assessments for each student. The portfolio provides the necessary mechanism for housing all the information available about a student's learning. It includes a variety of entries including test scores, projects, audio tapes, video tapes, essays, rubrics, self assessments, etc.	
9. Allows students the opportunity to communicate, present, and discuss their work with teachers and parents.	