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**THE INFLUENCE OF KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS' AND
PRINCIPALS' SUPERVISORY ASSOCIATIONS ON
CURRICULUM AND TEACHING**

A Thesis in

Curriculum and Instruction

by

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the influence of different supervisory associations on curriculum and teaching in four public school kindergartens with a multiple case study method. Three types of sampling procedures used to identify and study elementary school principals and kindergarten teachers were stratified, purposeful, and a subdivision of the purposefully chosen sample. The stratified random sample based on type of region (East, West, North, or South PA) consisted of 89 elementary schools; the purposefully chosen sample included 24 elementary schools located near State College, PA. The subdivision selected included four principals and four teachers for the multiple case studies, which comprised this dissertation's main focus.

Two questionnaires ("Knowledge Questionnaire"(KQ) and the "Supervisory Practices Questionnaire"(SPQ)) were mailed to the stratified and purposefully sample of elementary school principals and their kindergarten teachers. This survey was preliminary to the comparative case study. Based on the scores of the purposefully chosen participants on these two questionnaires, I chose four of the principals and their kindergarten teachers to take part in the comparative case studies.

The KQ measured teachers' and principals' preferences regarding the type of knowledge that they think is important for kindergarten curriculum and teachers' instructional activities in their classrooms. It had five sections: demographic information; degree of influence indicated; staff development activities; the Teacher Knowledge Scale (TKS); and the Instructional Activities Scale (IAS). The section on staff development activities was added by the researcher.

The SPQ helped find out the type of supervision notions that principals reported using to promote professional development of kindergarten teachers. It was sent only to the principals. Although this questionnaire had four questions, for the purpose of this study, only participants' responses on the fourth question were taken into account for identifying their notions or models of supervision.

For the analysis of this preliminary survey study, I computed the frequencies of the information on demographics and the average rank for the influence of different sources on planning and teaching. The mean scores on staff development activities were calculated for principals and teachers. Mean and standard deviation scores on knowledge of developmentally appropriate/inappropriate practices (DAP/DIP) were computed for principals and teachers with results used to help identify principals with high DAP-oriented knowledge and teachers with more or with less DAP-oriented activities in their classrooms. Also, teachers' mean and standard deviation scores on IAS were calculated. Moreover, three separate ANOVAs were performed with type of sampling (stratified, purposeful, and subdivision of purposeful) as the independent variable and with scores for DAP and DIP knowledge of both principals and teachers, DAP and DIP use of teachers as the dependent variables.

The analysis of the question on the degree of influence indicated that principals of the purposeful subdivision sample considered themselves and teachers as the most influential on curriculum planning and teaching as compared to principals in the larger purposeful and stratified samples. Also, they deemed state regulations as having the least impact on planning and teaching compared to the participants of the other two samplings.

The teachers in the purposeful subdivision sample considered the principals as being the most influential force followed by the teachers in the stratified sample and the teachers in the purposeful sample. Teachers in all three types of samples viewed themselves as the strongest influence while they deemed parents as the weakest influence on their planning and teaching.

The analysis of the questions on staff development activities showed that almost all principals across three types of samples reported that they offered training as a staff development activity. Among the components of training, workshops were widely cited as used while portfolios rarely were across the samples. The principals in the purposeful and purposeful subdivision samples reported more use of curriculum development and inquiry than did the principals in the stratified sample.

Staff development activities that were widely reported by all teachers were curriculum development, training, and observation. While workshops were the most commonly reported component of training, portfolios were the least commonly reported. Professional development schools as a staff development activity was seldom utilized by all teachers.

With respect to results of ANOVA run for principals' knowledge of DAP and DIP, there was not any statistically significant differences among the three different samples (stratified, purposeful, and purposeful subdivision sample) on principals' scores for DAP knowledge ($F=.640$, $df = 2$, $p >.05$) and DIP knowledge ($F=.994$, $df = 2$, $p >.05$).

The results of ANOVA run for teachers showed that there was not any statistically significant differences among three samples' knowledge of DAP ($F=1.957$, $df = 2$, $p >.05$) and knowledge of DIP ($F = 1.07$, $df = 2$, $p >.05$). In addition, there was not

any significant differences in their scores on DAP related instructional activities ($F=.634$, $df = 2$, $p >.05$) and DIP associated activities ($F=1.84$, $df = 2$, $p >.05$).

Computing average rank scores on principals' SPQ responses led to two distinctive notions, one being the interpretive-practical notion and second being the applied science-technical notion (as well as two slightly eclectic models, representing a combination of the interpretive-practical and the applied science-technical notions). Based on these results, I categorized the principals for the comparative case study as follows: interpretive-practical notion (principal A) as being the most supportive, eclectic-interpretive-practical (principal B) as supportive, eclectic-applied science-technical (principal C) as less supportive, and applied science-technical notion (principal D) as the least supportive.

Although the survey results suggested four different kinds of schools, I felt the need to drop this way of grouping after I started to interview the participants and analyze the data. I found out that the framework of "less supportive/more supportive" was misleading. For instance, principal C initially labeled as less supportive based on the survey results did not seem to warrant this classification upon analyzing her interview responses.

The interviews, classroom observations with field notes, and observational checklists were data sources for the comparative case study of the four principal-kindergarten teacher dyads. Open-ended and focused interviews with the participants were the primary source of data for this study; observations served to support the emerging findings of the study. With interviews, I aimed to elucidate teachers' and

principals' perceptions of supervisory associations and practices and to illuminate their perceptions of the nature and functions of curriculum and teaching.

Field notes aimed to capture the events that took place in the classroom, including teachers' actions and the children's reaction to those actions, and vice-versa. I observed each kindergarten classroom for at least six hours on different days. On the basis of these observations, I completed the Checklist for Observing Developmental Appropriateness in Early Childhood Classrooms, an Anti-bias Curriculum instrument, and the Anti-bias and Multicultural Curriculum Assessment Profile.

In the comparative case studies, Miles's and Huberman's (1994) method of analysis was followed: (1) contact summary sheet, (2) coding, (3) pattern codes, and (4) memoing. Chapters four, five, six, and seven present results of the four case studies. A modified version of Cornbleth's (1990) framework was used for organizing the results of this study, and for considering curriculum in light of structural and socio-cultural contexts. In this study's analysis, aspects of structural context were as follows: (1) the nature of supervisory associations between teachers and principals, (2) principals' and teachers' perceptions of curriculum, and (3) classroom practices. May's (1989) work on notions of supervision and Sergiovanni's (1992) work on the sources of authority were utilized to analyze these three aspects of the structural context.

The primary themes that emerged from the study and that were used to characterize the dyads were: (1) active and inactive-collegial supervisory associations, teachers of collegial supervisory associations with consistent curriculum beliefs and actual classroom practices: (2) inactive-hierarchical supervisory associations: and (3) teachers of inactive-hierarchical supervisory associations with inconsistent curriculum

beliefs and actual classroom practices. The collegial supervisory associations were primarily influenced by professional and moral authorities and supported by personal authority that established a circle of trust, respect, and shared understandings between teachers and principals. Teachers of collegial associations were conscious of what they believed in and how they put those beliefs into practice. Positive collegial associations nurtured the teachers, and fostered commitment to their beliefs rather than oppressing them. This seemed linked to developmentally appropriate practices.

Conversely, superior-subordinate supervisory associations imposed the contents and effects of bureaucratic and technical sources of authorities upon teachers. The dependence on external control of teachers in these supervisory associations was evidenced through several interrelated indicators: ignorance of communication about teaching and learning; inability to share control; existence of hierarchical control; and silencing teachers. An outcome of this type of supervisory association was to foster inconsistencies between the teachers' own thoughts and actions. It marginalized the teachers, impeded professionalism, and failed to recognize the complexity of the early childhood teacher's role responsibilities with respect to young children. The resulting learning experiences for children were uni-dimensional, primarily revolving around formal instruction of academic skills.

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CHAPTER ONE

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

“No Child Left Behind” has turned out to be the catchphrase of educational reform, which has become to be known as making sure that each student meets academic standards. For example, Pennsylvania established academic standards in 1999 to define what knowledge and skills children at each grade level should master in different subject matters: mathematics, reading, writing, speaking and listening. In order to measure whether children perform in this way, standardized tests are administrated beginning at the third grade (Pennsylvania Department of Education Website).

School districts are expected to construct curriculum and instruction that lead to performing at or above state standards. Schools and teachers are held accountable for how well their students score on these standardized tests. Results of standardized tests are also used to make comparisons among schools and teachers. High scores on the standards tests are what the policy makers think is the best indicator of desired quality education. The criteria for which each child and eventually each school are held accountable are uniform across diverse backgrounds of children.

For many professional educators, initiatives such as teacher accountability and standardized achievement tests reflect how supervision and education are bureaucratized. Teacher accountability entails for conformity to a set of criteria defining what best practice is. This leads supervision to take a nature of quality control carried out through conducting classroom visit(s) to complete a checklist containing this set of criteria. In the eyes of some educators of young children, the trend toward standardization is puzzling in the sense that it fosters a rigid academic curriculum while it overlooks children’s unique

natures and specific social and educational circumstances. For instance, recent demographic changes in the student body of contemporary early childhood classrooms are much greater than before. Increasing attention has been paid to the need for recognizing different teaching and learning styles (Wardle, 2003). The move to standards and the 'one size fit all' mentality that goes along with this movement raises concerns about the quality of early educational experiences.

The research and opinions of professionals about the way young children learn are disregarded by some administrators, parents, and educators. Some research results show that some parents (Rescorla, Hyson, Hirsh-Pasek, & Cone, 1990; Stipek & Byler, 1997) and principals (Charlesworth, Hart, Burts, & DeWolf, 1993; Hitz & Wright, 1988) support a uni-dimensional focus on teaching academics to young children. These individuals advocate teaching approaches that they think will be more effective in raising children's performance scores on academic achievement tests (Elkind, 1987). Such thinking contributes to a greater use of a more academically rigorous curriculum in early childhood education (Stipek, Rosenblatt, & DiRocco, 1994).

The initiative for standards or accountability in the public school system by itself is not the sole driving force behind more academic kindergarten programs. From a broader perspective, the changes that have taken place within society have established a basis for this form of kindergarten education. Some influential changes include the increasing number of women in the work force, which in turn increases demand for child care outside the home. Therefore, more and more children attend early education and care centers and are exposed to some teaching of literacy skills and numeracy knowledge earlier than the kindergarten year. Also, there is the trend of shifting from half-day to

full-day kindergarten programs that elevated academic expectations for young children (Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 2001).

Regardless of the reasons behind an academically oriented early childhood curriculum (whether it is the result of educational policies or social changes) an ongoing quest in early childhood education (ECE) continues to exist for learning how to better provide young children with high quality ECE programs. One way to focus on the issues of quality is to examine structural and process variables. In a focus on structural variables, more attention is paid to adult-to-child ratio (5:1 to 10:1), group size (14 to 20), and education, training, and other characteristics of staff members. In a focus on process variables, there is a greater tendency to address the interaction between adults and children and among children, the nature of curriculum and instruction, and factors such as the supervision of teachers (Powell, 1995).

Professional organizations in the field of ECE, such as the National Academy of Early Childhood Programs (NAECP, 1998) and the Committee on Early Childhood Pedagogy in National Research Council (NRC, 2001), recognize certain characteristics that are deemed essential for high quality ECE programs. Some of these are: (1) focusing more on “support systems” that influence teachers’ and administrators’ enhancement as professionals (NAECP, 1998); (2) addressing all domains of the development of children; (3) providing curriculum with specific goals; (4) fostering professional development of teachers; and, related to this dissertation research; (5) the proactive involvement of teachers as part of high quality supervision of teachers (NRC, 2001).

Characteristics of high quality ECE programs vary depending on the ECE setting, such as child care centers versus early intervention program versus ECE in kindergarten

and the primary grades in the public schools. Indeed, ECE programs now exist within and have become an ever-greater part of the public school system and this association of ECE with public schools presents early childhood teachers with challenges and expectations that stem from the policies of the public school institution, such as the use of standardized achievement tests. There is an urgent challenge to blend the philosophies and practices of elementary education and ECE in such a way as to best serve young children and their families.

A content issue related to the quality of ECE programs' status within public schools is the association between elementary school principals and kindergarten teachers. Elementary school principals act as conveyers of policies to teachers and as collaborative partners. They play important roles in generating, implementing, and assessing the curriculum as well as helping kindergarten teachers acquire richer understandings of their practice. For instance, the ultimate goal of the "No child left behind" educational policy may be to optimize the learning and development of each student, but the implications of this movement will be filtered through administrators' and teachers' lenses, which will yield a great variety of responses. Some of the principals and teachers would interpret this to mean that they were to teach to the test, as they saw decisions about funding of schools and teachers' salary influenced by how high their students scored on the standardized tests. This implies that bureaucratic source of authority exerts power over supervisory associations and what and how to teach. Bureaucratic authority, in this situation, manifests itself as educational policy on testing.

This group of principals' response to the accountability movement may more likely manifest itself in principals whose view of curriculum, teaching and learning

revolves around conveying a predetermined and sequenced set of knowledge and skills that reflect the content of the standardized tests. In this case, they may perceive themselves only at the level of decision-maker and judges of the teachers. Hence, their roles is to make decisions about the most effective curriculum and teaching methods that are aligned with standards and then to conduct quality control of this process.

Other principals and teachers may interpret “No Child Left Behind” educational policy as something to be considered among all the other issues that are factored into the educational process; such as teachers’ professional expertise on what is known currently about responsive and enriching practices for student learning and development and the teachers’ role as educators. In this case, professional authority influences teaching and learning.

For this group of principals and teachers, a single specified response would be difficult to imagine because their responses would emerge from their associations with each other. The educational process would be dynamic requiring an ongoing quest to generate answers as to what is best to teach and how best to teach it for a specific group of students. Principals operating from this perspective would see their own thinking connected with teachers’ thinking and would see carrying out these thoughts together rather than being distanced from this process.

In other words, principals’ and teachers’ responses to educational policies, such as standardized achievement tests and teacher accountability would differ. This difference would stem from the sources of authority that principals and teachers use to control and guide their deliberations and actions.

Research Questions

Four principals were studied, each working with one kindergarten teacher who was also a participant in the study. The analysis of the “Knowledge Questionnaire” indicated that these principals had differing amounts of knowledge of developmentally appropriate practices (DAP). The analysis of the “Supervisory Questionnaire” showed that two of the principals (Principals A and D) had contrasting and the remaining two had eclectic supervisory views. It is essential to note that knowledge of DAP was used as a criterion and technique to select participants for this study, but it was not a motivation.

Two primary aims are: (1) to describe supervisory associations between principals and teachers and (2) to evaluate how perceived supervisory associations affect curriculum and classroom practices. In order to achieve these aims, the researcher generated data from elementary school principals and kindergarten teachers with the following questions in mind:

1. How do principals and kindergarten teachers portray their supervisory associations?
2. How do these portrayals relate to scholarly information about supervisory associations?
3. How do the supervisory associations impact kindergarten curriculum and teaching?
4. How do principals and kindergarten teachers perceive each other in relation to their espoused platform of kindergarten teaching and curriculum?

Need for the Study

Early childhood programs are becoming an ever-greater part of public school systems. This blend brings together its own challenges and benefits. Wortham (1995) stated that early childhood teachers in public schools are in a position where they are influenced by “trends, innovations, and expectations” (p.175) in both early childhood and elementary education. However, since some of these trends and expectations are incompatible, disappointment is felt by teachers who strive to provide children with quality early experiences. For instance, a teacher who uses a whole language approach for literacy instruction may “be expected to drill children on the skills that will appear on standardized tests” (p.175). Public school education and early childhood education each possess characteristics and philosophies that are unique. Integrating the institutions and philosophies of the public schools and early childhood education may not happen in a bi-directional or balanced fashion. More likely, early childhood programs will adapt to the philosophies of the public schools since upper grades are what come next at the conclusion of early childhood programs. Many individuals perceive that the purpose of early childhood experiences is solely in preparation for public schooling. In order to transcend this limited perception of early childhood programs, more attention needs to be paid to how the characteristics of public school impact the early childhood curriculum and teachers.

More specifically, public school factors, such as the supervisory associations that exist between principals and kindergarten teachers should be examined to illuminate its impact on curriculum and teaching. What are the expectations of supervisors and teachers with respect kindergarten curriculum and teaching? Do these expectations

overlook what is important in a kindergarten curriculum and teaching? What are the factors that influence supervisory associations between principals and kindergarten teachers? Do kindergarten teachers impact supervisory associations? Examining how supervisory associations influence kindergarten curriculum and teaching will serve efforts to better understand and appreciate the distinguishing features of kindergarten curriculum and teachers. A deeper understanding of current supervisory practices used with kindergarten teachers may also provide a basis for other research studies directed towards examining the processes and effectiveness of various supervision associations in public school settings.

There is a need to know more about how principals and kindergarten teachers can work collaboratively to generate and implement high quality curriculum. A better understanding is needed concerning supervisory practices that present teachers with opportunities to construct curriculum. Curriculum that not only reflects a holistic view of children's learning, but also one which values and incorporates within it the social context of children's learning and development (*i.e.* their families and communities). This study aims to contribute to ECE by generating new knowledge about the supervisory associations. These associations can provide either a supportive context or unsupportive context for teachers who desire to plan and implement high quality practices for young children.

In this research, a preliminary survey study was done to collect descriptive information about teachers' (N=47) and principals' (N=23 (removed 3)) beliefs about DAP and about the supervisory practices of the principals. Data from this preliminary study established a background for conducting observations of the kindergarten

classrooms and interviewing teachers and principals. Moreover, the survey also introduced the instrument “Supervisory Questionnaire” to estimate supervisory models. Revision and modification of this instrument is possible based on this research in order to generate better information in the future about supervisory practices pertaining to early childhood settings. Interviews examined in some detail show the issue of the nature of supervisory associations and how they influence kindergarten curriculum and teaching. Classroom observations examined the nature of learning activities and teaching strategies. Analysis of the data included inferring patterns and themes in the participants’ responses and drawing connections to major concepts from the relevant literature reviewed in chapter two.

Synopsis of the Study

Eight chapters comprise this dissertation. Chapter one states the problem, the importance of the study, and the research questions aimed to be answered. Chapter two reviews the literature to establish the basis for the study which is informed by five bodies of knowledge: (1) supervision of teachers that includes definitions, functions, notions of supervision, and teacher-supervisor associations, (2) influences of public school system’s on supervision and kindergarten curriculum, (3) influences on kindergarten curriculum that stem from the field of early childhood education, (4) present debates on curriculum, and (5) research on supervision in ECE programs.

Methodological components of the study described in chapter three are: (1) sample selection, (2) the instruments used in the preliminary survey study (Results of the preliminary survey study can be found in Appendix C, (3) participant principals and

teachers, (4) the kindergarten classrooms, (5) data generation techniques and (6) strategies for analysis.

The chapters four, five, six, and seven contain the case studies: Encompassing the results of the studies of principal A and teacher A, principal B and teacher B, principal C and teacher C, and principal D and teacher D, respectively. Each of these chapters includes findings in relation to the participants' supervisory associations, perceptions on curriculum, classroom practices, and synopsis.

The discussion and conclusion of this study are included in chapter eight. Comparisons across the cases are made and emerging themes are presented in connection with relevant literature. Also included are a statement of the limitations of the study followed by the strengths of the study, a statement of what this research contributes to the field, as well as a statement about directions for future research on the topic of this dissertation.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The information presented in this study is gathered from five bodies of knowledge: (1) supervision of teachers including functions, notions of supervision, and teacher-supervisor associations, (2) influences of the respective public school system's on supervision and kindergarten curriculum, (3) influences on kindergarten curriculum that stem from the field of early childhood education, (4) current debates on curriculum, and (5) research on supervision in early childhood education programs.

The literature was searched through database, electronic catalog, readings in current issues of professional journals, and World Wide Websites. The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) database was an essential tool for locating resources, such as research and/or opinion articles, and position statements on ECE curriculum. When searching the ERIC database, the researcher used different terms, such as early childhood curriculum, kindergarten teachers and principals, and supervision of kindergarten teachers to acquire a varied set of articles. The electronic catalog mainly served to locate books about trends and issues in early childhood education (ECE), curriculum theory, and supervision. Readings in recent issues of professional journals helped understand reactions of educators on present influences on ECE curriculum, such as educational policies and their implications, alternatives generated for replacing confined and or uni-dimensional practices. The websites were helpful to review information about academic standards.

The first part of the literature review deals with the supervision of teachers including functions of supervision, notions of supervision, and teacher-supervisor

associations. It provides the reader with theoretical knowledge that has been developed about different types of supervision and supervisory associations over the years.

The second part of the literature review continues with information on how public school system's trends and expectations directly influence kindergarten curriculum. In an area, such as the accountability movement, the review shows that the kindergarten curriculum and teachers are influenced to have a more academically-oriented curriculum to be compatible with the trend.

The third part of this literature discusses the influences on kindergarten curriculum that stem from the field of early childhood education. There is support for curriculum that includes developmentally appropriate practices (DAP). This helps the reader to see the focus of DAP oriented view, how instruction is carried out, and how children are perceived.

Research on both academically and DAP oriented curriculum is also presented to demonstrate the impacts of both views on children's development and learning. Both theoretical information and empirical research on these views of curriculum serves to produce a link between how a curricular perspective is implemented and what outcomes it generates in children.

The fourth part of the literature review focuses on the present debates on ECE curriculum. This section helps the reader to see the point that neither academically oriented nor DAP oriented curriculum are not broad enough. It explains why educators and researchers who partake in these debates call for more inclusive and responsive early childhood practices.

The last section of the literature review includes research on supervision in ECE programs. Also, it illuminates the factors that influence the effectiveness of principals' supervisory practices as carried out with kindergarten teachers. The principals' knowledge about and experience in ECE and the amount of time and the degree of attention paid to supervision directly influences the level of effectiveness.

Supervision of Teachers

Functions of Supervision

Over the years, a variety of functions of supervision have been discussed in the literature: "direct assistance" (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 1998, p.295), "curriculum development, group development, organizational development, staff/professional development, and action research" (Glickman et al., 1998, p.295; Waite, 2000, p.284). The focus of direct assistance is to improve instruction through one-on-one correspondence. Direct assistance subsumes other forms, such as "demonstration teaching, co-teaching, assisting with resources and materials, assistance with student assessment, problem solving, peer coaching, and clinical supervision" (Glickman et al., 1998, pp. 307-308). Group development provides teachers with opportunities to work with other teachers on instructional problems. Professional development deals with engaging in learning experiences. Through curriculum development, supervisors aim to provide teachers with chances to work on curriculum content and teaching strategies. Action research encourages teachers to use avenues to examine and assess their own teaching to improve instruction.

The most commonly known form of direct assistance is clinical supervision, which focuses upon improving teachers' teaching behaviors. Through classroom observation, the data are collected on "teachers' and students' in-class behavior" (Cogan, 1973, p.9) and then analyzed. In other words, the events and interactions taking place during the process of teaching and learning constitutes the clinical sphere. The underlying belief is that students' learning can be improved through enhancing the teacher's classroom performance. Emphasizing a connection between clinical supervision and teachers' professional development, Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998) argued that clinical supervision aims at bettering teaching and professional growth through one-on-one interactions.

Clinical supervision has been put into practice by some as a technical endeavor and by others as a construct for generating meanings within the phenomenon of education. For Garman (1982), the first represents "itinerant" supervisors who pursue the phases of clinical supervision, pre-conference, classroom observation, and post-conference, in a mechanical manner. The method of clinical supervision then becomes essential. The latter is "clinical disposition" in Garman's eyes which leads individuals to perceive and operate as if the "cycle of supervision were a metaphor as well as a method" (p.52). The driving forces behind the supervision are the concepts of "collegiality", "collaboration", "skilled service", and "ethical conduct" (p.38).

Unfortunately, supervision of teachers in public schools is long associated with teacher evaluation (Ebmeier, 2003; Waite, 1995) and hierarchy-based relationships that place principals in an expert position and teachers in a non-expert position. Due to these emphases, both in theory and practice, teaching is perceived to be objective, and

supervision is thought of as a mechanism to reveal imperfect aspects of teaching. Resulting supervisory practices are “intervention[s] that is imposed upon teachers” (Reitzug, 1997, p.337). Such view of supervision has maintained its power over the years. Pointing out this stagnant nature of supervision, Synder (1997) claims that while the realities of the world of schools change over time the supervisory practices are unable to renew themselves. Hence, supervision becomes an obstacle rather than acting as a facilitator for resolving problems of and enhancing current conditions of schooling.

Educators have been suggesting ways for generating more beneficial supervisory experiences. One such suggestion comes from Waite and Fernandes (2000). They deem that supervision should be more “inclusive, more democratic, more egalitarian” (p.207). Another suggestion is proposed by Smyth (1997). He asserts that any endeavor “within supervision would be not merely to focus on instructional behavior but to canvass somewhat wider to put the analytic spotlight on the structure, context, and location within which teaching and learning are occurring and to uncover in what ways these are deficient” (p.290). This way, Smyth believes, more analytical work and studies on broader conception of supervision can be carried out.

Analogously, Sergiovanni and Starratt, (1998) urge educators to consider supervision from a broader perspective through recognizing the interconnectedness of general and clinical supervision. They argue that the low quality of overall aspects of supervision and clinical supervision may threaten the quality of the other. For instance, efforts for improving teaching performance may more likely take place in a supportive school climate. All different areas of supervision affect classroom life (Waite, 1995) and

thus division of supervision into pieces diminishes its effect on the teaching and learning phenomena (Waite, 2000).

The researcher concurs with Waite and Fernandes (2000) and Smyth's (1997) suggestions for supervision and consider them as an integral part of Sergiovanni's and Starratt's (1998) definition of supervision: "Supervision is a process designed to help teachers and supervisors learn more about their practice, to be better able to use their knowledge and skills to serve parents and schools, and to make the school a more effective learning community" (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998, p.50). The reason the researcher like this definition is two fold. First, this definition conceives supervision as a process. The focus here is on developing understandings about the realities of particular classrooms. Second, it considers this process as a contributor both teachers' and supervisors' professional development.

Combined together, Smyth's (1997) and Sergiovanni's and Starratt's (1998) ideas bring about a more comprehensive way of thinking of supervision. Smyth's (1997)'s emphasis on structure and context leads us to examine "...education system roles and relationships, including operating procedures, shared beliefs, and collective norms (Cornbleth, Ellsworth, Forni, Noffke, & Pfalzer, 1991, p.8). With their definition of supervision, Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998) invite us to recognize biographical contextual influences including "...personal experience, knowledge, and beliefs of teachers, students, and other school people" (Cornbleth et al., 1991, p.8). Any supervisory initiative should recognize the fact that teaching is a complex phenomenon. It entails an ongoing inquiry into teaching, rather than a supervision that is carried out with one-time classroom visits for revealing deficiencies of teachers (Reitzug, 1997). In

summary, better understandings and more meaningful supervisory relationships can be generated through considering the importance of relational and personal features.

As is discussed different the notions of supervision and types of supervisory associations below, not all types of the notions or associations recognize the importance of biographical contextual features or an egalitarian relationship. For instance, applied-technical notion of supervision values scientific knowledge over teachers' practical knowledge and thus leads to super-subordinate supervisory associations.

Notions of Supervision

Supervision can be examined in light of three notions: the applied science-technical notion, the interpretive-practical notion, and the critical-emancipatory notion (May, 1989).

Applied Science-Technical Notion of Supervision. This view of supervision is guided by the “empirical-analytical sciences” (Glanz, 1997, p.78). It focuses on attaining effective teaching behaviors and skills as determined by research. Hence, this set of effective teaching behaviors and skills establishes standards to be followed by all teachers regardless of their classroom environment (Pajak, 1993).

This notion postulates a technical supervisory process in which higher ranked authority is privileged to supervise teaching process. The hierarchy grants the supervisor with responsibilities of identifying deficiencies in teachers' performance through conducting classroom observations (Glanz, 1997). One way this notion of supervision is implemented is through a narrative or checklist-driven process completed via classroom observations. Supervision of teachers in public schools is traditionally associated with

this type of implementation (Oja & Reiman, 1998; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998; Vandiver, 2000). In the literature on supervision, several other specific terms have been used to define this type of supervision, such as “bureaucratic inspectional supervision” (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000, p.25), “traditional administrative evaluation” (Gitlin & Price 1992, p.63), or “standards-referenced teacher evaluation” (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998, p.225).

The main purpose here is to do a “quality control” for documenting that teachers have fulfilled minimum requirements (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998, p.225). Supervisors aim to insure that teachers’ performance is measuring up to universally acknowledged standards of teaching (Smyth, 1997). The supervisor is the source of knowledge about teaching within this role and transmits this body of knowledge to teachers. The responsibility of teachers is to learn and put expert knowledge into practice in their classrooms (Pajak, 1993) with policy requirements, mandatory in-service, or teacher proof curriculum materials (May, 1989).

The applied science notion of supervision can be traced to two factors. The first factor stems from the historical domination of supervisors as inspectors in public schools. The second factor deals with time constraints and lack of help for high quality supervision (Caruso, 1989). Regardless of the reason behind it, attention is paid to how practicing supervision this way fosters or hinders the quality of teaching and learning. Several scholars agree that this type of supervision becomes a ritual or formality more than a professionally enhancing endeavor. Reflected in the fact that little or no attention in most cases is paid to the knowledge of the context, the students (Caruso, 1989), and

the teachers; and presents limited or no opportunity for educative discourse (Abbey, 2000; Vandiver, 2000); and disowns present schooling actualities (Synder, 1997).

Interpretive-Practical Notion of Supervision. This notion considers teachers at the center by recognizing their unique characteristics, such as their values, beliefs, and knowledge generated through practice. Teachers determine concerns or predicaments in efforts to augment curriculum quality. Supervisors operate as facilitators in this process. The emphasis given to human relations becomes apparent in these words: “Such a supervisor is likely to act in ways that enhance interpersonal skills, establish trust, nurture teacher reflectivity, and assist teachers in developing collegial relationships” (p.729). Dialogue among teachers and between teachers and supervisors is seen as a way to foster collaboration in the school context (May, 1989).

An example of an interpretive-practical notion of supervision is Garman’s (1982) characterization of clinical supervision. She considers clinical supervision as a construct that is guided by essential concepts. Some of these concepts are “collegiality, collaboration, skilled service...” (p.35).

Critical-Emancipatory Notion of Supervision. In the critical-emancipatory notion of supervision, teachers and supervisors are seen as reflective practitioners (May, 1989). Educators take into account the surrounding contexts, “personal, social, organizational, historical, political, and cultural” in which they teach (p.231). These contextual factors then form both teaching and learning. Having a critical perspective entails “analyzing, reflecting on and engaging in discourse about the nature and effects of practical aspects of teaching and how they might have been altered” (Smyth, 1991, p.44). They reflect

upon their theoretical understandings, beliefs, curriculum, materials, and teaching and they take action in light of the values of “justice and equity” (p.233). The differences among students inform and guide the teaching process (Pajak, 1993). From this perspective, supervisors and teachers are in a continuous effort to examine not only teaching and learning, but also supervisor-teacher associations (Smyth, 1991).

According to Schon (1983), critically examining teaching practices honors individuals with opportunities for generating and using their own knowledge about their practice. The importance of such knowledge stems from the fact that it is dynamic rather than fixed, and it does not rely on the validation of external authorities (cited in Smyth, 1991).

In sum, each of these notions of supervision is in support of different teacher/supervisor relationships, which will be discussed in the following section. In some school contexts one notion may be predominant over other notions. However, considering the complex technical, practical, and political nature of schooling, May (1989) raises the issue of recognizing a balance among all these different notions.

Supervisory Associations

Supervision is carried out through associations that can take place among teachers or between a supervisor and teacher. The nature of supervisory associations can be generated with values that bring teachers and supervisors together or can be imposed upon teachers by a superior. Depending upon which one of these two routes one chooses, the nature of association will be affected. For instance, if a supervisor proceeds with imposing upon associations, she/he conveys doubt and hostility to teachers. In contrast,

the notion of generating relationships relies on several principles, such as sharing power, dedicating enough effort and time, respect, understanding. The latter is the “real heart of supervision” (Waite, 2000, p.288) since fostering teacher-supervisor associations is a fundamental component in enhancing quality of teaching and learning.

According to Cogan (1973), a variety of teacher-supervisor associations exist. Some of them are: superior-subordinate relationship, teacher-student relationship, supervisor as evaluator, helping relationship in supervision, and collegueship. He argues that the nature of these different types of relationships influence the effectiveness of clinical supervision. In his opinion, clinical supervision as collegueship is the most effective one for improving instruction. In addition, collegiality is suggested toward generating more egalitarian relationships between teachers and supervisors (Garman, 1982).

All of these types of supervisory associations have different source(s) of authority from which supervisors and teachers operate: bureaucratic, technical rationality, personal, professional, and moral. Authority encompasses the “power to influence thought and behavior” (Sergiovanni, 1992b, p.36). It penetrates into a variety of supervisory dialogues ranging from a teacher’s inner talk to his/her dialogue with other teachers and supervisors (Waite, 2000).

According to Sergiovanni and Starratt, (1998) each of these different sources of authority “is legitimate and should be used (p.37), however, the important point is the fact that “the impact on teachers and on the teaching, and learning process depends on which sources or combination of sources is prime” (p.37). Thus, resulting actions and

reactions of teachers and supervisors derived from different sources of authority can illuminate the experiences, which form the supervisory.

For example, super-subordinate and supervisor as evaluator types of supervisory associations may come about by the primary use of bureaucratic and technical rationality sources of authority (Sergiovanni, 1992a). Bureaucratic authority originates from institutional rules, regulations, expectations, and job descriptions through which hierarchical power is institutionalized (Smyth, Dow, Hattam, Reid, & Shacklock, 2000). Technical-Rational authority requires operating in accordance with educational research findings and opinions of experts on effective teaching behaviors (Sergiovanni, 1992a). Teaching materials carrying these research findings and experts' ideas then becomes the source of control (Smyth et al., 2000). Their commonality stems from a traditional conception of power, which is "power over someone" (Dunlap & Goldman, 1991, p.13). For instance, technical rationality authority prevails over one's associations with teachers. Teaching behaviors of these teachers are shaped based on what scientific research says regardless of their own espoused platform. In such a situation, the supervisor's authority of technical rational dominates the teachers' own internal authority (Waite, 2000).

A supervisory association defined by collegiality may generate from professional and moral sources of authorities. Professional authority conveys expectations for educators' behaviors that are consistent with "common socialization, accepted tenets of practice, and internalized expertise" (Sergiovanni, 1992a, p.204). Moral authority stems from shared "obligations and duties derived from widely shared community values, ideas, and ideals" (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998, p.48). The operating power in professional and moral authorities is facilitative which is displayed when the "professional power of

the administrator to help with teaching is exercised through the professional power of the teacher” (p.22). This process fosters attempts to “enhance their individual and collective performance” (Dunlap & Goldman, 1991, p.13). In such contexts, “control as a guiding principle” (Synder, 1997, p.300), is not recognized since it perpetuates the hierarchical associations between supervisors and teachers.

Supervisory associations that nurture open and constructive inquiry into factors that encumber enhancement of responsive teaching and learning experiences possess unique aspects. Among them are: “be built on a foundation of love and respect, assume that the other party is well intentioned, strive for understanding; practice answerability, honor the agency of the teacher, while acknowledging the tensions in negotiated social processes” (p.288). All of these aspects of fostering supervisory associations are interconnected (Waite, 2000).

Considering the previous discussion on three notions of supervision with the types of teacher-supervisor associations leads the following combination. The applied science-technical approach will foster super-subordinate associations due to its prevailing emphasis on scientific as the most reliable knowledge. Under this circumstance, educators become subordinate to the knowledge produced through scientific research in making curricular and pedagogical decisions. The interpretive and the critical approaches would be more compatible with collegueship and collegial type teacher-supervisor associations due to the emphasis on ‘person’ in the interpretive and the egalitarian perspective in the critical notion.

Influence of Public School System on Supervision and Curriculum

Bureaucratization of education and supervision has gained momentum in recent years. Some scholars argue that global competitiveness is a reason behind it (Symth, 1997; Waite & Fernandes, 2000). The demands of such bureaucratization are conveyed to administrators, supervisors, and teachers through district, state and national requirements. While this creates an “intensification” of workload in school context (Waite, 2000; Waite & Fernandes, 2000), it drifts teachers’ time and attention away from working analytically and collectively on core issues and predicaments (Moore & Reid, 1990). Current emphasis on meeting academic achievement standards and maintaining teacher accountability reflects bureaucratized functions of supervisors that are politically motivated and imposed upon educators (Waite, 2000; Waite & Fernandes, 2000).

Accountability Movement and Curriculum

Accountability contains “student learning, teaching (behaviors), student achievement...” (Waite, Boone, & Mcghee, 2001). It brings in both testing of student achievement as its focal point (Waite, 2001) and measurement of teachers’ behavior up against standards of effective teaching (Poole, 1994).

The “accountability movement” in public school system has been demonstrating its influence in the kindergarten curriculum. Public schools have taken initiatives to redesign their kindergarten goals in accordance with the state standards on academic achievement. The goals for kindergarten are determined in terms of academic skills such as “reading by 1st grade, counting to 100.” With this initiative, the aim of kindergarten becomes preparing kindergartners for “state-mandated large-scale assessments”

(Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 2001, p.2). However, the use of tests in kindergarten for different reasons such as admission tests for kindergarten entry and advancement to first grade become more prevalent, which has resulted in several other outcomes, such as staying in kindergarten one more year or being prevented from starting first grade. The impact of these standardized tests has given early childhood curriculum a more academic nature (Gordon & Williams-Browne, 2000). This focus, in turn, has neglected the use of current understandings about children and education. Teachers, principals, and school administrators are often overly concerned about improving the test scores of children which they feel rationalize the use of an academically oriented curriculum as described below.

Academically Oriented Curriculum

The curriculum that focuses on academics is influenced by behaviorist theory, which defines learning of academic skills as “observable behavior.” Children are seen as an “empty vessel to be gradually filled by the environment” (Trawick-Smith, 2000, p.42). Proponents of academically oriented curriculum place a great deal emphasis on teaching basic literacy and numeracy skills (ASCD ECE Policy Panel, 1988). In such kindergarten classrooms the curriculum is delivered through workbooks and other exercises aimed at teaching academic skills. Curriculum consists for the most part in prearranged, ordered, and decontextualized pieces of information. The role of teacher is to convey this information through individual or small group instruction (Katz, 1999).

Traditional subject matters such as math and science are considered in an isolated way (Hart, Burts, & Charlesworth, 1997). The teacher explicitly specifies each day’s

academic lessons' content and organization. For example, a sequenced series of activities are planned to assist children improve their skills in literacy and numeracy (ASCD ECE Policy Panel, 1988). The use of extrinsic rewards for motivating children and standardized assessment tests are among the characteristics of academically oriented curriculum (Stipek, Daniels, Galluzzo, & Milburn, 1992).

Kindergarten teachers in public schools feel pressure from parents, administrators, and other teachers to focus on formal instruction of basic skills (Nelson, 2000; Stipek, Rosenblatt, & DiRocco, 1994). Early childhood curriculum has increasingly come to resemble the elementary school by supporting the use of overly academic developmentally inappropriate practices for the education of young children (Burts, Champbell, Hart, Charlesworth, DeWolf, & Fleege, 1992; Dunn & Kontos, 1997; Elkind, 1981; Hitz & Wright, 1988; NAEYC, 1990).

Why do administrators and parents support academically oriented curriculum? Administrators may support academically oriented curriculum for different reasons, such as pressure from superintendents who often the lack of knowledge of DAP (Elkind, 1981), as well as inadequate training in early childhood education in general (Charlesworth et al., 1993). Katz (1999) has pointed out two reasons behind the increasing attractiveness of academically-oriented curriculum: (1) guaranteeing readiness for the following grade level and (2) so called belief of lessening importance of play as an innate avenue of learning.

The reasons behind parents' decision for high-pressure academically oriented curriculum may stem from a variety of sources. For instance, some parents' decision to send their children to these kind of programs is affected by social pressure, by the

difficulty of financial responsibility, and by the feeling of guilt for leaving their child to go to work (Elkind, 1986). Another factor that may encourage parents to prefer inappropriate practices is the fact that inappropriate practices might result in fast and short-range improvement (Haupt & Ostlund, 1997).

Research on parents' preferences of early childhood programs suggests that parents hold beliefs about how children learn academic skills, which in turn impacts the type of learning environment they create at home, and the kind of school they choose. Parents' educational level (DeBaryshe, 1995; Stipek, Milburn, Clements, & Daniels, 1992) and income (DeBaryshe, 1995) have been found to influence parents' beliefs (Haupt & Ostlund, 1997).

Influence of Early Childhood Field on Curriculum

Opposed using an academic curriculum, some educators within the field of early childhood education support a curriculum that is aligned with developmentally appropriate practices.

DAP Oriented Curriculum

An opposing orientation to the academic curriculum is the constructivist orientation, which is influenced by the work of Piaget. From a constructivist perspective, children are inherently active and inherently oriented towards adaptation that takes place through assimilation and accommodation of new experiences. Thus, they do not receive knowledge passively, but rather children construct knowledge actively. This view is called constructivism (Noori, 1994).

Constructivist theory establishes a base for the philosophy of the position statements published by the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) (Bredekamp, 1987; Bredekamp & Copple, 1997) on “developmentally appropriate practices” (DAP). Curriculum from this perspective focuses on fostering children’s development and learning in all domains of development, encompassing, emotional, physical, cognitive, and social. It considers how children learn and what each individual child’s needs and interests are (Bredekamp & Rosegrant, 1992; Bredekamp & Copple, 1997; Hart, Burts, & Charlesworth, 1997). By interacting with and observing, teachers expand their knowledge of children’s individual differences, which in turn determines the type of instructional approach that the teachers need to use, such as directive, mediating, and nondirective (Bredekamp & Rosegrant, 1992).

Proponents of DAP contend that different curriculum areas can be integrated through activities that both recognize and support children’s active involvement with their environment. In this perspective of curriculum, play becomes a vehicle for linking force between skills and knowledge and children’s modes of learning (Seefeldt, 1999). Hence, the teachers value child-initiated, child-directed, and teacher-supported play for providing children with appropriate practices (Hyun, 1998).

NAEYC’s position statement was a reaction to the potentially adverse consequences of formal instruction of academic skills, readiness testing, and kindergarten retention in early childhood programs. NAEYC defines developmentally appropriate practice as the "outcome of a process of teacher decision making that draws on at least three critical, interrelated bodies of knowledge: (1) what teachers know about how children develop and learn; (2) what teachers know about the individual children in their

group; and (3) knowledge of the social and cultural context in which those children live and learn" (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997, vii). In other words, DAP has three main components: age appropriateness, individual appropriateness, and social and cultural appropriateness. Age and developmental appropriateness addresses the need to take into account the stages and level of child development in different developmental domains (e.g. linguistic, social-emotional, cognitive etc.) and in planning educational programs for children. Individual appropriateness addresses the necessity of perceiving each child as a unique individual with respect to his/her development, experience, culture, gender, or disabilities (Charlesworth, Hart, Burts, & DeWolf, 1993, p.5). Finally, a focus on social and cultural appropriateness is intended to "ensure that learning experiences are meaningful, relevant, and respectful for the participating children and their families" (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997).

Research on Academic and DAP Oriented Curriculum

Research suggests that there are educational benefits to DAP. The philosophy and purpose of DAP shows promise for producing better educational practices for the development and the learning of children. Children who enrolled in developmentally appropriate programs seem to show less stressful behaviors (Burts, Hart, Charlesworth, & Kirk, 1990; Hart, Charlesworth, DeWolf, & Fleege, 1998), more positive attitudes about school (Hyson, Hirsh-Pasek, & Rescorla, 1990), and more positive perception of self-competence (Jambunathan, Burts, & Pierce, 1999). Also, children in developmentally appropriate classrooms appear to be better divergent thinkers (Hyson, Hirsh-Pasek, &

Rescorla, 1990), stronger in academic skills (Charlesworth, Hart, Burts, & DeWoolf, 1993; Marcon, 1992) and in staying on-task in learning situation (Day & Drake, 1986).

In examining what influences teachers' knowledge of DAP researchers in this area have focused on several factors: type of education (Snider & Fu, 1990), level of education (Elicker, Huang, & Wen, 2003) certification level, years of teaching experience (McMullen, 1999; McMullen, 2003), belief in one's power to influence her/his practice (Charlesworth, Hart, Burts, & Hernandez, 1991), professional training (Elicker, Huang, & Wen, 2003), and teachers' involvement in their professional development in an active manner (McMullen, 2003). Charlesworth, Hart, Burts, and Hernandez, (1991). Research suggests that teachers who believe that they have more control over their teaching behaviors than any other stakeholders of education, such as parents, state policies, principals, are more likely to have DAP.

In a study, Snider and Fu (1990) asked teachers to rate audiotaped vignettes of teacher-child interactions by using the concepts of inappropriate and appropriate. Teachers who majored in child development and ECE responded to these vignettes in more developmentally appropriate fashion than teachers who had other degrees. Additionally, teachers who had training and supervised practical experience in child development and ECE had higher scores on DAP measurement.

McMullen, (2003) investigated factors that affect DAP related beliefs and teaching behaviors by utilizing a mixed methodology consisting of observations, interviews, and a survey. She found that DAP is influenced by education level, type of education, teaching experience, involvement in professional development activities. Teachers with low educational level, such as high school, had less DAP related beliefs

and teaching behaviors than at other educational levels. The beliefs and practices of teachers who had elementary education background had less related to DAP and other ECE and/or child development background. Experienced teachers also demonstrated stronger beliefs and practices of DAP. Lastly, teachers who were involved in their professional development in an active manner had stronger DAP beliefs and practices.

Research has also indicated that it is not unusual for discrepancies to exist between DAP beliefs or knowledge held by teachers and teachers' actual practices in the classroom. Studies reveal an inconsistency between beliefs and practices and find that teachers usually report more developmentally appropriate beliefs, but engage in less appropriate practices in their classrooms (Hatch & Freeman, 1988; Hyson, Hirsh-Pasek, & Rescorla, 1990).

In their ethnographic interview study, Hatch and Freeman, (1988) demonstrated a discrepancy between teachers' beliefs and practices. Teachers' classroom behaviors were coherent with ideas of behaviorist orientation while their beliefs were in support of DAP. Similarly, Hyson, Hirsh-Pasek, and Rescorla, (1990) studied 10 preschool programs. They looked into teachers' reported beliefs and teaching behaviors. The results indicated that reported beliefs were more aligned with child-centered orientation than observed teaching behaviors.

Several sources have demonstrated reasons behind teachers' inconsistencies between their beliefs and classroom practices. Among these sources are parents (Stipek & Byler, 1997; Jones, Burts, & Buchanan, 2000), administrators, resources, other teachers (Jones, Burts, & Buchanan, 2000), teachers' low educational level, and professional training (Elicker, Huang, & Wen (2003). In addition, teachers' views on

basic academic skills and standardized tests constitute two other reasons behind the inconsistency between their beliefs and classroom practices (McMullen, 1999; Stipek & Byler, 1997). For instance, in their study on the relationship between teachers' beliefs, goals for education, and their teaching, Stipek and Byler (1997) found that teachers who believed in formal instructional approach recognized the value of standardized tests more than teachers' of child-centered orientation.

In summary, numerous studies point to the fact that teachers' practices are influenced by a variety of factors. Some of these factors are related to teacher characteristics, such as belief in their own power or authority, teachers' educational views, and active involvement in professional development activities. Other factors stem from contextual influences, such as administrators, other teachers, and parents. Some of these factors, such as a teachers' background in majors other than child development or ECE and administrative pressure lead to inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and teaching behaviors. Conversely, factors such as administrative support and active involvement in professional development activities foster a consistency between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices.

Present Curriculum Debates

Current debates over early childhood curriculum continue to point out the shortcomings of both the academically oriented curriculum and the developmentally oriented curriculum. In its recent publication on curriculum update, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (2001) incorporated some educators' responses to the movement toward more academics in kindergarten. Some educators' reactions, such as those of Katz (2001), Neuman (2001), and Hyson (2001), went beyond

criticizing this movement toward a more academic kindergarten, and call attention to a broader perspective that transcends the dichotomization of academically -and developmentally-oriented perspectives. Rather, they invited educators to work for high-quality early childhood programs. For instance, Katz pointed out that the absence of testing in an early childhood program does not justify the quality of the existing practices of that program. In other words, not doing what more academically oriented programs do is not an indicator of a programs' quality. More specifically, Hyson (2001) calls attention to the importance of considering "social and emotional needs" (p.2) as part of the efforts toward producing better early childhood programs.

From Katz (1999) perspective, both programs fail to notice "curriculum and teaching methods that address children's intellectual development as distinct from the instructivist emphasis on academic learning and the constructivist emphasis on children's play and self-initiated learning" (p.3). A rigid academically oriented program may neglect "the disposition to use the knowledge and skills so intensely instructed" (p.3). The constructivist approach deals with educators' misinterpretation of its principles about the importance of play and self-initiated learning. In effect, some practitioners take these principles to mean the total exclusion of any kind of instruction in academic skills.

Katz (1988) earlier proposed the consideration of four types of learning goals in ECE: knowledge, skills, dispositions, and feelings. In the early childhood years, "knowledge may be considered as information, ideas, stories, facts, concepts, schemes, songs, and names. Skills are small units of action or behaviors that are easily observed and occur in brief periods. Dispositions can be perceived as enduring habits of mind or characteristic ways of responding to experience across types of situations. For instance,

curiosity is a positive disposition, and learned helplessness is a negative disposition. Feelings refer to subjective emotional or affective states” (p.35) such as sense of belonging and self-confidence.

This dichotomization of academic from developmental at the theoretical and practice level has led to uni-dimensional curriculum goals and teaching methods while neglecting other dimensions that include and transcend both academic and constructivist perspectives. A need for a multidimensional orientation to curriculum is apparent in the field of early childhood education. Katz (1999) has suggested as a remedy to this dichotomization the incorporation of three dimensions into early childhood curriculum: “(1) social/emotional development, (2) intellectual development, and (3) the acquisition of meaningful and useful academic skills” (p.4).

Additionally, other educators have discussed different areas to be considered in ECE. Academic disciplines, curricular materials (Bredekamp & Rosegrant, 1992) the teacher and the milieu including family, the classroom, school, and the community should be considered as foundational centers of curriculum (Schwab, 1983). Even though none of the foundational centers in curriculum making is the sole origin of decision, depending on the condition, any one of them can be organized to be the source for a particular situation. Hence, harmonization, rather than domination should characterize the relation of these foundational centers (Schwab, 1983). While early childhood adherents might favor one particular foundational center of curriculum over another (Kostelnik, Soderman, & Whiren, 1999), educators should not lose sight of the concrete differences among these centers (and their corresponding beliefs and features)

and how these differences pertain to the value commitments underlying curriculum decisions.

Key to the curriculum mix are the teachers: what they know and understand, feel and value, and ultimately do while interacting with early childhood learners, subject matter, and the multiple contexts that constitute this interactive arena. Teachers' personal value commitments shape and color all of this work, through the decisions they make while teaching. Knowledge about child development, individual children and their social and cultural contexts are fundamental in making these teaching decisions within programs that view development and learning from multiple perspectives and value families.

These present curriculum debates seem to pave the way for the emerging of other curriculum movements. Seefeldt (1999) refers to these curriculum movements as "recognizing diversity" and "reconceptualization of the field." Drawing attention to the changing nature of the early childhood field, Elkind (2000) refers to "inclusion, multicultural curricula, bilingual programs, and efforts at gender equality" as being postmodern initiatives (p.282).

Recognizing Diversity

DAP as defined by NAEYC has received several criticisms from the field. Katz (1996) connects the inadequacy of child development theories with the fact that the principles of these theories were collected from a restricted sample of human experience. Thus, Katz believes that child development theory cannot present an adequate foundation for curricular and pedagogical decisions. Similarly, Lubeck (1996) claims that these

universal norms for development are gathered from studies, which included only Western, White, and middle class children. DAP is thought to be exclusive of children who are coming from a different cultural background than the culture from in which theories of DAP are based.

Already existing multicultural practices within the field of early childhood curriculum have started focusing on “not only issues of culture, language, race, gender, class, and sexual orientation, but also issues of inclusion of young children with special educational needs in general early childhood classrooms, and issues of environmentalism and consumerism” to meet all children’s needs (Seedefeldt, 1999, p.20). Anti-bias curriculum representative of this expanded view of multicultural education aims to “ensure equitable individual participation in all aspects of society and to enable people to maintain their own culture while participating together to live in a common society” (p. 391). Reaching these goals requires educators to provide the children with experiences through which they can learn to regard themselves and others more positively and learn to eradicate prejudice and discrimination (Derman-Sparks & Ramsey, 2000).

Toward Reconceptualization of the Field

Motivated by the notion of considering alternative ways of thinking about early childhood curriculum, some early childhood scholars, Cannella, 1997, Lubeck, 1991, Swadener and Kessler, 1991, have supported a movement called reconceptualization of early childhood curriculum. These theorists have approached early childhood curriculum through the lenses of “critical, postmodern, poststructural, and feminist perspectives.” The reconceptualists have dealt with “issues of continued disenfranchisement of some

populations from the early childhood educational systems, continued inequity in distribution of resources, and continued lack of recognition of the role values play in curriculum development and enactment” (Seefeldt, 1999, p.21).

Theories Behind Current Curriculum Movements

Among theories that might be considered as a basis for the movements toward diversity and reconceptualization of early childhood curriculum are sociocultural theory and critical theory. Sociocultural theory emphasizes that “thinking and learning are not as internal and individual as Piaget proposed, but rather are highly influenced by language, social interaction, and culture” (Trawick-Smith, 2000, pp. 54-55). Lev Vygotsky, the most influential theorist of this perspective, argues that “children’s participation in cultural activities with the guidance of more skilled partners allows children to internalize the tools for thinking and for taking more mature approaches to problem solving that children have practiced in social context” (Rogoff, 1990, p.14). These principles of sociocultural theory influence early childhood practices in several ways. First of all, children’s family and culture becomes a part of classroom practices. Second, having positive and supportive relationships with the children is a precondition in order for learning to take place (Gordon & Browne, 2000). Third, adults mediate children’s learning through scaffolding and fostering their private speech (Wardle, 2003).

Critical theory’s influence on early childhood curriculum can be observed in anti-bias practices through which children are encouraged to identify unfairness in school and society. The central question that governs critical theory is to determine which

educational goals, experiences, and institutional arrangements would lead to forms of life, which are mediated by justice, equality, and happiness. An overriding need is to “understand the relations among value, interest, and action and to change the world-not merely describe it or explain it. The critical theorist’s primary interest is personal and social enlightenment through critical inquiry” (May & Zimpher, 1986, p.94).

Research on Supervision in ECE

Early childhood teachers in general and kindergarten teachers in particular have unique characteristics that distinguish them from other teachers. Hence, necessitating the use of supporting services that are specifically planned for meeting their needs and for improving their practices.

Since kindergarten teachers are supervised by their principals, the principals become very important and can be a big help to teachers. The effectiveness of the principals' supervision may depend on several factors. One of the factors is the principals' knowledge about and experience in early childhood education. Principals who do not have knowledge or experience about early childhood education may experience difficulty in supervising kindergarten teachers. Because of the complexity of their responsibilities, principals cannot be expected to be a specialist on all issues regarding early childhood education. However, they need to be informed about curriculum planning techniques, criteria for making decision about the curriculum, and noticeable curriculum issues (Griffin, 1988; French, Lambert, Pena, Jensen, Roberts, 1998). The National Association of Elementary School Principals (1995) states "everyone who affects student learning, from the board of education, central office administrators, principals, teachers, to classified/support staff, and parents, must continually improve their knowledge and skills in order to ensure student learning" (p.1).

Research indicates that principals' knowledge about and support for enriching early childhood experiences are essential factors in carrying out such practices in kindergarten classrooms (Charlesworth, Hart, Burts, & DeWolf, 1993; Espinosa, 1992; French, Lambert, Pena, Jensen, & Roberts, 1998; Haupt & Ostlund, 1997; Vander Wilt &

Monroe, 1998). Without administrative support, teachers' knowledge of DAP may not be transformed to teaching behaviors in the classroom (Cassidy, Buell, Pugh-Hoese, & Russell, 1995).

Due to this lack of knowledge and experience in early childhood education, principals may impose excessive curriculum requirements for kindergartners, particularly focusing on direct instruction of literacy and math (Caruso & Fawcett, 1999). Principals often feel the pressure from superintendents' who place an emphasis on increasing scores on achievement tests and in turn direct this pressure to teachers to concentrate on teaching basic skills (Stipek, Rosenblatt, & DiRocco, 1994). Examining the importance of teachers' and principals' beliefs, Rusher, McGrevin, and Lambiotte, (1992) have discussed that teachers' and principals' perceptions become a connecting force between policy and practice. They argue that providing best practices for young children requires both the illumination of likely contradictions in policy implementation and the solutions of the conflicts.

Another factor influencing effectiveness of supervisory associations is the amount of time and the degree of attention paid to supervision. Caruso and Fawcett (1999) have suggested that principals should be committed to allocate enough time and attention for the proper supervision of early childhood teachers. It is assumed that supervision can be more satisfying and effective if supervisors have knowledge of child development and an awareness of adult development and learning.

In addition to time spent on, attention paid to, knowledge of, and experience in sensitive and responsive early childhood practices, principals' supervisory associations with their kindergarten teachers play a role in generating effective supervisory

associations. High quality supervision is considered among the factors that impact the quality of early childhood programs (NRC, 2001). Eventually through associations of principals with kindergarten teachers, the impact of supervision manifests itself in practice. For instance, state and district policies are conveyed to the kindergarten teachers through principals, but the way a principal conveys expectations and policies might be different depending on the supervisory style. Those principals who encourage reflection by using less authoritarian or directive techniques are likely to be more of a positive factor in generating responsive early childhood experiences in classrooms. However, principals may need to modify their supervisory style based on the needs of their kindergarten teachers. If teachers are low in commitment or competence, a more directive supervisory style may be warranted. In this case, contingent upon change in teachers' competence and motivation principals must be flexible and modify how the use directives.

Researchers have pointed out the lack of research on supervision in early childhood programs. Caruso (1991) drew attention to inadequate knowledge generated from research on characteristics of early childhood supervisors. Sheerer and Bloom (1998) addressed the scarcity of research on supervision within the context of early childhood in general. Also, not enough is known about the relationship between background features of supervisors and supervisory practices and how this relationship can affect program quality. Early childhood researchers need to examine the functions and impacts of supervisors on ECE programs. The question that remains to be explored in further detail is what is the nature and how effective are different types of supervisory associations for teachers working in early childhood programs.

Synopsis of the Literature Review

Five bodies of literature are used in this study: (1) supervision of teachers and teacher-supervisor associations, (2) influences of the public school system's on supervision and curriculum, (3) influences of ECE on kindergarten curriculum, (4) current debates on curriculum, and (5) research on supervision in ECE programs. These bodies of literature are relevant to this study from a variety of angles. The literature on supervision and early childhood curriculum provides the reader with both theoretical and empirical knowledge. Some theoretical studies included are helping with the conceptual background for the analysis of this study. Other studies are empirical that are used to discuss the weaknesses and strengths of theories related to curriculum.

As shown in this chapter, there is some overlap between these bodies of literature, such as types of notions of supervision and curriculum in general, but not so much with early childhood curriculum. There would be more overlap in the future because there is an increasing attention paid to kindergarten curriculum and factors influencing it, such as supervisory relationships between teachers and principals.

In this study, the data are generated using the procedures described in chapter three and analyzed and interpreted in the context of information and concepts presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the sample selection, the participants selected and their settings, the research questions, the data collection techniques, the data analysis plan, and also addresses trustworthiness and authenticity issues. Some results are given to help explain categories used in the study's methodology and design of research.

Sample Selection

This study's sample consists of elementary school principals and kindergarten teachers. Three types of samples are used: stratified, purposeful, and a subdivision of the purposefully chosen sample.

Stratified Sample

Study questionnaires were mailed to a stratified random sample (based on type of region: East, West, North, or South PA) of 89 elementary schools for distribution to their kindergarten teachers around mid -December 2000. Kindergarten teachers were asked to mail their questionnaires back to the investigator. Two reminder letters, dated January 10th and February 5th, were also sent to some schools to increase the response rate. Response rate in the end remained low (14%).

Purposeful Sample

Study questionnaires were mailed to a purposefully chosen sample of 24 elementary schools located near State College, PA. These participants were contacted

through phone or visits to their schools. After they agreed to participate in the study, the questionnaires were mailed to them.

Subdivision of Purposeful Sample

Based on their scores on the Knowledge Questionnaire and Supervisory Questionnaire, four of the principals and kindergarten teachers from the purposefully chosen participants were selected to take part in the interpretive-narrative part of the study (comparative case studies).

The Preliminary Survey Study

A survey study was done to obtain data from a sample of teachers and principals. This survey was preliminary to the comparative case study, which would require four principals and their kindergarten teachers. In the preliminary survey study, two questionnaires ("Knowledge Questionnaire" and "Supervisory Practices Questionnaire") were mailed to the stratified and purposefully chosen elementary school principals and their kindergarten teachers.

The principals' Knowledge Questionnaire had only the knowledge part, while teachers' Knowledge Questionnaire also included a part on instructional activities. Fourteen principals out of 89 and 28 kindergarten teachers out of 215 from the stratified sampling and 12 principals out of 24 and 19 out of 38 teachers from the purposeful sampling responded to the questionnaire. Four of the 12 purposefully chosen principals and four of the 19 kindergarten teachers took part also in the qualitative part of the study. The descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation scores) were calculated with

results used to help identify principals with high DAP-oriented knowledge and teachers with more or with less DAP-oriented activities in their classrooms.

The Supervisory Questionnaire was sent only to the principals and was analyzed to obtain frequencies of specific supervisory activities and their purposes as reported by principals. Also, the average rank for each activity and purpose of supervision was calculated to see which activities and purposes were more important or popular among the principals. In order to identify the three most important purposes of supervision, another average rank was computed.

Questionnaires Used in the Preliminary Survey Study

For the purpose of sampling, two different questionnaires were used in the preliminary study. The first questionnaire, "Knowledge Questionnaire," was used for measuring teachers' and principals' preferences regarding the type of knowledge that they think is important for kindergarten curriculum. The "Supervisory Practices Questionnaire," the second questionnaire, was used for measuring principals' supervisory practices.

Knowledge Questionnaire. "Knowledge Questionnaire" incorporates a questionnaire developed by Charlesworth, Hart, Burts, Mosley, and Fleege, (1993) in addition to having five other sections:

- ◆ demographic information included educational background, certification, years of experience, and class size;

- ◆ degree of influence indicated -self, other teachers, the principal, parents, the local school system, and the state;
- ◆ staff development activities;
- ◆ the “Teacher Knowledge Scale” (TKS);
- ◆ the “Instructional Activities Scale”.

Demographics. As table 1 demonstrates, of the 14 principals chosen through stratified sampling procedures 10 had masters, one had masters plus credits, and three had doctorates. In regard to their certification status, eight were Elementary Education (K-6) or related. Other (i.e. K-8, Special Education Endorsement, Reading Specialist, Administrative) and four had K-6 certification. Only five of 14 of the principals had kindergarten teaching experience. Six had 0-5 years of experience in administration and five had 6-10 years of experience and three had more than 10 years.

Principals selected through purposeful sampling (8) procedures had the following educational levels: one had masters equivalence, three had masters, and four had doctorate; certification status: two of the principals held Early Childhood (N-3) and Others, three had K-6, and three had K-6 and others; experience in teaching: only four of them had kindergarten teaching experience; experience in administration: four of them had zero to 5 years, four had from 6 to 15 years.

All of the four principals who were chosen as a subdivision of the purposeful sample (4) and who were chosen to be included in comparative case studies had masters degrees and held K-6 and other certification. Half had from 11 to 15 years of experience in administration. The other half served as an administrator 10 years or less, one less

than six years and one more than six years but less than 11 years. Only one had kindergarten teaching experience.

Table 1: Characteristics of Principals (Across samples)

Characteristics	Sample Type		
	Stratified (N=14)	Purposeful (N=8)	Purposeful Subdivision (N=4)
Highest Level of Education			
BS/BA			
Master's Equivalence		1	
Master's	10	3	4
Master's +	1		
Doctorate	3	4	
Certification			
N-3 Early Childhood + (e.g. Both N-3 and K-6 Prek-8)	1	2	
K-6	4	3	
K-6 + Others (e.g. K-8, Special Edu. Endorsement, Reading Specialist, Administrative)	8	3	4
Only Administrative & Other	1		
Years of Teaching Kindergarten			
Taught	5	4	2
Did Not Teach	9	4	2
Years in Administrative Position			
Up to 5	6	4	1
6-10	5	2	1
11-15	1	2	2
16-20	1		
21-25	1		

Table 2 indicates the educational level of teachers who were chosen through the stratified sampling procedures: 13 of them had a bachelor degree; three had master's equivalence; 10 had a master's degree; and two had masters plus credits. With respect to certification status, eight of the 28 teachers were considered nursery through third grade (N-3), about 16 were considered kindergarten through six grade (K-6), with the remainder Other/Specialized (e.g. reading specialist, special education endorsement). Years of kindergarten teaching experience ranged from one year to 26 years, over half (18) of the teachers had been working in the public schools for less than 10 years. 15 of the teachers were teaching classes with 16 to 20 children. Three of the teachers had class sizes less than 15 children, while 10 of them had class sizes over 21 students.

Teachers who were chosen through purposeful sampling (N=15) had the following educational levels: nine teachers had bachelors degree; two had master's degree equivalence; and four had a master's degree. Four of the teachers had N-3 Early Childhood + Others (e.g. Both N-3 and K-6, Prek-8), eight had K-6, and three had K-6 + Others (e.g. K-8, Special Education Endorsement, Reading Specialist). Their kindergarten teaching experience ranged from one year to 26 years. With respect to the class size ten of the teachers had classes with 16 to 20 children, and four of them had 11 to 15 children in their classrooms.

Teachers who were chosen as a subdivision (N=4) of purposeful sample for the comparative case studies had the following educational levels: one teacher had a bachelor's degree and three had a master's degree. Half of the subdivision of the purposeful sample had N-3 and other certification, and the other half had K-6 certification. One teacher had kindergarten teaching experience from 11-15 years, two

had 6-10 years, while one teacher had two years of teaching experience. Three of the teachers had a class size between 16-20, and one of them had a class size of 11-15.

Table 2: Characteristics of Teachers (Across Samples)

Characteristics	Sample Types		
	Stratified (N=28)	Purposeful (N=15)	Purposeful Subdivision (N=4)
Highest Level of Education			
BS/BA	13	9	1
Master's Equivalence	3	2	
Master's	10	4	3
Doctorate	2		
Certification			
N-3 Early Childhood + (e.g. Both N-3 and K-6 Prek-8)	8	4	2
K-6	16	8	2
K-6 + Others (e.g. K-8, Special Edu. Endorsement, Reading Specialist)	4	3	
Years of Teaching Kindergarten			
Up to 5	11	6	1
6-10	7	3	2
11-15	7	4	1
16-20	2		
21-25	1	2	
Number of Children			
11-15	3	4	1
16-20	15	10	3
21-25	10	1	

The degree of influence. Influence information provided a response indicative of the degree of control/influence on their classroom practices emanating from themselves, other teachers, the principal, parents, the local school system, and the state.

Staff development activities. Staff development items asked about activities and components of activities provided by the school to help teachers learn how to better teach kindergarten children.

“Teacher Knowledge Scale” (TKS). This questionnaire was used to estimate kindergarten teachers’ preferences about the type of knowledge and classroom practices and their principals’ preferences on the type of knowledge regarding kindergarten curriculum.

TKS has 36 statements about teachers’ knowledge “(e.g., it is----- for children to work silently and alone on seatwork) that the respondent rates on a five point Likert scale from not important at all to extremely important. 1=Not important at all, 2=Not very important, 3=Fairly important, 4=Very important, and 5=Extremely important (Charlesworth, Hart, & Burts, 1991). The questionnaire consists of five subcategories.

The following indicates the five subcategories and the items in each of the subcategories (numbers indicate item number; see Appendix C):

- ♦ Social: 25(Dictates stories), 27(Dramatic play), 28(Talks informally with adults, and 30(Social skills with peers).
- ♦ Individualization: 4(Individual differences in interests), 5(Individual differences in development), and 11(Active exploration).

- ♦ Literacy: 26(See and use of functional print) and 29(Use of invented spelling).
- ♦ Integrated Curriculum: 17(Teacher as facilitator), 32(Integrated math), 33(Health and safety), and 34(Multicultural and nonsexist).
- ♦ Inappropriate Activities and Materials: 3(Evaluation of performance on workbooks and worksheets), 10(Seatwork), 13(Workbooks/ditto sheet), 14(Flashcards), 15(Basal), 21(Recognizing alphabet), 22(Colors within lines), and 23(Prints letters) (Charlesworth, et al.1993).
- ♦ “Instructional Activities Scale” (IAS). IAS has 34 items that “describe an activity (e.g., participating in dramatic play). The respondent rates the frequency of availability of each activity in his/her classroom along a five-point scale: 1=Almost Never(less than monthly), 2=Rarely (monthly), 3=Sometimes(weekly), 4=Regularly(2-4 times in a week), and 5=Very Often(daily). Five subcategories of IAS considered for analysis with their items are presented below:
 - ♦ Activities: 1(Blocks), 2(Child selects centers), 4(Listening to record), 6(Plays games), and 11(Manipulatives).
 - ♦ Exploratory learning: 3(Dramatic play), 5(Creative writing), 7(Exploration), 9(Creative movement), and 10(Cuts own shapes).
 - ♦ Integration: 23(Child coordinated activity), 32(Health and safety), 33(Drawing, painting, and art media), and 34(Integrated math).

- ♦ *Inappropriate literacy*: 13(Ability reading level), 14(Worksheets), 15(Flashcards), 17(Handwriting on lines), and 19(Copies from chalkboard).
- ♦ *Inappropriate learning*: 12(Coloring or pre-drawn forms), 16(Rote counting), and 18(Reciting alphabet).

The items of TKS and IAS reflect different areas of kindergarten instruction: curriculum goals, teaching strategies, guidance of socio-emotional development, language development and literacy, cognitive development, physical development, aesthetic development, motivation and assessment of children (Charlesworth, et al.1991).

Supervisory Questionnaire. The “Supervisory Practices Questionnaire” developed by Duarte (1998) was modified by the researcher to find out the type of supervision models that principals reported using to promote professional development of kindergarten teachers. This questionnaire had four questions and under each question there were different items. The first question asked about what type of activities principals perform in supervising kindergarten teachers. The second question focused on what purposes the supervision of kindergarten teachers has. The respondents also marked the importance of these activities and purposes of supervision in question one and question two, which focus on commonly used activities and purposes of supervision. The third question sought information about how well these purposes were perceived to be carried out. The fourth question asked the respondents to choose the most important purposes of their supervisory practices and whether a supervisory model was used.

Although participants' responses to all questions of the Supervisory Questionnaire were examined, for the purpose of this study, only their responses on the fourth question were taken into account for identifying the notions or models of supervision. Question four asked principals to rank their three most important purposes of supervision. The results led to two distinctive notions, one being the interpretive-practical notion (principal A had this notion) and second being the applied science-technical notion (principal D had this notion), as well as two slightly eclectic models, representing a combination of the interpretive-practical and the applied science-technical notions. One of the eclectic participants (principal C) chose as her first and second most important purposes reasons aligned with the applied science-technical notion, but her third purpose matched the interpretive-practical notion of supervision. I refer to principal C's eclectic notion as "eclectic towards the applied science-technical" notion. The second eclectic's (principal B) first and third most important purposes were aligned with the interpretive-practical but the second most important purpose was consistent with the applied science-technical notion. Hence, I refer to principal B's eclectic notion as "eclectic towards interpretive-practical".

Principal A chose the following as her first, second, and third most important purposes of supervision: (1) help teachers analyze their thinking processes as they plan and deliver instruction and evaluate their own teaching; (2) provide opportunities for supervisor and teachers to engage in collaborative problem-solving (instructional problems); and (3) help teachers learn how to self-supervise. All three of her purposes are considered reflective in nature.

Principal B selected the following as his three most important purposes of supervision: (1) help teachers reflect upon the decisions they make regarding instructional actions; (2) make sure teachers are teaching the curriculum as designed; and (3) help teachers analyze their thinking processes as they plan and deliver instruction and evaluate their own teaching. While his first and third most important purposes are aligned with reflective supervision, his second most important purpose is congruent with technical supervision.

Principal C chose the following as being her three most important purposes for her supervision respectively: (1) make sure teachers are teaching the curriculum as designed; (2) reinforce teaching behaviors considered desirable and/or effective other (specify); and (3) help teachers reflect upon the decisions they make regarding instructional actions. Her first two most important purposes fall in the framework of technical supervision while third purpose is aligned with reflective supervision.

Principal D considered the following as the three most important purposes of his supervision in that order: (1) evaluate teachers' teaching; (2) reinforce teaching behaviors considered desirable and/or effective other (specify); and (3) make sure teachers are teaching the curriculum as designed. All of his purposes reflect supervision as technical. More information on the results of these questions can be found in Appendix C.

Participants and Their Settings

This research studied four public elementary schools' principals and kindergarten teachers. Schools, principals, teachers and the kindergarten classrooms are described in terms of demographic or personal information about the populations that the schools

serve, about the principals, about the teachers, and about the composition of the children. Kindergarten classrooms are also described in terms of materials, space, and types of learning centers and other related characteristics. The demographic information was generated from the “Information Questionnaire” that was a part of the “Knowledge Questionnaire.” The depictions of the kindergarten classrooms were based on the researcher’s field notes and kindergarten teachers’ description of their classrooms.

The public school kindergarten classrooms that were studied were all located in a rural area in central Pennsylvania. The first two schools, A and B, are in the same school district. School C and D are in different school districts. Schools A, B, and C but not D had morning and afternoon kindergarten sessions. These four schools were selected through the aforementioned procedure, the researcher aimed at identifying and selecting a sample of four principals and four kindergarten teachers resulting in the following characteristics:

School One consisted of a principal with high DAP oriented knowledge, with more supportive supervisory practices and with a teacher who incorporated less DAP oriented activities in her classroom.

School Two had a principal with high DAP oriented knowledge, less supportive supervisory practices and with a teacher who carried out more DAP oriented activities in the classroom.

School Three had a principal with low DAP oriented knowledge, with less supportive supervisory practices and with a teacher who included less DAP oriented activities.

School Four included a principal with low DAP oriented knowledge, with more

supportive supervisory practices and with a teacher who had more DAP oriented activities.

The preliminary survey provided the researcher with these seemingly four distinctive schools. After examining principals' DAP scores, their supervisory styles, and teachers' scores on DAP knowledge and instructional activities, I contacted the schools to obtain permission for the study. Not all principals and kindergarten teachers who fit in one of these groups agreed to participate in the study. Among the reasons for not participating in the study was the heavy workload.

Although the survey results provided me with seemingly four different schools, I felt the need to drop this way of grouping after I started to interview the participants and analyze the data. I found out that the framework of "less supportive/more supportive" was misleading for her. For instance, she placed principal C in a less supportive grid based on the survey results, but after analyzing her interview responses, this was not the case. The initial way of thinking about these four cases did not become an obstacle for her; rather the researcher needed to generate a new understanding about them through the interviews.

School A

School A enrolled approximately 250 students, located in a rural area, one of four elementary schools in their district, the school served kindergarten through fifth grade, in morning and afternoon sessions.

Principal A. Principal A, a 62 year old female, had a Master's degree and had been in her current administrative position for 13 years. She had the following certifications: K-6, reading K-12, and 9-12 English and History. She taught first, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth, eleventh, twelfth grades, and college level. She never taught kindergarten.

Teacher A. Kindergarten teacher A, had a BA, with both Early Childhood (N-3) and Elementary Education (K-6) certifications had been teaching in her present position for three years. She had taught third graders in her first two years and was in her second year teaching kindergartners.

Teacher A's Classroom. Kindergarten A's morning session had 20 students and her afternoon session had 19 children. Children were from middle class families of a single parent, of two-parents, and from adopted families. The kindergarten teacher had three Russian, one African American, and 15 European American students in her morning session.

There was a teacher aid in this classroom. She was in every day for both morning and afternoon sessions. Other adults, a teacher aid and an ESL [English as a Second Language] teacher, who were involved in the classroom were all Caucasian. The ESL teacher could fluently speak her second as well as her native English language. Her second language was the first language of the children enrolled in ESL.

Teacher A's Learning Centers. This kindergarten classroom had several learning centers: math, dress up, writing, art, reading, blocks and puzzle, poetry, computer, and play

dough. When she was talking about centers with the researcher, she mentioned what the children can do right now in these centers, and what she plans for them to do in the future. She gave the writing and dress up centers as examples to demonstrate how she changes the centers based on the themes:

Right now, it [journal] is just writing in general. It usually has a theme for it. So I hang up like a sentence or poem or maybe just words that they practice writing. They use the shaving cream for now to write if they want to. [Teacher A interview 1, 10/01/01, p.34, lines 767-769]

I put up things at the beginning of the year with this and the students, three at a time can come and they dress up. They can play as long as they stay in this area. Sometimes they put on a show and things like that. After this, it is gone for the year. I'll have puppets. I'll have a post office center. Just depending on the different themes that we are doing throughout the year. [Teacher A interview 1, 10/01/01, p.33, lines 743-748]

The math center was placed on a table between computers and dress up centers. It included magnetic numbers, connecting cubes and their shape puzzles, the bees, flowers, and stamp matching activity and geo board. Dress up area did not stay all year. This area was a place that is surrounded with a carton board, has a mirror, dress up clothes, shoes, and some accessories. Writing center consisted of a white board, table, the chalk, and shaving cream. There was also one chalkboard in the writing center. Poetry center included poems that the children were going to learn. One poem went with each big book.

Art center has two tables put together, has light yellow papers and scissors. Children can use pencil and glue (glue is placed on a shelf that

surrounds the circle time place). Reading center has a bookshelf and soft and comfortable seats put on the floor. The carton board house placed in front of the door is also considered part of the reading center. Blocks and puzzle center has small colored blocks and puzzles of animals. This center changes all the time. [Teacher A interview 1, 10/01/01, p.34, lines 770-780]

Computer center had four or five computers on each table. A recording chart showed children's use of the computers. Play dough center had yellow, green, and light red dough put on a table next to a back door. Children were permitted to use toys and materials with the play dough. Play dough was not always available, but a sand and a water table were present year around.

The classroom had five different bookshelves, one used to surround one side of the reading center another placed in front of the writing center a third bookshelf used to surround one side of the circle time area, a fourth shelf bordering the circle time area, with the fifth next to the writing board and the teacher's chair.

A Day in the Life of Teacher A. Below is a description taken from interviews to illustrate a typical day of teacher A performing in the kindergarten.

In the morning, when the children come, the first thing they have to do is to find their hand and put it in their packet. That tells me who is here today. They need to take their own attendance. Then, they empty their backpacks if they have any notes for me they go in the mailbox and they come in sit in circle. Each day we have a student who has a special day, and that student brings a snack, and show and tell. [Teacher A interview 1, 10/01/01, p.6, lines 127-133] Actually I send a calendar home, you would be surprised how many children learn that calendar based on whose

special day it is. [Teacher A interview 1, 10/01/01, pp.10-11, lines 233-240]

So they get out their snack and pass their show and tell while students are still arriving and then we gave him a compliment list. The students have to think about these nice things, compliments about him, and I make list of what they say. Then the student puts that stuff back, we start with the pledge. Then we have our morning meeting, which is where we use a lot of the PATHS. [Teacher A interview 1, 10/01/01, p.6, lines 133-138]

We started it [PATHS] last year, but I know that I am fairly new teacher and I have never done it before, but the other teachers are familiar with it. So when that is finished, we do our calendar. Everyday with our calendar we do a lot of modeling, number writing. We basically put it together by ourselves. We incorporate a lot of songs and finger plays with our calendar to make it a little bit more interesting. Then we count all the days of school. After calendar is over, I do a shared reading lesson, then after shared reading lesson, we have center time. They usually have choice at this point. But soon we are going to start our computer program, and they each turn on to computer everyday. I am at a table and my aid is at a table working with assessments with the children, practicing to make their names, just a variety of different activities. Before the center time is over, I send the student with the special day get two of the puppets our clean up King and Queen. They whisper everybody that it is almost time to clean up. They pretty much almost clean up by the time I put the music on. And they do the song and then they come back and we do another curriculum that I have which is called "Breakthrough Literacy" it goes with the computers. So will do another kind of shared reading a little bit more of just reading the story and doing the activity with it. Then it is usually time for one of our specialists. We come back for snack. [Teacher A interview 1, 10/01/01, pp.7-8, lines 151-168]

Then after snack we will have math class, which at this point basically exploration through manipulative. We will have math investigations all at the carpet and there is a table for each thing. So far we have lengths, pattern blocks, dominos, wooden blocks, tiles, connecting cubes. And they'll get to choose where they would like to stay for math. They need to go the spot and sometimes they'll be able to just explore, sometimes I'll have them practice count until 10 or 20. Sometimes I'll have them making towers and making chains. Today we did a little bit exploration through geo boards. We did that as a whole group because of safety concerns. And then if we have time before we get to leave we always talk about something that we learned today. I try to do a learning journal before, I usually don't always get to it. [Teacher A interview 1, 10/01/01, p.8, lines 170-180]

Learning journal is a journal or a book that I make and everyday we need to talk about what they have learned. So when we come up with what we want to write, we will say something like I learned the letter M starts words like Monkey and then write the sentence. Then I will have them make a picture to go with it. We will write the date. It is whole class and it is modeled writing things. At this point, they need to think of things that they have learned. Or we will read stories we focus on an author at times. Right now we are doing Mercer Meyer, so we will read a story about Mercer Meyer. I would like to do as many read-aloud as possible. Children really enjoy those books. So that is basically our day. [Teacher A interview 1, 10/01/01, p.8, lines 182-192]

School B

School B enrolled approximately 300 students and was located in a rural area and offered kindergarten through fifth grade. One of four elementary schools in its district, its half-day kindergarten program ran a morning and afternoon session.

Principal B. Principal B, a 50 year old male who has earned a Masters of Education. He previously taught first, second, third, fifth, sixth grades and held K-6 and principal certifications. Never having taught kindergarten he has been in this current administrative position for three years.

Teacher B. Teacher B taught in school B for 10 years and 4 years in other schools. Earning a Masters of Science in Education and holding an Elementary Education Certification (K-6), she identified her classroom as DAP in the question that asks “Is this class developmental or regular” in the demographics page of “Teachers Knowledge” questionnaire.

Teacher B’s Classroom. Her classroom had 11 students in the morning session and 15 in the afternoon session. Teacher B doesn’t have an adult assistant in her classroom but with a person who worked for the program called “Read for Success.” She had one child classified for special education in the morning class. Some children came from two parent families, some did not, and some stayed with one parent on the weekend but then went to the other parent during the weekdays. An afternoon girl alternated years between

mother and her father. The majority of the children came from middle class backgrounds. The children were all Caucasian Americans.

Teacher B's Learning Centers. Teacher B began the school year with four learning centers and as the year progressed, she opened more centers. The role of the learning centers was to strengthen the newly learned skills and previously learned skills:

I have 21 centers in the classroom, and open 4 at the beginning of the year and gradually open more. I open centers that reinforce skills we have recently introduced as well as on-going skills to work on throughout the year. [Teacher B e-mail 1, p.1, lines 7-9] I use centers to provide opportunity to practice skills and reinforce concepts previously taught and worked on in lessons; for instance, I will put out small plastic clocks for children to work in small groups to set hour and half-hour times after doing math lessons on time. [Teacher B e-mail 1, p.2, lines 27-30]

There are some centers that once introduced, will remain in use for the year; however, there are some centers that are specific to a particular skill being addressed for a shorter period of time, and those centers are limited in time. Sometimes, though, a center that opens and closed after a few weeks may open again another time in the year. [Teacher B e-mail 1, p.2, lines 41-44]

Centers include: Charts, Schoolhouse (reading), Calendar, Sentence Strips, Patterning/Geo boards, Writing, Computer, Morning Letter, Chalkboards, Puzzles/Games, Reading Group, Listening Center, Flannel graph, Design/Count, Science Table, Reading Chair, Kitchen/Drama, Blocks/Boat, Art Table/Easel, Cooking, and the Music Center. [Teacher B, e-mail 1, p.1, lines 10-14]

A Day in the Life of Teacher B. Below is a description taken from interviews to illustrate a typical day of teacher B performing in the kindergarten.

Whoever comes in first, there is card to hang up, and also we encourage responsible learning. They are making decision and taking responsibility for managing themselves in a classroom, for different activities and programs that we have. So whoever comes first starts, that randomly determines when we start to do the rotation for the computer turns. They do silent taps so they manage their own behaviors and helping the others, facilitating the others' turn as they are rotating the schedule. We do opening exercises and a special helper determined by the child chart, activities, open exercises like calendar, song, and flag. We look at the schedule; we adjust our day and talk about schedule and how it changes from yesterday. That also means first do the morning letter and change sentences based on what previous class have done. We read books; we do our reading first in the morning with the big books and then sometimes we'll have our writing after that we have writing that day. We do writing four or five times a week. We really write a lot: journals and the writing projects. Sometimes the children have a special like music, library, art often after we do our writing. Then we do math or we do a science lesson or social studies and then we rotate. [Teacher B interview 1, 12/13/01, pp.5-6, lines 112-133]

We do "show and tell" at the end of the day as well. We have center time too. It is during the center time, the children get a lot of choices as well. They decide where they are going to go. I usually they have 10 centers, 21 all together, but they are not open all at one time. And then we use clothes pins to manage where they are, where they go. [Teacher B interview 1, 12/13/01, p.9, lines 193-196]

I would often incorporate activities in that center with what we have been doing in the lesson. If we are talking about shapes, I'll put geo board out. But it is always after that I model, and show them guided discovery. So they know how to manage the material, how to put things away, and I take it step by step so that they take care things. They know with very clear terms how to take care what we have in the classroom. [Teacher B interview 1, 12/13/01, pp.9-10, lines 206-210]

At the end of the day we do the compliments and that is through PATHS lesson to help the children be socially responsible and to learn the coping mechanisms, to manage their behaviors when they are in situations that could be problematic. [Teacher B interview 1, 12/13/01, p.8, lines 174-176]

School C

School C was located in a rural area and served approximately 400 students. They ran a kindergarten program through third grade. There were three kindergarten classrooms because there were no other kindergarten classrooms in any other schools in the district. School C's mission statement, explained in kindergarten handbook stated that school C "seeks to use an awareness of children's basic needs, knowledge of the stages of development and our belief in developmentally appropriate practices as the basis in making decisions for our children and our school." [Kindergarten handbook, p.1]

Principal C. Principal C, a 51 year old female with a Masters of Education, had been in her current administrative position for six years. She had N-3, K-6, and K-8 certifications and previously taught preschool, first, second, third, fourth, fifth and sixth grades. She never taught kindergarten.

Teacher C. Teacher C, a male who taught in kindergarten for six years and in other schools for 20 years had a Masters of Education and K-6 certification.

Teacher C's Classroom. There were 19 children in the morning session and 17 in the afternoon session. Teacher C has a part time aid in his morning classroom who was from another culture and could speak Spanish. They helped in the morning for about an hour 45 minutes. In the afternoon, since there was only one aid for all the kindergarten teachers. The assistant could be in teacher C's classroom for only two days out of six days cycle.

The children in his classroom came from a wide variety of socio-economic status (SES), ranging from lower to upper class. He had two children with special needs in his morning class: an autistic child and another one who was scheduled to have an IEP. He had children who were coming from different family types. Four children, two in the morning and two in the afternoon, were from different cultures. Their cultures were Spanish and Egyptian.

Teacher C's Learning Centers. Teacher C had 14 centers in his classroom: Bean bags, a teacher center, a painting center, the sand table, the book shelf, a science center, blocks, pennies, puzzles, geo board, unifix cubes, computers, listening center, and writing.

A Day in the Life of Teacher C. Below is a description taken from interviews to illustrate a typical day of teacher C performing in the kindergarten.

I ring my chime and so they clean up and they sat at the table. I don't have assigned seats. So once they clean up they can go any of the tables

that are cleared. I would say good morning to them, they say good morning Mr. S. [teacher] and then we count. We have our little numbers up over there [On the wall, numbers put on start shapes]. We are counting to a hundredth. Everyday, we got the new number. So when we get to the hundred day of school, then we have a party for a hundred day of school. Then we do the weather. What the weather is, we read what the weather is. Then we pick our leader for the day, and then we do the pledge. That is our opening exercise. That takes anywhere from eight to ten minutes. Maybe twelve minutes depending on if we have any conversation in between about the weather or about what day today is. But I plan 15 minutes for that. [Teacher C interview 1, 01/03/02, pp.11-12, lines 251-271]

After we do the opening, I usually read an old story and then a new story. This week I read “Snowy day” that will still be the new story today even though we read it yesterday. So I’ll read a couple of stories, we talk about them and then depending on what the activity is for today we’ll go to what I call “stations”. Sometimes there will be one or two stations; sometimes there will be six stations. Today there is going to be five probably. They’ll set up for different tables. [Teacher C interview 1, 01/03/02, pp.12-13, lines 273-281]

I decide the stations. What I have done with my student teacher last time, last year was we made pictures and labeled them. So it tells which stations, and then I’ll put them on the chart. So yesterday those were the three stations. And they can see with the picture so they can see with the words so they can learn sounds and the letters and things on what the stations are. Now some days like yesterday and today, it is a going to be three stations, but I am going to move them. I’ll set them up first and then I’ll say okay “blocks, drawing and color go to pattern blocks, pattern blocks go to geo board, geo boards go to drawing and coloring whatever

we switch. We switched every twelve minutes yesterday. Today we are going to switch every ten minutes. That one was twelve to fifteen minutes each because I had only three. But I had two tables for each. Today we are going to have five so it'll be like ten minutes each. [Teacher C interview 1, 01/03/02, p.13, lines 285-294]

Deciding how many stations to open depends on what I am trying to do. Yesterday, I wanted to trace the alphabet, the lower case. So I wanted them to have enough time to write it because we just started learning it before Christmas. So I had the paper to write where they traced one and then write one besides it. Trace one and write one in the black dots they indicate where to start. They had that station to write the alphabet. And then when they are done they could draw a picture, just any picture they want. The other two stations yesterday, one was the geo boards, which are kind of a shape geometry things. I let them use a lot this year. But yesterday I gave them cards that had pictures of designs. They had to try to match this design which we haven't done that before with the geo boards. We did it with the pattern blocks, which is the other stations where they are allowed to. They took the card with pattern blocks and try to make the design that is on the pattern or on the card. But we haven't had that with the geo boards, so we did the pattern blocks so they remembered that they have done that before with cards and matching and then geo boards. They had to do that same thing. Geo boards, rubber bands match the picture, and then they had to write the alphabet. My main focus yesterday was I wanted to have them write the alphabet and I wanted to watch that. So at that station I was walking around, watching everybody. I paid most attention to the table that we were doing the alphabet. This week, what I wanted to do, I am doing one of the stations very structured is because just after vacation, I wanted them to get back to the idea of school and there is a structure to it. Otherwise I might give

them free choice stations. [Teacher C interview 1, 01/03/02, pp.14-15, lines 301-324]

Toward to end of the year, I give them free choice station. I'll put up five stations but they can pick which one they do. I am lucky to have enough material that if five people wanted to pattern blocks, I have enough that five people can do pattern blocks. If everybody wants to do it, we have set up a way to do it. So I go from September where I am more structured. Here is what you are doing. These are the stations. I'll direct you through them. As a result of the year becomes more and more linear, they are able to help choose which station they are in. So they felt, when they make the choice, they have ownership of what they are doing. Their ownership gets important. They feel good about themselves and the choices they are making. They feel good about their learning. The station will be chosen on what I am trying to accomplish at that time. Like today there is a going to be ABC station but it is not going to be this one. That might be one of the choices, there is going to be a couple of places for ABC's they can do. We are going to have the pattern blocks again. So they'll have that choice. Then they are also going to do a unifix cubes which are kind of math manipulative. They are going to be able to do some things with those similar to what they are going to did with pattern blocks and then with geo boards. So they see there is also things that are same about all these things. They'll see all these different materials; in the pattern blocks you can put them on the pattern, the geo board you can make patterns with, the unifix cubes you can make patterns with. What we do sometimes, I'll say match them on the cards with pattern blocks, match them on the cards with geo boards. There are cards for the unifix cubes. So one of the things that I have them see what we can do a lot of these things similar so that if I say get out the beads and match them with the card they already know. So it helps them apply that whether it is something else, maybe if I am working

with something new, I still can do that same concept, that same idea, that strategy. [Teacher C interview 1, 01/03/02, pp.15-16, lines 328-350]

Sometimes while we are doing stations, I'll have my aid to take over finger painting or we did big a large book that they have to take a page at a time. So sometimes I'll demonstrate before they go to the station, that is the time maybe teach a skill or do a demonstration. [Teacher C interview 1, 01/03/02, pp.16, lines 358-362]

After the station, most of the time is when we have our snack. If you ask the kids, they'll tell you snack, names, books, and recess. We eat snack, we write our name: everyday they have to write their name one time. And we started yesterday with the capital and then the rest is lower case. The way my schedule is this year, after the snack, name, book, recess, and then we have a special. Might be art, might be gym, might be music, and might be library. That goes up to eleven. After that they come back and we sing our goodbye song, talk to them about their day, and then get ready to go. [Teacher C interview 1, 01/03/02, pp.16-17, lines 364-374]

School D

School D was an outlying school located in a rural area for K-4 grade students and with a student population of approximately 100 children. One kindergarten class was offered, a morning session. Its district adapted a new literacy program to be used in kindergarten. This program is similar in nature to other programs used in education, such as DISTAR in reading and writing. Their commonality stems from the fact that they are all highly descriptive, skill-based, and directive.

Principal D. Principal D was a 50 year old male with a Masters of Science in Administration. He had been in his current administrative position for 11 years. With both K-6 and administration certifications, he had taught kindergarten, first, second, third, fourth, fifth and sixth grades.

Teacher D. Teacher D, a female with a Masters of Science in Education, had both N-3 and K-6 certifications and had been teaching kindergarten for eight years and had taught in other schools for six years. She had been teaching in school D for nine years.

Teacher D's Classroom. There were 19 children and a part time adult assistant in the classroom. There was a child with a visual impairment in the classroom. Children came from families of a single parent, of a foster home, and of a two-parents family.

Learning Centers in Teacher D's Classroom. Teacher D's classroom had eleven learning centers: writing, ABC center (word study), math, art, book, computer, listening, choice, science, cooking, and guided reading centers. To manage children's working on learning centers, she used a chart called "a work-board."

They [children] were divided into random groups, like this group (teacher was showing a work-board) will go to the ABC center first, and then numbers. Sometimes, some of these kids are not finished, and some of these kids will be coming over. Then I'll say well, there is more than eight people then go to your next center, and then come back. [Teacher D interview 1, 03/04/02, p.28, lines 625-629]

In the writing center, they are working on actually writing something and I often have a book like this dental health book [stapled pages that has a picture and incomplete sentences for them to complete]. I do it a page at a time. I have 20 baby teeth, and they have to write that I brush my teeth. A lot of times that I leave something for them to solve, sort of problem solving, as you can see here there is no word here. They have to figure out what they need to write in there, what would make sense. They have to listen to the sound, so they are trying to use reading and writing together here. We are trying to encourage them to write a sentence or as many as they can. We might have them write a list of activities or write another ending to a story that we talked about. This [The dental health book] will probably take us a week, there is four pages. We usually do just one page a day. I made these up. The other teachers don't use them. This is something I do. [Teacher D interview 1, 03/04/02, p.27, lines 596-606]

The ABC center is where they are supposed to do their word study. Some of the things revolve around the word wall. They might have to copy some words from the word wall, or quote words in alphabetical order from the word wall. Like today they were working "d" word that have a "d" sound, how to write the "d". Sometimes they get white boards out, we talked about rhyming words, as our interactive writing. We were talking about an, man, an, so they have to write some words here that rhyme on the white board. Sometimes we use magnetic letters and make words. I notice a lot of kids aren't looking at ending the words. I am going to have to incorporate "s, es, ing" that sort of thing into words. That would be some of my focus. [Teacher D interview 1, 03/04/02, pp.27-28, lines 613-620]

This is the math center. Again, whatever we are working in math, I usually have them do some sort of activity. We have been working on measuring the other day, so I had different items here; they had to just measure them.

Then today, they had that sheet, the lines on it, they had to measure the lines on and write down how long the lines were. [Teacher D interview 1, 03/04/02, p.28, lines 630-636]

In the art center, sometimes they have to paint something. It is hard. I don't get to do the arts that I like to do because I am not here to monitor it. I have to be doing guided reading. I would do more painting, clay, or more messy things than if I am not here [guided reading center].

Sometimes my aid, I told you she is also the nurse; so she cannot always be in here and I cannot depend on her to always be here to help monitor. It needs a little work, I don't know how to work on, how to do that more. [Teacher D interview 1, 03/04/02, p.28, lines 636-641]

This is our book center and this is usually a choice. After they are done with centers they have choices. This is one that they can come up to the library area. [Teacher D interview 1, 03/04/02, p.29, lines 642-643]

In the computer center, we only have one computer, so two [children] can be here at a time. The computer has "Jump Start kindergarten software. It has actually math, science, counting, arts and creativity time, comprehension, listening skills, vocabulary, music a little bit of everything". [Teacher D interview 1, 03/04/02, p.29, lines 644, 651-653]

We have a listening center. Right now it is a choice when they are done with other center, they can listen to a story. Sometimes I have them listen to a story and draw a picture of their favorite part. [Teacher D interview 1, 03/04/02, p.29, lines 645-647]

One of our centers is a choice centers after they are done with their work for the day, is just reading around the room. I keep these pointers in here;

they read anything they can find, the name chart, word wall, all our calendar things. [Teacher D interview 1, 03/04/02, p.29, lines 654-656]

Sometimes, I set up a science center. If I don't have an art activity, and say we are talking about weather; I might be talking about rain. I might set up water and say put these things in. Tell me which ones float, which ones sink. It depends what I have. We have a cooking center, sometimes we don't do math or art activity they might be down in the cafeteria cooking with the aid, making play dough or something or cookies or whatever. [Teacher D interview 1, 03/04/02, pp.29-30, lines 661-665]

The guided reading center is where I do reading. I divided them into groups based on their ability. We do a story; we talk about it, and work on some sort of problem they encountered in the story. They each have a bag of books that they can look through, and read. When I am over here [guided reading center] they are not supposed to interrupt me. That is the key. You cannot come over here and disturb me here, unless you are bleeding or dying, but of course when the aid is not here it is hard. That is problem out here, we only have one aid, and she is also the nurse. That is one of the bad things to be an outlying school. [Teacher D interview 1, 03/04/02, p.30, lines 668-675]

A Day in the Life of Teacher D. Below is a description taken from interviews to illustrate a typical day of teacher D performing in the kindergarten.

After breakfast, the children have a few minutes outside. Then they come in and while I am checking their folders, they usually have; we were working on their names, so every morning, under Monday, they would have write their name on that paper. Then we did phone numbers. Now we are doing measuring so there is a line for Monday they have to measure and a line under Tuesday, they have to measure. We'll be doing

weather so each unit that I do there is something, sort of a paper for that day they have to do while I am looking through their folders. When they finish that, they can do a few puzzles I have out or look at books, or do some writing. They like to staple papers together to make book. Then, we meet up in the front here. We do our opening exercises, like the calendar, weather. We do helper chart; we have a story; we do our mystery bag, which is like show and tell. Right now we are bringing in kites because we are changing our bulletin boards. They have family project every month that the family helps them do. After our opening exercises, we have our little snack time about five minutes. They have pretzels, animal cookies, because some kids do not eat. I know there are kids that are always hungry so I feel that is kind of an important thing. [Teacher D interview 1, 03/04/02, pp.6-7, lines134-151]

Then, we begin our literacy program. Our district is following [name of the literacy program], so we have to incorporate as many as the eight components of [the literacy program] we can daily. Now, I didn't get them all in today. We, I do share a story, a big book, or some sort of thing, like the teeth chart thing [place on an easel next to the teacher's chair]. We have a writing, if we have time. We have to have writing, shared writing, interactive writing, and independent writing which we didn't get today. [Teacher D interview 1, 03/04/02, p.7, lines151-158]

I also explain at the time what they are going to be doing in center, while I am doing the guided reading lessons with them. Center work usually revolves around a theme. So I explain what they have to do in the writing center, which was a dental health book. And then ABC center, we were working on letter D; forming it and thinking words that have that sound. And then the measuring is part of their math unit. The art was one paper with the healthy food that they could put on the right side of the graph. So I explain their centers. I was going to try writing. We were going to make

a chart; ways that we keep our teeth healthy that would be our interactive writing for the week, but we didn't get to that today, perhaps tomorrow. After we do the writing together and explain the centers we do the shared reading. Then they break up in their center groups and I do the guided reading group. That is when the aid supposed to come in and kind of monitor the centers. After that guided reading, they should be fairly well finished with their center for today. We meet by my chair for a brief check of what everyone did that day. Then it is time to recess. If we have time after recess, I do a writing lesson. They have journal where they supposed to practice writing, which we didn't do today, then they are ready to go home. [Teacher D interview 1, 03/04/02, pp.7-8, lines158-173]

Data Collection

Qualitative data were generated over a six-month period. Data generation sources included: interviews, classroom observations with field notes, and observational checklists. Interviews with the teachers and principals were the primary source of data for this study; observations served to support the emerging findings of the study. Marshall and Rossman (1999) have stated that employing multiple qualitative methods increases the possibility of developing unexpected data (p.138). More importantly, multiple data sources add to inference credibility and are considered as an effective factor in confirming the emerging findings (Merriam, 1988).

Interviews

Interviews are considered as the most important source of evidence in a case study (Yin, 1989). In this study, several types of interviews conducted at different times were used for a variety of purposes. Yin (1989) addresses three types of interviews: open-ended

nature, focused, and survey. Only two of them, open-ended and focused interviews, were employed in this study. In an open-ended interview, the researcher asks the interviewee about facts and for opinions about events. One part of the first open-ended interview at the beginning of this study was used to learn the teachers' and principals' espoused platforms about ECE. This interview provided a basis for the observations of the teachers' practice. Post-observational focused interviews were also conducted. Yin (1989) refers to focused interview as interviewing the participant for a short time in which the investigator follows a particular set of questions.

I conducted three focused interviews. Table 3 indicates dates and times of three interviews with principals and teachers. In order to generate an understanding about the composition of each classroom, the researcher started out the first interview with questions about the number of children, the family types that the children were coming from, their socio economic status, children's and other adults' (e.g. teacher aid, English as a Second Language teacher ethnicity). I proceeded with questions that were intended to bring out the type of philosophies held by the kindergarten teachers and by principals. Part of the first interview dealt with the kindergarten curriculum. The second interview focused on anti-bias multicultural aspects of curriculum. The third interview focused on supervision.

Table 3: Dates and Times of Interviews with Principals and Teachers

	Interview 1	Interview 2	Interview 3
Principal A	10/12/2001 (3:25-4:35)	10/19/2001 (4:10-5:00)	10/22/2001 (5:30-6:40)
Teacher A	10/01/2001 (3:00-4:10)	10/19/2001 (3:10-3:55)	10/22/2001 (3:10-4:10)
Principal B	01/02/2002 (10:00-10:40) phone interview	Done on the same day and time with interview 1	01/17/2002 (10:00-10:20) phone interview
Teacher B	12/13/2001 (3:00-4:00)	12/17/2001 (4:45-5:25)	02/18/2002 (4:30-5:30)
Principal C	12/20/2001 (10:10-10:40)	01/04/2002 (11:00-11:35)	01/18/2002 (11:00-11:50) phone interview
Teacher C	01/03/2002 (7:30-8:10am 10:35-11:00)	01/17/2002 (7:30pm-8:30pm) phone interview	03/07/2002 (8:00pm-9:00pm) phone interview
Principal D	03/04/2002 (1:00-1:30)	03/06/2002 (1:00-1:40)	03/07/2002 (1:00-1:30)
Teacher D	03/04/2002 (11:15-12:50)	03/06/2002 (11:15-12:30)	03/07/2002 (11:15-12:40)

The interviews served two main purposes: (1) to elucidate teachers' and principals' perceptions of supervisory associations and practices, and (2) to illuminate teachers' and principals' perceptions of their curriculum and teaching. A tape recorder was used to record interviews. The researcher paid attention to the following aspects when using a tape recorder: permission was asked and the researcher actively listened even though a tape recorder was used. Each tape was labeled by number, type, and date of interview. Also, participants were informed that confidentiality of the tapes and their transcriptions of any other information gathered was guaranteed.

Since the study had multiple interviews with both the principals and their kindergarten teachers as participants, the researcher coded interviews as well as marking them in the following way. The participant's position's initial (the letter "P" for

principals and “T” for teachers), the number of the interview (the letter “i” for interview and its number “1”), first letter of the principal’s or teacher’s name (e.g. A), and the page number. For instance, for the first page of interview one with a principal whose name starts with the letter A, the information is condensed into the following: P-i1/A-1 (Merriam, 1988). Transcripts of the interviews data from all three schools were color coded; blue, green, pink, and yellow were used for school A, B, C, and D respectively. Also, this way of coding was applied to the descriptive field notes, reflections to the descriptive field notes, and documents.

Descriptive Field Notes

Marshall and Rossman (1999) defined field notes as the “observational records” which are “nonjudgmental, concrete descriptions of what has been observed” (p.107). Field notes aimed to capture the events that took place in the classroom, as well as the teachers’ actions and the children’s reaction to those actions.

The researcher took field notes during and right after a contact with the participant. In recording descriptive field notes for two schools, I used a notebook but notes taken on other sheets were reviewed and written to expand abbreviated notes. For the third school, the researcher took the notes on sheets and then typed them in the word processor. The notes that were in the notebooks were copied for analysis. Table 4 demonstrates dates and times of classroom observations.

Table 4: Dates and Times of Classroom Observations

	Observation 1	Observation 2	Observation 3
Teacher A	09/28/2001 (8:00-11:00)	10/01/2001 (8:00-11:00)	10/03/2001 (12:00-2:00)
Teacher B	11/05/2001 (8:00-10:00)	11/09/2001 (8:10-10:00)	11/12/2001 (8:00-10:15)
Teacher C	11/20/2001 (8:00-9:50)	01/03/2002 (8:15-10:30)	01/04/2002 (8:15-10:30)
Teacher D	03/04/2002 (8:15-11:00)	03/06/2002 (8:15-10:00)	03/07/2002 (8:15-11:00)

Observational Checklists

The researcher observed each kindergarten classroom for at least six hours on different days. On the basis of these observations, she completed the checklist for Observing Developmental Appropriateness in Early Childhood Classrooms (Charlesworth, et al.1993), Anti-bias Curriculum (Howes, 1998), and Antibias and Multicultural Curriculum Assessment Profile (Samuels, 1994). The Checklist helped to generate information about several aspects of teachers' practices, such as the classroom procedures and routines. This checklist has 24 items, which are rated on a five point Likert scale. Descriptors considered most appropriate are placed under 5 and the most inappropriate under 1. Point 5 is checked if the appropriate practice is near 100%, 4 indicated it is more appropriate than inappropriate, 3 if the split is fairly even, 2 if it is more inappropriate than appropriate, and 1 if it is close to 100% in line with the inappropriate descriptor (Charlesworth, et al. 1993).

The Anti-bias Curriculum measure evaluates the extent to which classroom materials, books, visual images, art, classroom interactions, and learning activities represent diversity and offer diversity related experiences. This measure has 60 items

divided in these areas: visual images, books, dramatic play, language, music, art, dolls, manipulatives, interactions, teaching about cultural differences and similarities. The observer circles “observed” if an item is observed and “not observed” if an item is not observed.

The Antibias and Multicultural Curriculum Assessment Profile estimates the extent to which curriculum and instructional practices seem culturally sensitive and biased-free. This assessment tool has 27 items that are scored present if observed and absent if not observed, coded being 1 and as being 0, respectively. Totals are evaluated as follows:

- (a) Well representative (21-27) of cultural diversity and biased-free;
- (b) Good representative (16-20) of cultural diversity and biased-free;
- (c) Low representative (11-15) of cultural diversity and biased-free;
- (d) Very low representative (6-10) of cultural diversity and biased-free;
- (e) Not representative (0-5) of cultural diversity and biased-free.

I analyzed the data generated through these observational checklists, but I did not incorporate their analyses into the results chapters, since the results were similar to what the researcher concluded from her descriptive field notes.

Research Questions

This study aims to generate answers to the following four sets of research questions:

1. How do principals and kindergarten teachers portray their supervisory associations?
2. How do these portrayals relate to scholarly information about supervisory associations?
3. Whether, and, what extent do the supervisory associations impact kindergarten curriculum and teaching?
4. How do principals and kindergarten teachers perceive each other in relation to their espoused platform of kindergarten teaching and curriculum?

Data Analysis Plan

This research studied four public elementary schools' principals and kindergarten teachers. In this study, Miles's and Huberman's (1994) method of analysis was followed: (1) contact summary sheet, (2) coding, (3) pattern codes, and (4) memoing" (p.51). Chapters four, five, six, and seven present results of the study.

A modified version of Cornbleth's (1990) framework is used for organizing the results of this study. She suggests considering curriculum in light of structural and sociocultural contexts. In this study's analysis, structural contexts are as follows: (1) the nature of supervisory associations between teachers and (2) principals, principals' and teachers' perceptions of curriculum, and (3) classroom practices. May's (1989) work on notions of supervision and Sergiovanni's (1992, 1998) work on the sources of authority

are utilized to analyze these three aspects of the structural context. Sociocultural contexts encompass demographic, social, political, and economic conditions, traditions, and ideologies. In this study, political component of the sociocultural context manifested itself as educational policy on testing. How the principals convey this policy to the teachers determined the extent to which these contexts manifested themselves as constraint.

Chapter eight includes the conclusions and recommendations of the study. The themes that emerged from the analysis of the data were presented here along with the discussions and conclusions. Moreover, the findings were examined in relation to the literature.

Trustworthiness and Authenticity Issues

In order to ascertain reliability, the researcher considered several means. First, before mailing the questionnaires, Knowledge Questionnaire and Supervisory Practices Questionnaire, the researcher sought feedback on them from a principal and two kindergarten teachers. The principal and two kindergarten teachers completed and made comments on the questionnaires. Feedbacks given on the questionnaires were mainly about wording of the questions and organization of the items under each question. Based on their feedback, the researcher revised the questionnaire and then mailed it to the participants.

Second, the researcher piloted the interview questions with a professor of education. This helped the researcher alter the wording of interview questions and

clarify unclear statements. This way the researcher was able to organize these questions in relation to research questions.

Third, during interviews the researcher sometimes restated the participants' responses to the interview questions. This gave the participants a chance to hear their responses from the researcher. In turn, this helped the researcher to clarify and confirm their responses and to eliminate possible misunderstandings about what they were saying. In addition, the researcher reassured the participants that their anonymity will be maintained through out, not using their names and/or their school's name.

Fourth, the researcher transcribed all interviews word by word. This served as a way to ensure that meaning is not lost. It is possible that random transcription of parts of interview may give a way to misinterpret the participants' responses.

Beginning in the next chapter, we move on to a presentation of the main findings of this study. Up to now the data given have been for methodological reasons primarily, although they are also considered results of the research project taken in total. Chapter four centers on the results of case A, with chapters five, six, and seven focused on cases B, C, and D, respectively.

To remind the reader, the following questions constitute the focus of this research:

1. How do principals and kindergarten teachers portray their supervisory associations?
2. How do these portrayals relate to scholarly information about supervisory associations?
3. Whether, how, to what extent do the supervisory associations impact kindergarten curriculum and teaching?

4. How do principals and kindergarten teachers perceive each other in relation to their espoused platform of kindergarten teaching and curriculum?

CHAPTER FOUR: CASE STUDY A

This chapter contains portraits of principal A and teacher A. As presented in the previous chapter, principal A is a female, with a Masters degree and had been in her current administrative position for 13 years. She never taught kindergarten. Teacher A, a college graduate with both Early Childhood (N-3) and Elementary Education (K-6) certifications had been teaching in her present position for three years.

Portrait of Principal A and Teacher A

Principal A seemed delighted to talk about her views and convictions concerning ECE and her professional relationship with teacher A. I felt that she has given a lot of thought to her methods of working with teachers and children. When talking, one could see an educator who dedicated her life to the well being of children; with determination to do it in the way that she thought was best. Firm enough to say “I have no patience with the teacher who is not meeting the needs of children and who does not have high expectations. No patience” [Principal interview 1,10/12/01, p.5, lines111-112], but caring enough of teachers and parents to work toward creating a positive school climate.

As principal A talked about ECE and supervisory process over the course of three interviews, she went back and forth creating a connection within her statements. It felt like all pieces of a puzzle were coming together with a clear rationale behind each of the pieces explaining why one particular piece should be there and how it fits within others. Newly graduated from college, teacher A exuded enthusiasm to be the best possible teacher she could be. She speaks proudly of her college education in terms of what she

learned and how much teaching experience she gained during those years. Her sense of pride continued as she started talking about her present practice. She patiently talked about what she envisions for her children and how she carries out her visions.

The support of her principal about what and how she teaches also gradually surfaced and flowed from her words. She made references to how well her principal knows her, and to how much she and her principal think alike, work together, and care for each other.

Nature of Supervisory Associations

Principal A and teacher A established a strong and positive supervisory connection between them. Dedicated to best serve children, these two educators were able to develop a type of supervisory association to which both of them refer as a working, informal, and productive one. As elaborated in the following paragraphs, this connection consists of several qualities, such as working in a collaborative manner, maintaining an ongoing communication, and showing respect for each other.

I feel that I can be really honest with her [principal A], and I can approach her about a lot of things. I think we have a very good working relationship. We kind of tend to think the same way and kind of react to things the same way, so we really fit together in that manner. So I can go to her and talk to her about things and pretty much know how she feels or if I need her advice; things like that. So it is really good working relationship. [Teacher interview 3, 10/22/01, p.7, lines 149-154]

Very informal [teacher A's association with principal A]. You can go in, you just talk to her and tell her what you need. I don't have to worry about her scrutinizing the way that I say something or how I feel or my opinion

about something. Telling her how I feel, she can agree or disagree or say 'okay, you can feel that way, but this is what we need to do'. She is very much type of person who worries about how can fix it. What is the end result, instead of really complaining about a situation. What can we do to fix it to make it better? So everything is pretty productive when we are talking. And usually we both leave with a list of things that we need to do, to make something work or to get into practice. But she is very approachable and usually we talk just about everyday. I think that is just because I don't really have a grade level partner so I have to talk to someone. [Teacher interview 3, 10/22/01, p.9, lines 189-201]

It [nature of supervisory associations] is a very collaborative, cooperative relationship. I think N. [kindergarten teacher] is wise enough to know that we can do stuff through stories. I think kind of building in Joseph Campbell that the truth lies in the story. So that experience becomes an extremely important part of a developing of thinking, developing of values, developing what we think is good, all that can come out through the stories. So N. [kindergarten teacher] likes to tell the stories of her classroom. I like to hear them. I think that through her stories to me I can find out the wisdom of what she is doing, the good stuff of what she is doing. And likewise on the other hand, my stories of my experiences to her, she finds the wisdom, the truth, and the understanding. I think the story is very important, the stories are very important to life. And we have a good healthy relationship. [Principal interview 3, 10/22/01,p.7, lines 147-157]

As emphasized in both principal A's and teacher A's interview responses, an ongoing communication was influential to establish a working, collaborative, and productive supervisory rapport. Also, an emerging outcome of this ongoing

communication was the extent to which both of them know about each other's perceptions of kindergarten curriculum and teaching. For instance, the same as her principal, teacher A placed a great deal of emphasis on how often she and her principal communicated on issues regarding kindergarten. She almost saw her principal as another kindergarten teacher with whom to share ideas related to teaching. By invitation, her principal became a more regular part of the classroom.

In terms of what I do in class, she is usually very involved with what is going on and I usually talk to her a lot about the projects and make sure she comes in and visits a lot. [Teacher A, interview 1, 10/01/01, p.5, lines 112-104] She comes in and I like her to come in a lot just to so the kids don't realize that the principal is just that, she'll come in and read a story to kids. There was a day that I had a meeting and I had missed my lunch. So she let me have my lunch she taught to kids, you know it is like pretty flexible. [Teacher interview 3, 10/22/01, pp.19-20, lines 428-437]

For me when we do new things for professional development, I see that okay another change to make it better and organize it better. But I think you need to analyze to see if it is working, or it is not, or if it has to be changed. But it is really easy with her [principal] because I can go into her office say something off the wall. We want to do this and that today. 'Okay go ahead, go for it.' She'll help me find a way make it work right so that it works out. Maybe if we need different space or different help, kind of vice versa. [Teacher interview 3, 10/22/01, p.19, 416-422]

Principal A came to her classroom with or without invitation frequently, but teacher A did not see their ongoing relationship as being uncomfortable because of the fact that her principal knew her well. There was a reciprocal respect between her and

principal A. From her comments, I infer that this reciprocal respect came alive as a result of each party's efforts at getting to know each other well, as illustrated in the following excerpt.

I think there was a point that I earned her [principal's] respect and that she had confidence in me to know that I was capable. So I think from that point once you learn to respect to each other and vice versa for me. Last year was the first year that we worked together because she was on a sabbatical leave before, but we had talked about things and everything. Just looking at the way that each other was thinking and the way that we went about things. I think that she also hear a lot from parents and I think that she is very proud of what she has been hearing from parents things like that. I think it starts with respect. Once you earned someone's respect, then it is very easy to work together I think. [Teacher interview 3, 10/22/01, pp.7-8, lines 157-165]

I observe her [teacher A], but I know her better from the conversation that we have. So that the time that I spend in the actual room supervising kind of just reaffirms what I feel is probably going to be there. What I do in a supervisory position with a good teacher is very different from what I do with a struggling teacher. N. [teacher A] is in my mind is extraordinary great teacher so that my actual supervision in her classroom is just pretty much an affirmation of what I know because I know her so well. Okay, if you extend supervision beyond the classroom, there is great of it because we spend a great deal of time together. It is discourse and dialogue.

[Principal interview 3, 10/22/01, p.6, lines 131-139] You cannot learn to know somebody and to understand not only how they do things, but why they do things if you are only doing snapshots. It can only be through the ongoing dialogue. [Principal interview 3, 10/22/01, p.9, lines 206-208]

Principal A's responses above indicate that she did not put much weight to annual formal observation of teacher A's teaching. Despite being a fairly new teacher, teacher A did not concentrate on the formal observation as well. For principal A, formal observation was just a reaffirmation of what she already knew about teacher A. She pointed out two reasons for her lack of emphasis on this annual observation. The first reason this kind of evaluation was uninformative in her efforts to know teacher A was because it is conducted only one or two times in a year. She relied more heavily on her ongoing communication with teacher A. The second reason stemmed from the static nature of the observational instrument used for this evaluation. In principal A's opinion, their instrument measured the same teaching behaviors over and over in a school year and thus could not capture emergence of a new behavior or progress in teaching performance.

Pre-conference and post conference and so on are not important when you have an ongoing relationship with somebody. So that when I go into her room, pre-conference is only a very small of part of the relationship of the ongoing dialogue. So a pre-conference is not important because it is a stand-alone. Pre-conference and post conference that happens all the time. That is a part of the ongoing dialogue. So do we talk about how? Do I talk to my teachers about how instruction is structured? Yes. Do I talk to them about the children, yes, do I know a lot about the children? Yes. Then when I go in you know that is just, that is like a piece in the puzzle. And then the post conference is no more important than the next week when I haven't observed them, but when the dialogue continues. [Principal interview 3, 10/22/01, p.8, lines 175-184] I question and encourage them to question themselves. A lot of time if you just listen a story that helps illuminate. [Principal interview 3,10/22/01, p.10, lines 225-226]

I think that the formal instrument [observational] that we have is very weak. It doesn't seem to me to make much sense to observe somebody four times a year and use the same instrument. You need to help somebody grow and the instrument that we use is very static. So basically you need to observe a math class one time and a reading class another time and in kindergarten there is not much more to do so. You do another math class and do another language arts class and different parts of language arts, but you end up kind of saying the same thing but maybe in a slightly different context. So it is the instrument and the fact that the instrument doesn't lend itself to a sequential. If you had an instrument that the first nine-week you measure what we talk about one area, second nine weeks, there is growth because you, and then you talked about it a different area. We don't have that, so I am not really pleased with the instrument that we have. If you only have to do it once, that would be fine. I know my people a lot better than, and I know more about them than the instrument allows me to tell anybody else and the feedback that can be provided by that instrument to the teachers is very limited. [Principal interview 3, 10/22/01, pp.16-17, lines 367-386]

Similar to her principal's lack of emphasis on formal observation, teacher A focused only on what she gets out of the formal observation to improve her teaching. It is important to note that she made reference to her communications with principal A about experiences happening in her classroom whether they are undesirable or desirable. This demonstrates the degree of open communication that existed between them.

I think I have never had an observation with the real problem. Reading over it [observation] helps me think like from an observer's eye. What is really good that makes me think oh good it is not a waste of time. It kind of reaffirms what I am doing. It makes me think what I could do a little bit better. Having not had a lot of negative stuff, I am just kind of a type of

person if something really negative is going on I know it, and I go to the principal before she knows. I mean if there is something that I am not happy with, we just kind of work out a way to fix it. [Teacher interview 3, 10/22/01, pp.29-30, lines 661-667]

Despite the informal and collaborative nature of this supervisory association, principal A's expectations of and goals for teachers surfaced. The following is a clear indicator of how she articulated her point of view with respect to this issue.

I want every teacher to be a caring, nurturing teacher, a demanding teacher, but demand within the DAP, within a developmental understanding of the children. You ask a child to give everything that he/she can give to an academic setting as long as it is realistic for that child. For teachers to be able to recognize that, ultimately I would like teachers to be kind of totally self-sufficient. Where I worked before this, I was probably, maybe realizing it, maybe not, but I am never sure. But I was a very charismatic personage because the teachers, they were very good, but anybody almost in a, not in an active, in that they looked up to me, but they looked up to me to do everything for them. When I left that district things went down very fast because I wasn't there to take care of them any longer. [Principal interview 3, p.10, lines 230-238]

I kind of made up my mind when I came here that I would never let that to happen to them. That I would be helpful and I would be caring. But in the end my goal would be for everybody to become self-sufficient and to stand on their own two feet. So when people say to me things like what should do, my answer is now "What do you think you should do and why do you think you should do it?" Because I know that when I have been their strength, the teacher strength came from me. I am not there and they have to know how to look out to themselves. I do tend to be and it is fight

for me not to take charge and take care of people. [Principal interview 3,10/22/01, p.10, lines 238-246] And then ultimately I want people to know themselves well enough and to care enough that they become the important person and they don't need me anymore. There is that old Chinese proverb about a leader and "the best leader is the one that nobody notices." [Principal interview 3, 10/22/01, p.10, lines 218-221]

As seen in principal A's interview responses, her vision as supervisor was to help her teachers to be self-sufficient in a such way that their teaching competency generates from themselves rather than from their supervisor. She emphasized the importance of identifying and stressing teachers' strengths rather than their limitations, as well as the importance of seeing teachers as decision makers. For her, it was easier to build on teachers' strengths.

The overarching aspect of principal A's and teacher A's supervisory association seemed to be based on ongoing dialogue influenced by virtues of respect, openness, and confidence. They both cared about each other as individuals and about what they do for the education of young children. The focus then becomes the reasons that influence this type of supervisory association. In order to illuminate and better understand why this supervisory association works, principal A's and teacher A's perceptions of curriculum, teacher A's classroom practice, and contextual factors will be examined.

Perceptions about Curriculum and Teaching

Both principal A and teacher A share similar perceptions with respect to curriculum and teaching of young children, and the guiding principles that existed behind their perceptions is illuminated here. In both principal A's and teacher A's eyes, their

philosophy of kindergarten curriculum and teaching is congruent with each other. An effective kindergarten curriculum and teaching of it comes alive as a result of the interaction of several factors. The existence and status of any one factor influences and is influenced by all the others according to principal A and teacher A. Two primary factors that both principal A and teacher A referred to when conceptualizing curriculum and teaching help represent a shared understanding that exist between them: knowing children well through observation to meet their needs better and creating a positive climate in the classroom. The linking force of all these points is the teacher.

The first guiding factor that constitutes principal A's and teacher A's conceptualization of curriculum and teaching is to know children well. Hence, observation is the essential tool in a kindergarten classroom. For principal A, reliance on observation stemmed from her belief that children's chronological age is not very informative for responsive and sensitive teaching (great variation exist among children who are the same age). For teacher A, observation of children was a tool that served as a connecting factor for bringing together different dimensions of teacher A's planning and teaching. For both of them, curriculum planning and implementing must meet individual needs of children. Through being cognizant of children's individual differences, teachers can determine appropriate expectations and challenges, provide thought provoking learning experiences, guide, and over-all facilitate their individual learning processes.

...[curriculum] reflects what we know about the need of children as they develop through various levels. It may have something to do with chronological age, but there will be great variations from a chronological age. So, we send five years olds and six years olds into kindergarten. Here we only send six years olds, but developmentally there may be a very big span there. So we have to plan and to implement those plans at many

different levels in order to meet those needs and it is that whole planning and implementing that becomes developmentally appropriate curriculum. [Principal interview 1, 10/12/01, p.13, lines 278-285] We know that a child who is six may be acting like a four year old or as a six year old. Maybe even have some qualities of child who is a little bit older, but there is a wide range within all of that. So although we bring them in at about six years and that sort of tells us something. It doesn't tell us much on a daily basis. [Principal interview 1, 10/12/01, p.13, lines 288-292]

You are observing how they play, observing how they talk. I think there are a lot of indicators the children who are at different levels. Maybe you wouldn't be able to identify specific level but you will be able to identify the children who probably need a little bit more assistance or more adaptations. Eventually you want to do some formal assessing depending on the curriculum. How they count, their one to one correspondence how they are writing things like that but a lot of them I think is instinct and observation. [Teacher interview 1, 10/01/01 p.18, lines 399-402, 407-409]

This complex task of planning and teaching entails an ongoing assessment carried out through observation rather than by conducting a variety of formal assessments. Principal A believed in observation of children since learning more and more about children was key in order to optimize their learning and development.

I think that there is a lot in assessment that you could call good until you begin to think of down sides of it. And I would rather see my teachers being very aware of what is going on with the child and doing a minimal a formal assessing, but a maximal amount of knowing those children. [Principal interview 1, 10/12/01, pp.23-24, lines 523-528] I think that N. [kindergarten teacher] has done very nice things because she has tied assessment into the state's standards. She is using observation to link

together what is happening in her room with whether it is meeting standards. I think that shows a great deal of insight and it is very rational. [Principal interview 1, 10/12/01, p.24, lines 544-547]

It [a good kindergarten] would be the situation where it is developmentally appropriate and there is a lot of times for free exploration and a lot of time for centers, not just whole group instruction. I think a lot of repetition is necessary and as much student participation them helping put a lot of different things in the class. Also I think a mixture of regular centers and literacy centers. Having enough time is always important. [Teacher A, interview 1, 10/01/01, pp.3-4, lines 75-80] I like them to make a years progress in our school year. Wherever they leave off, whoever they start, it is really based on their level so I would say DAP influences a lot what I am doing. I believe that children can do a lot of things. They don't have to be held there by certain assessments and how many letters they know. I believe they are motivated and if they are interested they can go as far as I set the goal. They'll reach it. So DAP probably has a lot head way. I don't want to frustrate children. [Teacher A, interview 1, 10/01/01p.14, lines 316-324]

Creating a positive classroom climate is the second guiding factor that defines principal A's and teacher A's conceptualization of curriculum and teaching. For them, a favorable classroom atmosphere was a precondition for learning to take place.

One [a good kindergarten] that is a nurturing environment, with the curriculum that takes into consideration the developmental needs of the children. [A good kindergarten] needs to be very much action oriented. I think that you can learn a lot of academics within a kindergarten year if the presentation is such that it is keeping the kinds of things that children are doing at that age. Physical, emotional, and social needs if they are

taken care of I think lots of academics can fit into that. [Principal A, interview 1,10/12/01, p.2, lines 27-32]

A positive classroom climate came alive with a conscious effort through acceptance of, care about, trust in, and respect for who the children are. According to principal A,

... the teacher is more part of a circumstance and a part of the community, a part of a living community. The teacher, I think, that one who has some additional insights into this balance, this variety in the classroom. So I think that it is very much responsibility of the teacher to help develop a healthy happy climate and happy culture. [Principal interview 2, 10/19/01, p.9, lines 192-196]

...the ability to accept children, as they are whether it is academically, socially, emotionally, and culturally, if those kids come to you and you truly can accept them that is the first step to moving with their needs, you got to accept them first and begin to move with their needs. [Principal interview 1,10/12/01, p.10, lines 218-221]

The notion of caring and acceptance encompasses both classroom and school levels. At the classroom level, caring comes through understanding and acknowledging of cultural differences among children. Therefore, diversity related experiences should not be limited in principal A's opinion to units about multiculturalism; rather they should be infused into the climate of the classroom.

If you are both at acceptance and delight in, differences can be an intricate part of any day in any way so that it becomes a part of culture, part of the climate of the classroom. If you see multicultural things as being strictly to planned for and implemented units of social studies, you have to be very careful in terms of time because time is so limited and you have to set

your goals very clearly. So, you probably are not going to have a lot of time to develop a unit or units, but an acceptance is an attitudinal thing and a caring and so it is a different way of achieving things which I think are much much more lasting. Because if I care for you simply because I care for you and my differences are my differences and your differences are your differences, my likeness and so on. But you know that if it is attitudinal and acceptance is deep with inside us then the idea of making it a part of a formal curriculum kind of falls in another part of decision making that has more to do with all that we have to do, how much time we have to it, what are our goals. I am not sure that we would gain a whole a lot by just making an undue amount of our time, taking undue amount of our time to do something really formally that might be longer lasting and more effectively done if we get it in terms of attitude, and just caring. [Principal interview 2, 10/19/01, p.7, lines 135-151]

Analogously, teacher A thought that she was accomplishing the endeavor of creating a positive environment by embracing the children as they are and by avoiding imposing others' values on them. Because of this aspect, she called her curriculum "open-ended" in terms of values. Having knowledge about children's families facilitated this endeavor because it provided guidance as to necessary accommodations. The following quotations back up these assertions.

I really think that our curriculum is kind of open-ended. Questions are asked and students are allowed to share about different backgrounds and about different feelings especially in our social studies curriculum. I think it tries to include everyone just all the students speak and share about the differences. I don't think that it kind of closes them off or kind of teaches just one value or one kind of family value. [Teacher interview 2, 10/19/01, pp. 9-10, lines, 197-209] It [social studies curriculum] will just ask general questions about some; it may be that there are questions about

values, but students are allowed to answer and share about all the different kinds of things that they are there. It never says this is the way that you do something. So, in the forms them to share, write about, draw picture, or tell us how they do things and it doesn't say that one is right and one is wrong. [Teacher interview 2, 10/19/01, pp. 9-10, lines, 197-209]

I think that you need to make your classroom so that it welcomes students who are coming from all different kinds of backgrounds. Even when I give parents a note, go home and tell your mom or dad, or grandma, grandpa whoever, you cannot just limit yourself to certain thing. So you need to be very careful with those little things that can make you feel different. We don't want them to feel different to the point they feel bad about themselves. A lot of our curriculum I notice this year, talked about different things, like different kinds of houses. We talk about how some people live in apartments, some people live in trailers, some people live in houses, and some people live in townhouses. So we talk about all the different kinds. It is nice because they know not all kids identify with living in a house. With those little ways I think that all the children are learning more to accept different type of things. When it comes things like expecting items in the classroom, I mean I think it is taking into consideration. But there are times that I expect the same thing from every student. But there times I am going to know that some kids are going to come in and they are not going to have a snack and that is never an issue. There is always extra and I give them to hand out. If they don't have a show and tell, I give them something to show. But I really think that it is about making children feel comfortable. But also, not making it a really big issue that they don't have to do this because of this. It is kind of fine line. The teacher should know it. The teacher should be aware of it, talk to the parents, and talk about what kind of adaptations they should make about. [Teacher interview 2, 10/19/01, pp.5-6, lines 98-120]

Teacher A showed her understanding of an accepting classroom atmosphere as she depicted her two related overarching goals for the kindergartners: enjoying being in school and having positive experiences. These two primary goals for kindergartners were socio-emotional in nature. She said that she strives to make children feel good about themselves and to experience success in her classroom because these two factors establish a strong foundation for later academic learning. In her opinion, children should not be pressured for any reason, including learning academics in kindergarten. She considered the notion of making children feel positive and successful an important part of her own philosophy of ECE, that is not addressed by DAP. The following extended set of quotations from the interviews provides evidence to support these characterizations of teacher A.

When I came into this class, the teacher whose place I took was known for having these children reading. She told everybody, and it was commonly known that she had a lot of beginner readers. When I first started, I thought I have to have all these children reading. They have to read. I felt very pressured by that. And I learned that I am not going to set that goal for myself. But my goal is for them to enjoy school and for them to love to read and practice. It doesn't matter if they can all read yet, as long as they know that it is fun and they enjoy it. These are the two big things that I really want. Because I think if they like to read and they have all these basic building blocks, they are going to be able to do in the first grade. That should not be, I think it will get taught in first grade too. I felt as for reading, I focus on concepts of print skills and phonemic awareness activities. Also some beginning phonics stuff that goes with that. They are my two goals. I have goals that I want with their writing also. We also have a report card that we kind of want them like I want them to be able to count to a hundred, write their phone number, their birthday, their

address; little things like that, their shapes, the value of nickel, penny and dime. I want them to be able to write whole sentence, full thought, using some beginning sounds, just beginning sounds.
[Teacher interview 1, 10/01/01, pp.12-13, lines 280-296]

I think my philosophy is very much based in having children feel excited about school and feel excited about learning so, that takes a lot more. If I would explain to parents and teachers what I want my kindergarten kids to feel like when they are in the room to get excited and really enjoy coming to school and a lot of our activities are kind of built to make them feel positive and successful. DAP comes into play at times definitely when I am thinking about how much time I spend on things and how appropriate the activities are for the age level, meeting the different needs of the class is definitely a big part of it. [Teacher interview 1, 10/01/01, pp. 2-3, lines 44-50]

Curriculum needs to be adaptable to all the types of students at different levels, having the children do things that they can be successful at and having the time, rushing the students, which is so hard to do, with the time that we have in our day. Giving them enough time to look through things, at the same time not giving them so much time so they don't stray away from what their topic supposed to be. Also having curriculum that you can adapt to the students who passed that level and student who may be below the level and they can still be successful, almost challenging for all the students. [Teacher interview 1, 10/01/01, p.17, lines 389-396]

At the school level, the climate of caring and acceptance was important because caring for young children expanded to caring about their parents according to principal A.

She accomplished this by being available for parents and by ensuring that they feel welcomed. She said:

I talk with parents informally and make sure that people understand that mine is an open door policy. If they need to call, they can call. If they need to meet, they come in. There again, I think it is part of the culture that there is an openness with parents and again goes back to that ethic of caring. If you care about children you kind of get inevitable care about their parents. Out of that caring and with an open door policy it is very easy to develop that.” [Principal interview 2,10/19/01, p.5, lines 99-104]

When considering principal A’s and teacher A’s conceptualization of curriculum and teaching in terms of curriculum orientations or frameworks, it seemed to be congruent primarily with the framework of DAP; which is consistent with a curriculum-as- transaction orientation. Socio-emotional well being of children is essential to establish a foundation for further learning and development. This is accomplished through providing a positive and supportive classroom atmosphere through which children’s individual interests, needs, and abilities are recognized and valued.

As evidenced in the preceding pages, the way principal A and teacher A conceptualized the kindergarten curriculum and teaching is congruent. Both principal A and teacher A are aware that their portrayal of curriculum and teaching is similar because of the fact that they have similar perspectives on educational issues that are articulated through a continuous communication between them. This ongoing communication about kindergarten issues was based on respecting each other, on getting support when needed (whether it is about materials or time to talk about a concern) and on working together on these issues.

One cannot help but wonder at the reasons behind such a strong congruency that exists between principal A's and teacher A's perception of curriculum and teaching. One of the reasons, for instance, principal A hired teacher A was due to congruency between her and teacher A's espoused platform. More details will be provided in the last section of this chapter on this issue.

As I delved into the shared understandings that principal A and teacher A have, I began to think about how and whether or not their shared perceptions of curriculum manifest themselves in and shape the nature of classroom practices. The following section focuses on illuminating this aspect.

Classroom Practices

In this section, I illuminate whether and how principal A's and teacher A's supervisory associations manifest themselves, as I examine whether their conceptualization of curriculum and teaching is reflected in practice. The influence of their supervisory associations on classroom practices becomes apparent as principal A articulates more of her own styles of supervising.

Situational, I think that different situations will dictate for me how I am going to handle a circumstance. The only leadership style I tend to really not identify with it all is authoritarian simply because that goes to that thing that if I tell you something, you have no part of it. You haven't bought into it, you don't have stake in it. You are not giving anything of yourself to it. And it is also the antithesis of who I am, I think. It just it is not something that I can do. So it has been really quiet at the core of my being. I think it is negative through and through to just hand down decisions. I don't think you gain anything. I mean the gain is so

momentary that it is not worth, I think, making decisions like that.

[Principal interview 3, 10/22/01, p.11, lines 263-278]

Part of it again it [supervision] is just who I am. I have very strong feelings about service ethic. The college that I went to their basic model was educate to serve, so probably that relationship has a lot to do with that ethic of feeling that meaning for me comes through service. About people making being part of their decision in ultimately being the decision maker maybe also comes from terrible rebelliousness that lays deep in me which resents people telling me what to do. But it has been basically who I am and the kind of temperament. In many ways I am very easy going, very laid back, very open to people, and that service ethic very strong.

[Principal interview 3, 10/22/01, p.13, lines 294- 299, 313-315]

The preceding paragraphs demonstrate that being an authoritarian is not compatible with principal A's view of supervising. She connected all these characteristics of her supervisory associations to who she is as a person. For principal A, a teacher's ability to make effective decisions was essential. Handing down the decisions to the teachers did not contribute to teachers' growth-either as individuals or as professionals.

Principal A's emphasis on teachers' ability of decision-making can also be seen in teacher A's reflections upon the extent of her own decision making. Teacher A stated that she makes decisions regarding classroom practices. Although the curriculum books are determined at the district level, teacher A could decide what to teach from these books, how to sequence curriculum, and how to teach.

When I started last year, most of the things were just given to me. This is what you have to do to find a way to make it work with your schedule,

things like that. I kind of rank it according to importance what I think is the most important. I think centers are very important for children. That is why we spend half an hour everyday in centers. I think it is important for socialization and it gives me time to work with students. Things like morning meeting aren't required. That is something that I do. Calendar math is not necessarily required, but that is something I do. [Teacher interview 1, 10/01/2001, p.20, lines 451-458] And then I kind of try to fit them [curriculum textbooks] in the way that I can. Most of these curriculums are probably more adapted; they are better fit for a full day. So a lot of, I have to do is picking and choosing what I can fit in so I have a lot of choice, but not a lot of time. If we go full day, we have perfect program. [Teacher interview 1, 10/01/2001, p.20, lines 460-464]

As an outside researcher, I am convinced that observations of teacher A's classroom are in support of her conceptualization of the curriculum as she stated them in the interviews and as she reported them on the instructional activities questionnaire. Several activities that took place during the observations led me to conclude that there is a general consistency between her beliefs and practices.

In her interviews, teacher A mainly focused on children's socio-emotional development which, in her opinion, was a building block for academic achievement. She said that she wants her children to enjoy being in school and to like reading and to feel positively about themselves. From her perspective, this could be best accomplished through giving children activities that allowed for their exploration and through giving children ample time and choice in the learning areas. This focus was apparent in her responses to the instructional activities questionnaire in which she self-reported that she includes exploratory learning weekly in her classroom. Indeed, I observed evidence of

her valuing exploratory learning in the classroom. For instance, one common activity was to take a walk around the school buildings and to gather nature-related materials, such as leaves and acorns. Returning to their classroom, the children sat around the carpeted area and examined and discussed what they had gathered from outside.

Children daily coordinated their own activities in learning areas, engaging in a variety of art media, such as painting and working with play dough. These activities reported in the interviews were supported by my classroom observations. Teacher A allowed the children to choose the learning areas in which they wanted to be, and she provided them with different child-initiated activities, that often integrated art, language arts, and other subjects.

There were many examples of classroom activities that supported her emphasis on helping children enjoy reading through being in her classroom. For instance, on one occasion teacher A read a poem that was placed on a large piece of white sheet on an easel during the circle time. This can be considered her way of avoiding pressure for rigidly structured activities for teaching academic skills. She would rather provide the children with activities that will help them enjoy learning. The children certainly seemed attentive when she was reading the poem and their interest in the poem continued even after the circle time was over.

In the circle time, the teacher read a poem and placed on an easel by pointing out each word with a pointer. The children read the poem with her. After the circle time was over, the teacher put the poem on the corner of the place where the circle time takes place everyday. During the center time, two children stood in front of the easel and tried to read the poem. One of them visited the poem two times. In the first time, I was near by

her, and this child read the poem to me by pointing out the words with her index finger. She was able to read the poem by replacing the words with her own words. [Classroom observation data 1, 9/28/01]

A song provides an example that is congruent with her questionnaire responses pertaining to “integrating different curriculum areas” and “good to help children enjoy learning.” The children did some movements while listening to a song called “Up and down the mountain” from a cassette tape about numbers. Teacher A described when and how many steps they needed to take, when and how many times they needed to jump, and when and how they needed to run. All children were listening to her attentively. The children were counting aloud and walking, jumping, and running. Some of them were also gleeful.

The “story with three and movements” incorporated numbers. The focus was on being able to tell something that has three in it and to walk and or to run based on the number song that they heard from the cassette player. Teacher A asked, “Does anyone have a story with three?” (e.g. I have three kittens). The children seemed excited about this story with three. Some children raised their hand but couldn’t come up with whole sentence (e.g. I have three kittens). Then, the teacher said, “Keep thinking” [Classroom observation data 3, 10/03/01].

In her interview responses, teacher A stated that she frames her teaching around shared reading books, a procedure which usually lasts a week and includes related activities for the learning centers. She wanted children to like reading. Classroom observation data indicated her use of big books and having activities related to that book. For instance, she read the book Dan the Flying Man and the children joined her in a read

aloud. Then she dictated children's own stories and children made illustrations for them. After the illustrations were completed, they were put together as a classroom book. While teacher A was reading a book titled as Dan The Flying Man during circle time, some children joined reading. She emphasized the words that rhyme. Then, she said "you are going to tell me your own story and I will write it on this chart paper. Then you are going to draw pictures for your own story." Teacher A let the children come up with a title for their story. While she wrote it on the chart paper, all the children were watching her quietly. The children chose to give the same title, "Dan The Flying Man." Then, they came up with sentences for each page, such as "He flew over the rain and over the train." They decided what should happen at the end of the story. Once they finished writing the story, teacher A read their story aloud and asked "who wants to draw the picture for the cover, for the first page, etc." She let some children draw the picture by themselves or with a partner [Classroom observation data 3, 10/03/01].

From teacher A's perspective, a kindergarten teacher should create a classroom atmosphere in which all children feel acknowledged. Also, parents are partners and meeting with them is an essential avenue for explaining her understanding about children and for sharing activities to further involve them in the classroom. She also noted that her curriculum was open-ended and opined that teachers need to examine their own attitudes toward multicultural issues and be cognizant of their use of language in the classroom. To explain this feature of her thinking, she gave an example of being careful about not solely addressing traditional family members, such as mom or dad, when sending home notes. Second example incorporating differences into her curriculum was

addressing different types of houses. Learning about different houses, places, and family types are part of the multicultural learning experiences found in her classroom. In addition, classroom observation data revealed that her classroom materials were diversity-oriented to some extent. For instance, she had books that included people of color, words written in Russian, and posters depicting different aged people.

The idea of helping children feel acknowledged, mentioned above, was supported by the information that was gathered through classroom observation. For example, during my first classroom observation, I saw teacher A doing a “special student of the day” in the circle time. The special student of the day brought something to show and tell during the circle time. The student drew a self-portrait and shared it with the class and also had special responsibilities, such as using hand puppets to remind the children that center time was over and that cleaning time would start. The other children complimented this child. This observation suggests a general consistency between teacher A’s interview statements on curriculum and what was seen taking place in her classroom. Another example she gave in an interview an event that happened in her classroom between two children who had different skin colors. One of the Russian children touched an African-American child’s skin several times. Following this event, teacher A planned a learning experience in which the children examined their own skin color and graphed it to show variation and to discuss how everybody’s skin color was unique. Observational data corroborated the interview report.

Teacher A recognized that diversity related experiences were not sufficiently a part of her teaching. She stated that time, resources, and the kindergartner’s understanding level are factors impacting why such learning experiences did not more

frequently take place. Since she had two and a half hours in a day, she felt the time constraint strongly. Lack of resources about multiculturalism hindered what she could do in the classroom. Lastly, she believed that kindergarten children at this age are usually self-centered and thus they may not understand very well another person's perspective.

The following interview responses support the above claims about teacher A.

I would say probably not as much as it [diversity related experiences] should be, but I think it comes in the form of different lessons that go along with the curriculum, like I said with the social studies curriculum talking about different places, ways people do things differently and then really focusing on the Russian traditions and culture. Probably it should come across a little bit more. See it is hard with two and half hours when there are a lot of other things considering going on things like that. And there are a lot of things that I think the kindergarteners not necessarily understand about different cultures, because that is, the way that a kindergarten a child thinks is more child-centered and they think the way they do everything is the right way. [Teacher interview 2, 10/19/01, pp.12-13, lines 273-282]

In conclusion, the guiding principles of, knowing the children well and creating a positive classroom environment are, behind teacher A's and principal A's conceptualization of how curriculum manifested itself in the classroom. Teacher A's concerns about developmental domains, different curriculum areas, children's dispositions, children's interests, classroom context, and family matters are all ways of carrying out these guiding principles. However, the attention that she paid to each of these concerns varied. Teacher A appeared to think and to operate from a perspective that enjoying being in the classroom and enjoying engaging in reading both greatly influence children's learning in a positive manner. So her starting point of thinking about

teaching kindergartners is the affective states of children and their perceptions of school and reading. She thought that learning experiences should be within children's zones of abilities in order to help them experience success rather than failure or stagnation. Other domains of development that her teaching addressed were the physical and the social. Taking a walk outside and doing a song with movements are examples of her ways of incorporating these two domains into her teaching. She considered that the time allotted for the learning areas served to foster children's social development. Classroom observations back up her beliefs such as when I saw and recorded a group of children talking with each other and putting on clothes that were made available in the dramatic play area, with another group of children cooperatively constructing a train station together.

As far as the curriculum areas are considered, she addressed language arts, math, science, music, and art. Language arts were taught through different activities. There was a noticeable emphasis on children's literature evidenced through the use of picture books, poems, and some nonfiction books in the classroom. For instance, she read a big book and had the children dictate their own stories to her and then had them draw the pictures for the stories. The children usually seemed very interested in engaging in literacy related activities during the learning areas. Once three children were seen holding picture books and looking through them within a classroom area that had colorful comfortable seats to sit in for looking at the books. Another child was concurrently pretending to read the poem placed on an easel.

The activity on "examining skin colors" has potential to serve as a way to foster intellectual "scientific thinking" dispositions depending on how this activity is

orchestrated. For instance, if the teacher leads the children to ask questions and make predictions about their skin color before they examine it, she can encourage them to learn about developing and testing a hypothesis, about reexamining an initial hypothesis based on their current understandings. The “guessing game” was another example of activity that might be considered to fit in the category of fostering such intellectual dispositions. I observed that a picture of an animal was placed on the back of a child who was supposed to guess its name by asking questions to the class who knew the animal. Through this activity the children had a chance to practice question asking and predicting. Hence, the attention paid to intellectual dispositions (such as analyzing, hypothesizing, and synthesizing), seemed to exist to a limited extent in teacher A’s classroom.

Just as principal A conceptualizes that caring for children also entails caring for their parents, I can see that teacher A also views parents as being partners. Her interview indicates that she uses parents’ input for assessment purposes. She said that she learns from parents what skills their children do and do not exhibit at home. She informs parents about their children’s progress at school and their areas of weaknesses. Also, she gave small project ideas to be completed at home, such as a fall collage; parental input was requested about these projects. Teacher A saw her relationship with parents as being reciprocal. However, I did not see any indication that she used the information gathered from parents to formulate children’s learning experiences in the classroom.

The existence of a congruency between principal A’s and teacher A’s conceptualization of curriculum and teaching, and active-collegial supervisory associations between them does not prevent teacher A from recognizing a limit that her principal has with respect to her influence on teaching. From teacher A’s perspective,

she knew her group of children better than did principal A because of her regular presence in the classroom. The fact that she was with the children on a daily basis but principal A was not created this reality which attenuated principal A's influence on this teacher.

I think she [principal] is not there for the day to day. She doesn't see these students every single day; deal with their behaviors every single day. I think that is a limit that a lot of she has to hear from me and some of the specifics about what are going on with certain students. With curriculum, she hasn't really physically taught them. I think her limits basically that she is not a teacher. She has to depend on her teachers for feedback because she is not actually going through the process. I know this set of children better. She has been a teacher before but she has to rely a lot of things on my information because she is not in the room everyday and she doesn't use the new curriculum that we got, so she needs to rely on me.
[Teacher interview 3, 10/22/01, p.18, lines 392-404]

Synopsis of Case A

In probing for reasons behind the type of supervisory association that emerged between principal A and teacher A, several points need to be considered. First, principal A is straightforward in expressing that she hired teacher A because she was convinced that teacher A possessed the same espoused platform as she does. This aspect establishes a positive base from the start since it becomes clear for principal A that teacher A is a person like herself. For teacher A, as a beginning teacher, she receives approval from her supervisor for what she believes kindergarten education should be. Of course, having the same espoused platform does not assure developing positive rapport and ongoing

communication, but does presents itself as a potential to be built on. Apparently, principal A and teacher A are compatible in personality as both of them gave examples of how the two care for each other.

Secondly, principal A has been in the same school for 13 years and has taught at several grade levels. With this vast amount of experience in teaching and in administrating, principal A can easily share her own thoughts (in her own words “telling stories”) about issues under consideration. Also with 13 years experience she knows the community and the families at a deep level.

As a third influencing factor, note that principal A is responsible only for one school building, which has grades K-5th, and that teacher A is the only kindergarten teacher. From her articulation of her supervisory association, she has time, she espouses having such a supervisory association, and she finds it being congruent with her own personality.

When one examines this type of supervisory association from teacher A’s perspective, other reasons become apparent. As mentioned above, teacher A starts with an advantage of sharing a similar espoused platform of education as her principal. In a way, this gives her a sense of confidence that as far as her beliefs and values go she is accepted by her supervisor. And once she starts teaching, her confidence increases due to receiving approval for her teaching and for her associations with her supervisor. Right from the beginning she knows what is expected of her as a kindergarten teacher and what to do to be responsive to these expectations.

Considering that teacher A has only two years of experience in teaching, she seemed to be open to ideas from her supervisor, who has many years of experience. Due

to the fact that she does not have a same grade level teacher in this building, she finds communicating with her principal more and more useful in enhancing her ability of planning and teaching. For instance, due to principal A's knowledge about the families in this community, teacher A considers her as a good resource. These aspects are influential in the form, nature, and extent of the supervisory associations.

Based on characteristics discussed in the preceding sections of this chapter, as summarized in figure 1, I inferred that principal A and teacher A perceived supervision as dialogue through which they generated an active-collegial supervisory association. In general, the diagram connects an active-collegial supervisory association with teaching through the use of facilitative power and ongoing dialogue. It also demonstrates which features generate from the facilitative power and ongoing dialogue.

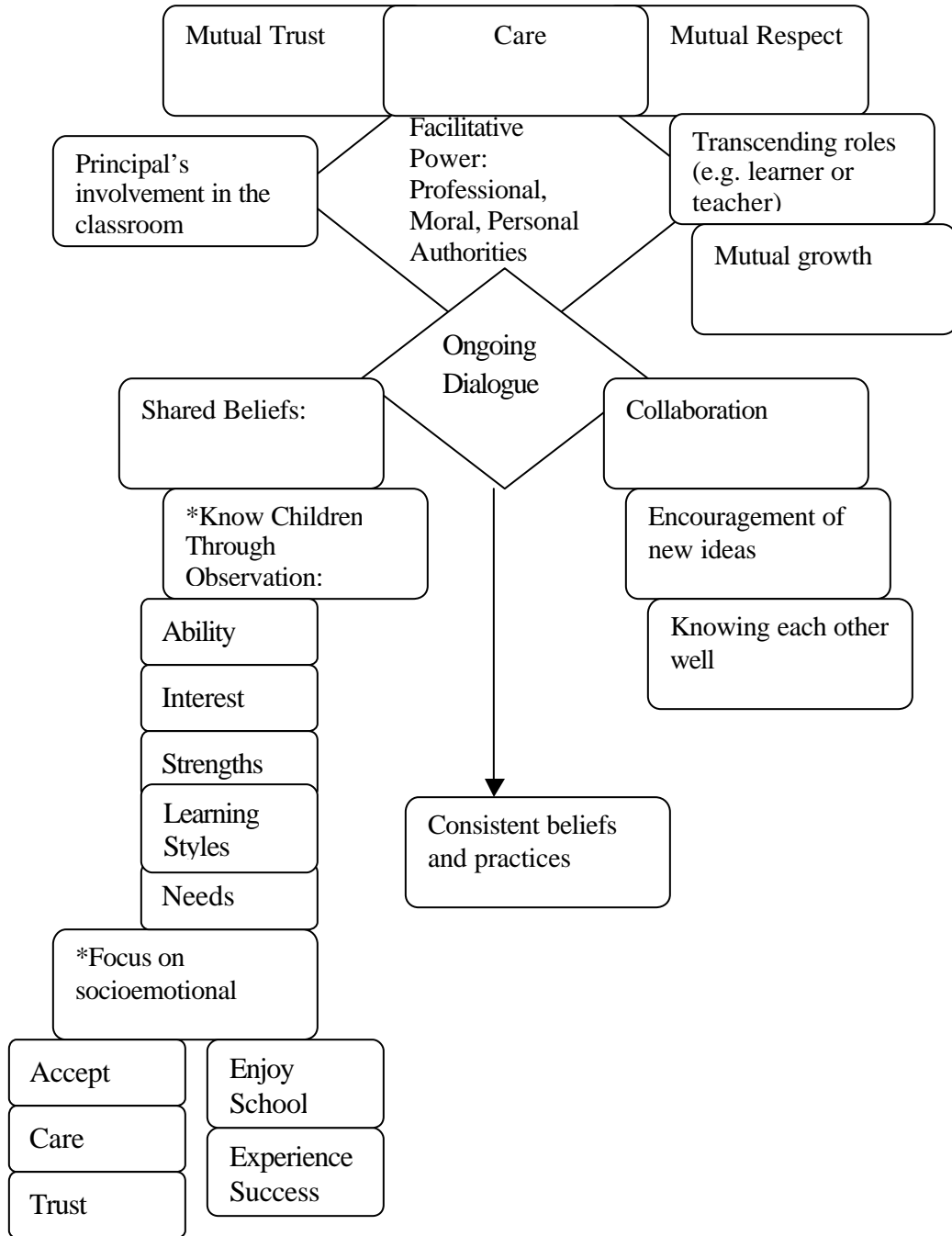


Figure 1: Active-collegial supervisory associations

Careful examination of figure 1 will reveal the connection between supervision and teaching. Since active-collegial supervision relies on facilitative power, both teachers and supervisors act in egalitarian manner. Supervision is not an isolated event and the supervisor is not a superior over teachers. Rather, through facilitative power, educators choose to engage in ongoing dialogue, collaborate on issues, and develop shared beliefs about education of young children. This linkage will be discussed further in the last chapter.

A similar type of supervision is discussed by Duncan Waite (1995) as “Dialogic Supervision” which is seen as an example of the postmodern way of approaching supervision. Waite proposes to initiate the dialogue through witnessing of a teaching event. The goal here is to “focus on and enhance the quality of the teacher-supervisor conversation, the dialogue, rather than focusing on the data.” This way, both “teacher and supervisor have a better chance of coming to the table on an equal footing” (Waite, 1995, p.127).

The characteristics that tie case A’s supervision to Waite’s conceptualization of dialogic supervision are: mutual learning and growing through ongoing dialogue, trust, and respect. At the heart of this dialogue was reflection that allowed principal A and teacher A to articulate their understandings, questions, and/or concerns related to curriculum or teaching. Principal A referred to the importance of “telling stories” and learning from them. She learned about teacher A through her stories and felt that teacher A learned lessons from principal A’s stories.

Both principal A and teacher A were confident in each other’s knowledge and methods of working with young children. They had shared values and beliefs that fit

within the philosophy of DAP as discussed previously. It was through dialogue that they made these values explicit. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998) claim that these agreed upon values become norms for behavior. Therefore, individuals operate on the “ability of teachers as community members to respond to felt duties and obligations” (p.45).

Professional and moral authorities govern the power of influencing thoughts and behaviors related to supervisory associations or education of young children mainly yielding a collegial supervisory association.

The overarching component here is the existence of community as a form of approaching schools. Sergiovanni (1996) defines communities as “collections of individuals who are bonded together by natural will and who are together bound to a set of shared ideas and ideals”. This bond “transforms the members from a collection of ‘I’s’ into a collection of ‘We’s.’ As a ‘we,’ members are part of a tightly knit web of meaningful relationships. This ‘we’ usually shares a common place and over time comes to share common sentiments and traditions that are sustaining.” The distinctive characteristics of communities, such as cores of values, feeling, and attitudes are necessary to generate an understanding of ‘we’ from the ‘I’ of each individual (pp. 47-48).

An aspect of Waite’s (1995) dialogic supervision that is different from case A’s supervision as dialogue is the use of personal authority as a source for supervision and education. Personal authority in case A is used as a way of developing a positive school climate (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998) which is also a goal of teacher A to establish in her classroom.

Another aspect that is emphasized by Waite (1995, 2000), but is deemphasized in case A, is the issue of critically questioning one's assumptions. Although teacher A and principal A had shared philosophical understandings, they needed to establish and maintain a dialogue on operationalizing this philosophy. So, they were getting to know each other both professionally and personally, which may overshadow critical analysis of beliefs and assumptions.

CHAPTER FIVE: CASE B

This chapter contains portrayures of principal B and teacher B. Principal B is a male and had been in his current administrative position for three years. He holds K-6 and principal certifications and has never taught kindergarten. Teacher B has a Masters of Science in Education and holds Elementary Education Certification (K-6). She has taught ten years in school B and four years in other schools.

Portraiture of Principal B and Teacher B

Pleased with his district's way of working on kindergarten curriculum, teacher B's pedagogical approach and his supervisory associations with her, principal B painted a picture of himself as being an overconfident administrator. Although he demonstrated no signs of questioning either his own view of ECE or the kindergarten program in general, he articulated his view of ECE curriculum and teaching with a few words, and with little or no elaboration sometimes. Analogous to the degree of his certainty on kindergarten issues, he had clear-cut job descriptions of individuals within the school context, such as the guidance counselor's job as being to deal with diversity related issues.

Teacher B's primary reference points were her efforts to follow what the district requires her to do and her years of teaching experience in kindergarten. She would make statements like "I try to follow what the district wants, the principal wants, I try to listen." or "over the years I have found parent involvement very beneficial." She was very pleased with the context in which she teaches and proud of her teaching style. She had often praised her principal due to his way of interacting with teachers and defined their supervisory associations in a positive fashion. From her perspective, her teaching style

allows children to progress with their own pace and to take risks. Her pride became more apparent as she demonstrated how she uses portfolios to document children's work; how she uses portfolios to inform and involve parents; and how some of her students' are academically doing well. From time to time, teacher B made an effort to place herself philosophically in what is socially acceptable. Throughout the interviews she asked the researcher's opinion about the matter under consideration.

Nature of Supervisory Associations

Flattering words flew when both principal B and teacher B articulated their perspective of each other. Principal B portrayed teacher B as a dedicated teacher while teacher B depicted principal B as approachable, objective, and sensitive. Principal B believed that teacher B "cares very much about children, very much about their learning, and she puts tremendous amount of time in their teaching and into her planning. She is very dedicated." [Principal interview 1, p.5, lines100- 102] In principal B's eyes, the degree of teacher B's dedication was even extreme and he thus pointed it out as a concern: "She probably spends too much in her classroom. I sometimes wonder whether she lives for school, rather than lives her life." [Principal interview 1, 01/02/02, p.6, lines 120-121]

Principal B's and teacher B's focus was different when describing their supervisory association. For teacher B, supervisory association was primarily the help that she received from principal B when she needed it and how he treated her. For principal B, supervisory association consisted of meeting the requirements of teacher performance evaluation.

I think it [supervision] is very positive. He is a wonderful principal. He is very approachable. You never feel like he is being judgmental. So you feel like you can share anything that is really on your mind that you would like to get some help from or any sort of feedback. He is an excellent mediator, he is an advocate for the teachers as well the students, and he is fair-minded. So he doesn't always tell people what they want to hear, but he is going to evaluate and look at different sides of an issue. He is a very sensitive person. So he is careful about not hurting people's feelings, but yet he can help to guide us in a very constructive way. He is really good. He is a very thoughtful person as far as looking at different sides of an issue, evaluating and processing information to come up with the solution or suggestion that make a lot of sense, a lot of times. [Teacher interview 3, 02/18/2002, p. 6, lines 114-124]

As discussed in the literature review, supervision is conventionally focused on teacher evaluation, which reflects a technical notion. The goal is the quality control of teacher performance and thus the primary role of supervisors is evaluative (Oja & Reiman, 1998; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998) as in the case of principal B. "I do an annual observation" [Principal interview 3, 01/17/2002, p.1, line 22] and "I usually go in for formal observation once in a year" [Principal interview 2, 01/02/02, p.6, lines 139] said principal B when describing the nature of his supervisory associations with teacher B. During this annual observation, principal B aims to "look at planning, evaluating, the lesson plan itself, how it is organized, and how it is delivered." [Principal interview 3, 01/17/2002, p.3, lines 62-63] With this one observation, he makes a judgment about the competency of teacher B.

When the supervisors' role is seen as inspection of quality of teaching, the source of authority for supervision is primarily bureaucratic. The defining characteristics of

such authority are “hierarchy, rules and regulations, mandates, and clearly communicated role expectations” (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998, p.39). As is seen in the following group of quotes, similar characteristics surfaced in examining interview responses of both principal B and teacher B. For instance, the way they both talk about supervision revealed an existence of a superior-subordinate relationship. The power of principal B being a superior with an evaluator role carries a notion of being an expert. A hierarchical way of thinking does not necessarily mean being better than others, however it places teacher B in a non-expert position.

He [principal B] does not always question my judgment. I don't feel he is always asking why did you do this or I want to know what your thinking was behind this or that. If I am doing something he could see I can do better, I am always open to input. He has made suggestions that I very much appreciated them. For instance, I wasn't putting these alphabet strips on at the beginning of the year last year [letters written on strips and glued on the table for each child] in front of their nametags. He said you know that might be helpful. I said yes and thought about that. I knew that you know considering eye hand coordination, you want to reference. I had a reference in their journal but that is something they have to open up to find that, you don't always have a journal. Sometimes it is a piece of paper that they are writing on, so that made perfect sense. I was grateful for the suggestion. [Teacher interview 1, 12/13/2001, p.7, lines 140-152]

If he [principal B] does see something we could do differently, we know it has always been; he'll say it in an attitude of support and cooperation so we can really receive the information real easily. It is definitely a good situation, as far as the rapport between the principal and the teachers. [Teacher interview 3, 02/18/2002, p.8, lines 170-175]

Most definitely [principal influences her practice]. He sets the higher priority on technology. He is head of technology in our district. I know that he is very patient. If we are trying, but it has been a while since we haven't done something that he would expect us to know by now, in a nice way he'll say, I really like you to work on that, you should know this by now. So knowing that and knowing the kind of person he is, it makes me want to make the effort and figure it out and do it because I know that he appreciates this. [Teacher interview 3, 02/18/2002, p.11, lines, 228-234]

Teacher B's interview responses in the preceding paragraphs indicate that principal B sets a hierarchical tone. One can see that he is in the role of an expert who can determine priorities and make suggestions to teachers. Other evidence of this relationship stems from principal B's comments about teacher B. For instance, he made the statement that "she [teacher B] has a real understanding about how we feel." This suggests that principal B felt that understanding has to be developed by the teacher, but not necessarily by him or both of them.

Along with the notion of expert, teacher B's interview responses revealed principal B's direct style of communicating with teacher B. One of the statements in the above paragraph that exemplifies such direct style is "you should know this by now." [Teacher interview 3, 02/18/2002, p.11, lines, 233-234] With a similar authoritarian manner, principal B stated that he

...would expect her [teacher B] to describe a good kindergarten in a way that I did. We [principal B and teacher B] have the same philosophy. She and I have been to enough meetings together. I listen to her and she listens to me. I think we are pretty much on the same page. [Principal interview 1, 01/02/02, p.1-2, lines, 29, 32-34]

Note that principal B's choice of language in portraying teacher B's perspective has a hierarchical nature. It is not difficult to figure out that these statements belong to a super-ordinate person. Also, teacher B's perceptions of principal B's style of communicating his priorities, making suggestions on teaching practices and sometimes questioning what she does are noteworthy. In her eyes, these features are part of principal B's being supportive and positive. These features seem to make more sense in the context of a super-ordinate-subordinate relationship where teachers perceive their supervisor as an expert who determines what is best and principals possess an authoritarian style. They can be considered negative by other teachers and principals as well when the interaction between them is defined by collegiality.

One way to explain the reasons behind teacher B's positive perceptions of principal B's hierarchical relationship with her is to think of it in terms of her tendency for being a conformist individual. That is, other individuals' expectations determine beliefs and values that guide one's teaching (Oja & Reiman, 1998, p.466). This feature of her was very apparent when she described her curriculum and teaching. She often said that she follows the district's requirements and would start applying other teaching strategies if the district requires her to do so.

In summary, supervisory associations between principal B and teacher B seemed to consist of the formal observation time and teacher B's needs. When asked about his most recent interactions with teacher B, principal B did not want to describe it because he said, "she [teacher B] hasn't been observed this year basically I observed her last year." [Principal interview 3, 01/17/2002, p.2, line 30] However, principal B said,

"We pretty much allow them [teachers] to come to the principal when they have a concern about it [kindergarten curriculum related issues] and

support them financially in regard to things that we may need to purchase for them, and support them any way we can.” [Principal interview 2, 01/02/02, p.6, lines 134-136]

This type of supervisory associations implies the possibility that both parties did not know much about each other at a deeper level and that they did not value reciprocal communication. Support for the claim that principal B did not know teacher B very well came from principal B’s statement that he would not know teacher B’s opinion about the imperfect aspect of their kindergarten program and his prediction of teacher B’s perspective about how a good kindergarten should be.

I think she would have [teacher B would describe imperfect aspect of their kindergarten program different than he did]. She would know more about herself or her needs that I wouldn’t know. I think I wouldn’t know specially she would, because it deals with her. [Principal interview 1, 01/02/02, p.5, lines 115-116]

Principal B believed that teacher B would describe a good kindergarten the same way that he did because they have been to enough meetings together. It is possible that two educators may attend several meetings focusing on the same topic, and they may not end up with the same view- point. In some instances, attendance might be mandatory for some participants and thus jointly adapting the presented ideas might be less likely. Also, having the expectation that just attending several meeting will result in the same viewpoint on the education of young children may not be so promising in regard to the issue of teachers being reflective about what they are presented in meetings.

Analogously, teacher B thought that principal B would describe a good kindergarten the same way that she did. She focused exclusively on general statements

when describing her principal's view of curriculum and teaching. In short, sharing the same views on educational issues should mean and stem from more than attending the same meetings or more than being an educator. It should, for instance, involve discussions on educational issues in general, what is happening in teacher B's classroom in particular, and each other's current understandings about multiple aspects of educating young children.

Principal B's understanding of supervision appears predominantly to be based on technical notion of supervision with a focus on summative evaluation of teaching competency. A super-subordinate supervisory association exists between him and teacher B in which principal B is an evaluator (Cogan, 1973) with a bureaucratic authority (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998) as a source for their supervisory associations. In the following section, I examined how such an association influences the curriculum and teacher B's practices.

Perceptions about Curriculum and Teaching

The interview responses of principal B and teacher B indicated that they shared several common points about how a kindergarten curriculum and its teaching should be. From their perspective, curriculum and teaching should be aligned with DAP. They both pointed specifically to several concepts when describing such practices: active learning, children's pace of learning, different learning styles, and individual variations in terms of readiness skills. All of these concepts are different facets of only one of the tenets of DAP, which is the idea of making learning experiences individually appropriate. DAP

goes beyond individual appropriateness of teaching practices since it encompasses also developmental and cultural appropriateness (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997).

A good kindergarten is a class that uses developmentally appropriate practices for children in regard to their instruction because people at different ages learn different ways. If you teach above or beyond their capability to interpret or to understand, information won't work. So you have to keep in mind what is appropriate for five year olds in a fact that children develop at different ways, so you cannot use one role for all children. [Principal interview 1, p.1, lines 12-18] It is basically individualizing program to the children according to their needs and what they are able to do at their particular levels. [Principal interview 1, 01/02/02, p.3, lines 55-56]

The curriculum would allow the children to learn at their own paces and own modality of learning, and their own maturity for being able to learn. A five-year-old child can be very different from another five year old in regard to what they are ready to learn and what readiness skills that they require. There is no skill that you cannot just teach until the child is ready. You have to wait until the child is ready. You cannot teach beyond it. You can help them get ready. But children have their own way of being ready when they are ready. It is not something that you can force sometimes. You can do a lot for readiness, but until that child is ready for the next step that is just to report that child where he is. [Principal interview 1, 01/02/02, pp.6-7, lines 138-143]

A kindergarten child wants movements. He is very inquisitive, and he learns best by using many different senses as possible. He cannot depend on auditory hearing, visual sight, you want children really involve with their learning, what they use their hand a lot, what is kinesthetic approach, what a daily smells you can, touch, feelings, what is that make sense as

possible in using instruction. We want them [teachers] to address to be inquisitive because children at that age are very inquisitive. [Principal interview 1, 01/02/02, p.3, lines 61-66]

A good kindergarten program to me would be determined by a teacher who is looking at needs of all of the children and not having same expectations for every child. A teacher who is cognizant of all across spectrum of children that are not able to do a lot and a teacher who modifies teaching to address those needs as well as gearing special instruction and activity to meet the needs of children who are more advanced and having activity to accommodate that range and the curriculum. Encourage participation so children actively involve in the learning process and helping with decision-making. I think that is important. [Teacher interview 1, 12/13/2001, p.3, lines 53-60]

Most important characteristic [of her curriculum] is DAP. I think developmentally appropriate program is really important that children are able to do what they are able to do and instructional activities to encourage that. [Teacher interview 1, 12/13/2001, p.40, lines 892-894] You are enabling children to learn at their own pace, so children who are not able to do a lot are not frustrated and children who are at more advanced are not bored because they have to wait everyone else to catch up because then they are not really challenged. I think that influences their perception of school. So I think it is important as much as possible have a positive experience and get as much out of school as they can because they can see school and learning is a life long process. It is not just what they can do here but it is something ongoing. [Teacher interview 1, 12/13/2001, p.3, lines 64-70]

The curriculum is to gain a lot of reading skills, writing skills and feel good about themselves. One of my goals would be risk-taker. They will be

willing to take risks, not hesitate or be afraid to try something new. [Teacher interview 1, 12/13/2001, pp.10-11, lines 222-224] Because if they are not willing to take risks, that limits their opportunities to grow in all respects I think. We learn by trial and error by looking at ourselves, sometimes we fail, but I want them to see this is an environment where it is safe to fail. Safe to succeed and safe to fail. They don't have to worry about trying because someone laughs at them and they feel bad about themselves. We reinforce and encourage them in all their efforts. It is okay to get something wrong, making mistakes whatever; we validate all their efforts. That is the important thing. [Teacher interview 1, 12/13/2001, p.11, lines 229-235]

The interview data above demonstrate that while principal B and teacher B claim that they are DAP- oriented, an overall focus in both of their comments is what children need in terms of learning readiness skills for reading and writing. This suggests that they use DAP's principle of individually appropriateness for this single focus. In other words, strong emphasis on readiness skills constitutes the nature of their uni-dimensional focus. Moreover, the emphasis was only on the needs of children, but not much on their interests. This focus of readiness skills seemed to drive her thought process and principal B's as well. For instance, in the preceding page, teacher B related children's self-perception to being able to do well in reading and writing skills. Principal B asked for having a full day kindergarten in order to incorporate more literacy instruction into curriculum as shown in the following paragraph.

A long-term goal is to go to full day kindergarten and add more literacy to the program. Actually one is based on the other. In order to add more literacy, we need more time. [Principal interview 1, 01/02/02, p.2, lines 37-38] Short-term goals basically are to address individual needs of

children and attempt to intervene with strategies that help all children to learn before become a situation for special education. [Principal interview 1, 01/02/02, p.3, lines 49-51]

Readiness skills are important, but they are only one of the many aspects of kindergarten curriculum. This type of uni-dimensional focus has raised concerns among educators for so long accentuating the point that readiness skills are by no means adequate to define a kindergarten curriculum. For instance, Katz (1988) has been promoting “knowledge, feelings, an dispositions” along with skills as learning goals for ECE curriculum. A uni-dimensional emphasis takes place when teachers, administrators, or parents are concerned only about learning experiences that are preparatory for the next grade level. It reassures educators and helps parents feel good that their children learn skills that can be easily seen and measured.

Note that DAP as a philosophy shared by both principal B and teacher B. There were certain principles that teacher B deemed important for her, such as involving children in decision-making, encouraging risk-taking, and active learning. To what extent can these ideas coexist along with the heavy emphasis on readiness skills. This is where the observations of her actual practice will play an illuminating role, which is the primary focus of the next section.

Classroom Practices

“Know your letters and numbers” was a message that teacher B’s classroom organization was sending. Round tables with assigned seats for each child covered most part of the classroom. The walls were filled with written letters and words with their

accompanying pictures. Some of the materials, such as blocks were placed on the edges of the classroom. After speaking with her, I understood that these materials constituted learning centers. Every time I went to observe teacher B's classroom, there was one aspect that never changed which was the children's reciting letters, words, and numbers after she said them out loud. This was a very quiet group of children whose voices were heard only during these recitations.

Examining teacher B's actual practice reveals two overall issues to be discussed. The first issue stems from the distinct characteristics of teacher B's classroom. The second issue concentrates on the inconsistency between teacher B's responses in the ISA and interviews and observational data. Her classroom can be mainly characterized by a heavy emphasis on teaching and practicing readiness skills of literacy and mathematics during large group events, such as opening activities and by structured and teacher directed activities to reinforce what she taught in the large group. Support for these two claims about the characteristics of her teaching stemmed from the observational data presented below.

The following four events exemplify the strong emphasis on readiness skills in large group events taking place in teacher B's classroom. Teacher B read a sentence "Friday, November 9, 2001" and said, "Help me out" to the children. Then they all repeated the same sentence. Teacher B said, "That was wonderful" and by pointing out the letter "a" asked, "What is this?" She continued with the flash cards, which had either a letter or a word on them by asking, "Who wants to do this?" The children raised their hand and she chose one of them to put the card on the morning letter. She said, "You did a great job with that!" [Classroom observation data 2, 11/09/2001]

Another example of focusing on skills came from read aloud of a book about geometric shapes. After reading each page of this book, teacher B was asking the children to identify the shapes, such as what is this shape? What shapes do you see on this page? Teacher B not only asked all the questions but also she posed them in a closed-ended manner. The children raised their hands and listened to her quietly. The interesting part of this read aloud was the presence of possibilities to make this experience more meaningful for the children. For instance, if she had to use this book, she could have used it in a more enriching way. This book had representations of two aspects of diversity: race and disabilities, an enriching way would be to stimulate children's thinking about these aspects of diversity, but she did not focus on them. On the cover page of this book, there was a picture of an African-American child and the last page had a child in a wheel chair. When she came to the page with a picture of a child in a wheel chair, she asked the children to find the circles in that page. One child raised his hand, but he could not find any circles. Teacher B said "look around here" showing and wandering her fingers around the wheels. Then, that child could not see the circles, but another one said loudly "the wheels." [Classroom observation data 1, 11/05/2001]

As a follow up activity to this read aloud, teacher B said, "you are going to draw anything you want and then write the color and its name. Lets do one together: red apple." She drew two short lines to write the color and the object's name. Children worked with pencils and crayons. They were working very quietly. Teacher B walked around and helped some children spell and sound words. [Classroom observation data 1, 11/05/2001]

Teacher B read a book titled One, one is the sun to the children. She started, “Today we are going to read, One, one is the sun. What do you think this book is about?” She asked, “What do you see in this page?” Children said, “Two shoes and three trees.” Then teacher said, “We are going to focus on the words that rhyme” and asked a series of questions:

“Now, what two word have the same sounds in this page”

“What word starts with s? What word starts with c?”

“What two words sound the same on this page? Asked a child who didn’t raise her hand

“Bess, do you want to try?” The child tried and gave the correct answer. Teacher B said,

“Excellent Bess!”

“If I say bun, fun, do they rhyme?” Children said “yes”

“How about pat, pin? ” Children said “No”

“You did a great job class, take your right hand and put it on your shoulder.”

[Classroom observation data 3, 11/12/2001]

As is seen in the sample events mentioned above, teaching and learning are a clearly defined and certain phenomenon. Teaching is the direct instruction of skills within a large group while learning is to practice and enact these skills. Teaching is a structured and controlled event in which the children did not have any choice, did not need to make any decisions, and did not have an opportunity to communicate with each other. The emphasis is on observable learning behavior of children, rather than understanding.

With respect to the issue of providing children with predetermined structured activities, I chose to include an art activity. For this art activity, each child had a

prepared frame made out of construction paper with a white sheet glued in the middle of it and two tree leaves. They needed to glue the leaves and write what type of leaf it was under each, such as elm and maple. While the children were working on this activity, teacher B walked around and glued the leaves for several children. [Classroom observation data 2, 11/09/2001]

As it was with the large group activities that teacher B provided, this art activity was also very structured and controlled by her. Not much thinking was required on the part of children in order to complete this activity. Rather the teacher did all the work for them, which eliminated any opportunity for creativity and exploration.

Examining the observational data that focused on different events taking place in teacher B's classroom revealed that the observational data contradicted her responses in interviews and IAS. In other words, her practices reflected a philosophy that is different from what she reported and articulated. The emerging philosophy from her practices or her pedagogical philosophy is more aligned with transmission-orientation to curriculum (Miller & Seller, 1985) and teaching that mainly centers on teaching academic skills such as literacy and numeracy in an isolated way. Starting from the opening activities, large group time, to art activity, every experience that the children had solely focuses on learning and practicing these skills.

On the other hand, her interview responses indicated that developmentally appropriate experiences are a determining factor because she made learning challenging and valued active learning, children's pace of learning, different learning styles, individual variations in terms of readiness, risk-taking, and decision-making. Similarly, in the IAS, she reported that she incorporated subcategories of unidimensional literacy,

such as flashcards, handwriting on lines, worksheet, rote counting and reciting alphabet monthly (2 point on a Likert Scale). However, the classroom observations indicate that these practices took place during all observations. Additionally, she reported that multidimensional activities, such as playing games, blocks, and child-selected centers, takes place in her classroom daily (5 point on a Likert Scale). Exploratory learning and integration of curriculum areas occur two or four times in a week. Throughout the classroom observations, the researcher did not observe any learning experience in which the children engaged in questioning or investigating. Hence, this suggests that her teaching is uni-dimensional focus, readiness skills, as opposed to her self-reported knowledge preferences and expressed views on curriculum and teaching, which were primarily aligned with DAP.

In summary, the uni-dimensionality and the inconsistency between teacher B's self-reported beliefs about teaching and classroom activities and observation of her actual practices relate to supervisory association from two angles. The first angle appears to establish a pattern between teacher B's teaching and principal B's focus in supervisory practices. When educators envision kindergarten curriculum and direct teaching in terms of readiness skills to be acquired before first grade, then two and half hours of a day of kindergarten serves to teach, re-teach, and practice these skills. Actually if one thinks about the amount of teaching teacher B does within this type of kindergarten, she has a lot to accomplish for which two and half hours may not even be enough. Hence, teacher-directed and activities with only one way of doing it are well suited to this purpose. This makes teaching very predictable too; instruct the skills as a large group and then plan some individual activities to practice them. There is not much variation to happen in

teacher B's plans and teaching, which ties the issue to principal B's sole focus of supervision. As mentioned previously, principal B's understanding of supervision consisted of evaluating how teacher B planned, taught, and evaluated a lesson. This sounds pretty structured when considering that the learning and teaching under consideration took place in a kindergarten classroom with five or six year old children. This suggests what was being evaluated was valued as the determining principle of learning experiences for the children. To put it another way, principal B concentrated on teacher B's observable teaching behaviors as an authority and teacher B centered her practice on children's observable learning behaviors as well.

The second angle stems from the scarcity of supervisory association between principal B and teacher B and how it impacts teacher B's teaching. Also, this angle encompasses such supervisory association's influence on mutual growth of principal B and teacher B. As mentioned previously, principal B perceives "teacher evaluation" as his supervision while teacher B sees supervision as an avenue to get help when needed. Hence, supervision exists only in an autocratic sense in the context of hierarchical control, in which an authority helps and makes explicit suggestions to a subordinate person who is comfortable with being in a non-expert position.

While this limited interaction between them meets district requirements for evaluating teacher competency, it seems to contribute little or nothing to the professional growth of both teacher B and principal B. For instance, the inconsistency between teacher B's reported beliefs and activities and actual practice might have been the focus of professional interaction. However, since principal B's center of attention was evaluation of her competency, it is less likely that teacher B would take the initiative for

discussing any of her concerns related to her own performance. Nolan and Francis (1992) point out this issue by saying that supervisors who function as an evaluator become a roadblock for teachers to engage in discussions with them about predicaments and matters related to their teaching. Moreover, a communication based on collegiality might present ample opportunities to principal B for learning about how and why teacher B teaches the way that she does, rather than playing an expert role in their association.

Synopsis of Case B

In reasoning why supervisory association between principal B and teacher B takes this form, several factors can be considered. Figure 3 summarizes main factors that influence teacher B's and principal B's supervisory associations and curriculum beliefs. Also, it demonstrates the nature of teacher B's teaching practices.

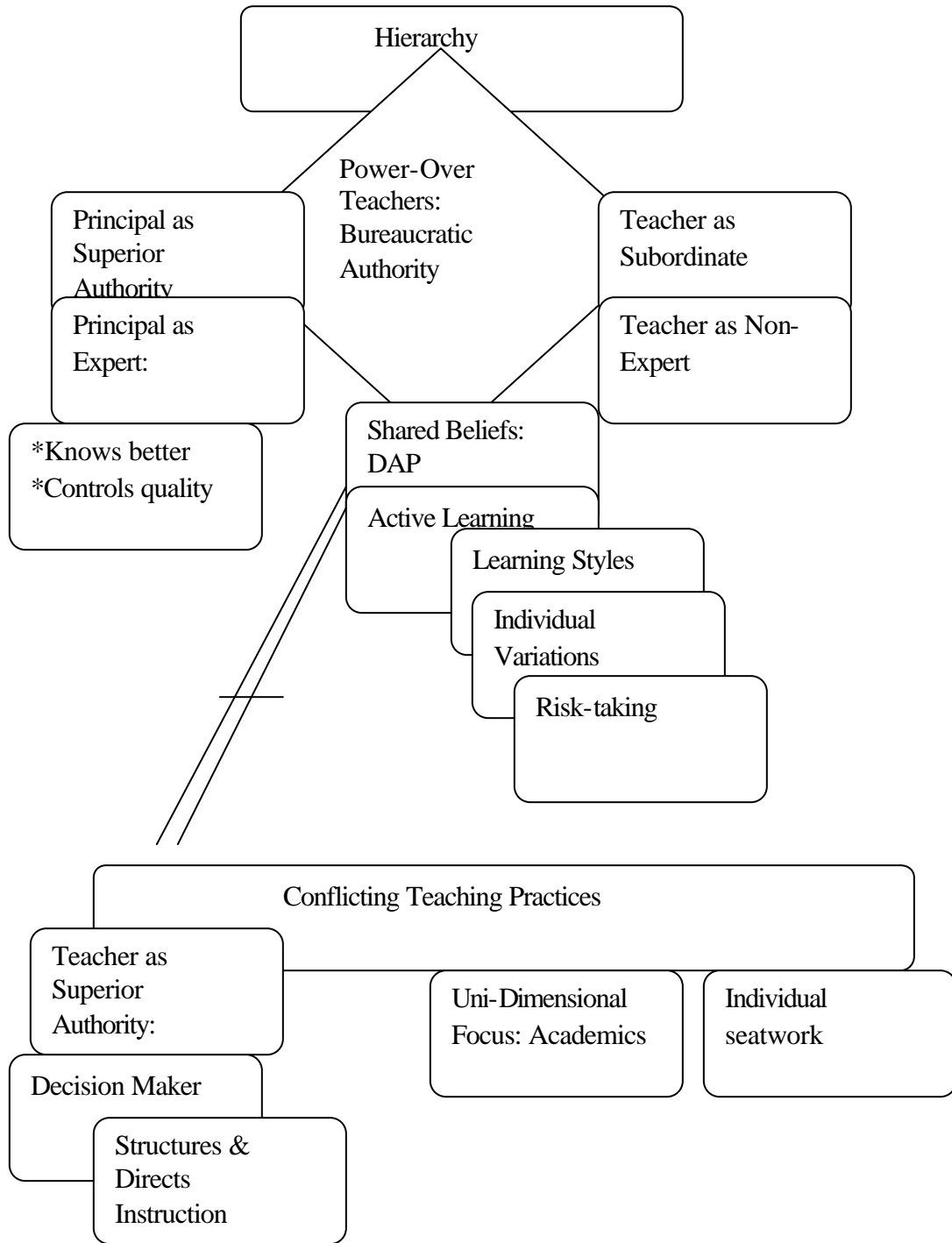


Figure 3: Hierarchy-driven supervisory association

As is seen in figure 3, the supervisory association between principal B and teacher B is based on superordinate-subordinate notion. Principal B's superiority over teacher B primarily came from his status as a principal, which also granted him to be an expert and placed teacher B in a non-expert position in their association. Roles distinctions were very clear in principal B's mind, which weakened a sense of we. It gave a technical nature to the supervisory associations. This clear role distinction may be a reason behind the lack of communication between him and teacher B since he may simply assume the notion that teacher B has been practicing according to what is expected of her by now. Also, contributing to this is the fact that principal B has been principal in this school for three years while teacher B has been there for ten years. Unfortunately, this is not necessarily an ideal state of mind for teachers, especially if it is to the extent to undermine teachers' self-governed expectations.

Lack of communication between them may also stem from the factor of time constrain. Principal B seemed to have limited time since he held two jobs. The technical aspect of supervision, which is evaluation of teacher B, may serve his time constraint better than focusing on the process of supervision.

Teacher B's way of articulating characteristics of her supervisor and the supervisory process reflects a very positive nature on the surface. However, within that attitude some statements that she made do not fit in those overly stated positive comments. For instance, teacher B thought that principal B is approachable, objective and sensitive. He gives suggestions about her teaching and he expresses his suggestions in a caring and collaborating manner and respects teacher B's professional judgment. Along with these statements, she said, "He doesn't always question my judgment. I don't

feel he is always asking why did you do this or I want to know what your thinking was behind this or that.” It is interesting to note that teacher B was quick to veil any statement that may sound critical of the supervisory practices. Also, she did not make reference to any ongoing exchange of ideas about kindergarten teaching and learning with her principal.

She was satisfied with the current supervisory practices because she was strongly convinced that her teaching has to be shaped by the district’s requirements, and she follows these requirements very well. The district’s requirements are the driving force of her espoused platform and teaching. This explains the reason behind teacher B’s and principal B’s shared beliefs on educating young children. Also, teacher B had the experience of sharing a principal with another school building before this principal had taken this position. So she may simply be happy with seeing her principal in the building especially when she needs help.

I think that principal B and teacher B experienced a hierarchical association. But the effect of supervision on teaching appeared to be almost indifference. Supervision was almost nominal, and its limited existence only focused on technical aspect of teaching. Also teacher B’s teaching was aligned with a uni-dimensional focus of academics while it conflicted with what she articulated about her beliefs on ECE. It is interesting to note that both teacher B and principal B thought that DAP defines what a good kindergarten should be. So in a sense they had that shared belief even if they understood it only in terms of considering individual skill levels of children. This shared belief was not necessarily helpful in fostering multi-dimensional learning experiences, rather it might have helped it to become a dominating dimension in teacher B’s teaching.

In summary, I believe that this case actually reflects a clear need for an active collegial supervisory association that will help grow both teacher B and principal B. For instance, a dialogue that is initiated by a videotaped day of teaching may serve well to stimulate self-reflection how she teaches and why she teaches the way she does. In the mean time, principal B in a collegial manner may participate in this process as a learner who is trying to understand teacher B's practice. But such initiative may not take place with the amount of attention and time devoted for supervision.

CHAPTER SIX: CASE C

Principal C and teacher C were the participants in this case. To reiterate, principal C is a female and had been in her current administrative position for six years. She holds N-3, K-6, K-8, (and principal certifications and has a Master's degree). She has previously taught preschool. Teacher C is a male, has a Masters of Education and holds Elementary Education Certification (K-6). He has taught six years in kindergarten and 20 years in second grade.

Portraiture of Principal C and Teacher C

After every contact with principal C and teacher C, I was left thinking about the similarities in their espoused platforms of kindergarten education. They both strongly believed in the importance of DAP. Individual and developmental appropriateness of learning experiences were key for them. However, there was little attention paid to the socio-cultural and familial background of children which was the third component of DAP.

Both principal C and teacher C became defensive of DAP as they started to express concerns over external demands for a different type of kindergarten curriculum. One that was not compatible with what they believed curriculum should be about for kindergartners. In their opinion, this increasing demand from parents, and teacher C added upper administration also, was to incorporate more academics into the curriculum. However, they thought that a sole focus on academics was inadequate in kindergarten.

Both principal C's and teacher C's views of teaching revolved around the notion of focusing on the "whole child." Within that, the obvious emphasis was on socialization.

They believed that socialization of children into formal schooling is a key issue through which children learn to function well in school. Play was an effective method of teaching for them since it incorporates pleasure and reduces stress.

Although principal C seemed to strive for enhancing the kindergarten experience in a way that allowed her and teacher C to maintain the essence of their own beliefs, interestingly enough, she had authoritarian remarks from time to time about supervision. She paid great attention to annual observation because this observation was a way to ensure that teachers perform according to the district's professional standards. For instance, principal C was especially proud of kindergarten teachers' teamwork on curriculum and other issues. Here, her authority function surfaced when she said that she sometimes attends these meetings for monitoring purposes. She led me to believe that she was the authority figure there. Yet soon after, she started talking about how each of the kindergarten teachers teaches in unique ways, such as art or music based. Teacher C was the one who incorporated a lot of music in his teaching. As a matter of fact, I observed that the use of media such as video, tape recorder, and computer, was very apparent in his classroom.

Teacher C was a very strongly opinioned person for whom being able to teach the way he wanted was essential. Otherwise he did not find meaning to be in the classroom. According to him, on a frequent basis his right to be able to make decisions had been lessened due to pressure from upper administration. This pressure was not directly from his principal but rather a level above. Listening to him made me think about the struggles teachers have to face whether they are monetary or philosophically based issues.

Teacher C's primary concern was to make learning "meaningful and purposeful" for children. Otherwise, real learning did not take place since the children were memorizing the information rather than developing an understanding. The pressure from upper administration was getting in his way to do what to him was meaningful and purposeful. For instance, recently he was required to use an assessment form for measuring children's knowledge of letter recognition. He found this form to be inappropriate and time consuming.

Nature of Supervisory Association

Understanding the nature of the supervisory associations between principal C and teacher C entails the examination of two characteristics that exist in the context of school C. The first issue is how teachers' professional development was approached in this school context. The second issue is regarding kindergarten teachers' teamwork.

The professional development plan of teacher C was based on a three-year cycle. The first two years of it were planned, implemented, and evaluated by him. This professional development plan had to be approved by principal C. As is seen in teacher C's interview responses below, the first two years of this cycle was governed by him, such as determining how to go about his staff development, what to focus on etc. In other words, this phase of the cycle is essentially self-supervising. The third year of the professional development plan to evaluate his teaching competency is illuminated in detail later in this section. The emerging issue here is the partition of evaluation from supervision, as referred to by Nolan (1997) "by time and procedures" (p.106).

We basically plan our own professional development. We are on a three-year cycle. For example, on the first two years of the cycle, a person can

develop his own. I could say I want to work on improving my authentic assessment in the classroom. Then I have to tell them ways I am going to do it. I would put in I am going to conferences, reading professional journals, attending a seminar at S. central intermediate unit. [Teacher interview 2, 01/17/2002, pp.3-4, lines 71-77] And then the third year, you don't develop a plan. Every third year the principal comes in and observes you twice a year and they write it up based on criteria, like technique, classroom management, content, things like that. [Teacher interview 3, 03/07/2002, pp.4-5, lines 83-101]

We have to have the professional plan approved. They give us until October first to have it approved by the principal. Then we sit down and talk to her about it. If she approves it, included in that write up is the evaluation and assessment on how we are going to be judged whether it is good or not. It might be whether or not I incorporated the idea of Gardner's seven multiple intelligences into my learning centers. I need to show pictures, maybe I'll say, I'll show pictures that I did it or I might say that I am working on creating a room for us to evaluate the students' assessment through evaluating students in language arts. I would have to show the rubric that I created and how I used it. So whatever I say up front, I have to do for the evaluation. It is already prescribed not it is not an after side. It has to be up front how it is going to be assessed when you have your plan approved. If I did that for the first year, and then the next year, I can either continue it or I can change to something different. I did authentic assessment for the first year, second year I can say I want to work on building my skills in interactive writing, and then again develop a plan and assessment for that. [Teacher interview 3, 03/07/2002, pp.4-5, lines 81-95]

It gives us a chance in terms of being evaluated by the administration and also being an active part of developing ourselves professionally, which is

what they should be addressing. Are we growing educationally, are we providing the children what they need? They can do that by first, approving our plans, and then keep monitoring them. Then every third year they can look at exactly whatever they want to look at and assess it. Especially those two years I make up my own plan. They are allowed to monitor it any way they want. If they decide to walk in and they see me doing something they think something is really out of line with what the plan is or if they see me doing something they think we have got to address this now. We better do this instead of this plan. They are allowed to call off the all plan and put their own plan in motion or reverse back to them coming in and doing observations and write-ups. [Teacher interview 3, 03/07/2002, pp.5-6, lines109-120]

Teacher evaluation was conducted in the third year through filling out an observational instrument during a classroom visit. The observational instrument was based on the district's professional standards for teacher performance. This observation was followed by a post observation meeting with the observed teacher. In this meeting, teachers shared their feelings about the lesson that was observed by the principal. Principal C expected the teachers to be responsive to her suggestions that she gave during the post-observation meeting.

I observe informally and formally to see that the curriculum has been met through appropriate techniques and practices. Formally, in the district, I am only required to observe, make a formal written observation one or two times a year. [Principal interview 3, 01/18/2001, p.2, lines 42-46]
There are certain things I look for. The district has professional standards that we look for in teachers. It is quite a list. Of course there are other things that I wanted to see, how much interaction is going on with the students. [Principal interview 3, 01/18/2001, pp.8-9, lines 159-162, 164]

Look at how they are consistent in equitable treatment of students as far as not discrimination, excepting diversity. Using a range of methodologies and tools necessary for teaching. Especially in kindergarten look for hands-on and how much students interaction is going on, teacher interaction is going on, looking for direct instruction and also some group learning, teaming even kindergarten children can do that. I am also looking for good communication skills. Respecting the rights of the students and also how they are handling discipline issues in there, if there are discipline issues in there. I am looking for what practices are going on. So I am looking for wide range of things: the interaction of the students, what type of teaching is going on, what type of activities are going on, and also the students are treated fairly with respect and what types of procedures they are using as consequences. Getting kids on task, time on task is important. [Principal interview 3, 01/18/2001, p.9, lines 164-178]

We have a post-observation meeting. They [teachers] also have time to share with me how they felt about the lesson and then I do a formal writing after that. If I give suggestions, then I expect to see that occurring when I go in there next time. [Principal interview 3, 01/18/2001, p.4, lines 72-74]

As was mentioned previously, the teamwork of kindergarten teachers was the second characteristic that was influential in portraying the supervisory associations between principal C and teacher C. The purpose of this teamwork was to discuss issues under consideration and was conducted once every six days. Principal C referred to the teamwork as routine discussions or reunion. She attended these meetings only when she was asked by the teachers to join them for a specific reason or if she had something to discuss with them. From her perspective, there were two reasons why she allowed the

teachers to work by themselves. The first reason stemmed from her belief that kindergarten teachers were able to operate well by themselves. The second reason was the fact that they were trained in various teaching strategies and thus she felt less need to get involved in these meetings:

Everyone in the district has had APL training. Meaning, they are teaching training that is kind of generic that you can use K-12. And checking of understanding is one of them. That is why I pointed that out [mentioned when she is elaborating on her responses in the supervisory questionnaire]. I have asked to have reunions, what we call them, so that they can go back and discuss a topic that they had at the training. How they are using it in the classroom. Some things that they did good with that they know that was very helpful of kindergartners, so I am encouraging it that way. So we continue doing good practices by talking together. [Principal interview 3, 01/18/2001, pp.6-7, lines 140-147]

They [kindergarten teachers] have special meeting once a cycle, which is once every six days that they hold themselves. I always tell them if they want me to be part of this meeting I will. They just have to let me know so I can schedule that in. I am always available for those opportunities, and if it is a time I am not available we'll set up another cycle day. [Principal interview 2, 01/04/2002, p.12, lines 253-257]

They [kindergarten teachers] set their own agenda, of course sometimes I set the agenda meaning I have to say, I need your input on this or this is what is happening etc. or sometimes I even say, I need to attend one of your meetings to discuss something with you, would you set some time for me. So it seems to be working. [Principal interview 2, 01/04/2002, p.12, lines 260-263] I pretty well let those meetings up to them [teachers] unless they want me there for something; they ask if I could attend one because while that meeting is going on there is many other meetings going

on, so I have to circulate around to get to quite a few meetings. Now if I have an issue that I really want to discuss, if there is something I want to check up on, or just want to monitor a meeting, then I just inform them that I am going to be coming, and ask them what day would be good for me to meet with them. [Principal interview 3, 01/18/2001, p.10, lines 221-226] Most of the time they are able to handle their own topics. [Principal interview 3, 01/18/2001, p.10, lines 229-228]

Close examination of principal C's interview responses point out the existence of professional merits that are necessary in order for supervisory associations to generate and maintain a collegiality-oriented work context. Respect, trust, and understanding are some of the professional merits. But more importantly, both of the participants seemed to articulate such merits towards each other, and thus I considered them to be reciprocal. These two educators were well aware that they have shared understanding about how to work with kindergartners, but they also acknowledged that they have some differences of opinion. For instance, although principal C recognized teacher C's emphasize on music, she stated that he could do a little more about including more academics into his teaching. Teacher C expressed his understanding of why principal C acted in the manner she did with respect to kindergarten related issues such as pressure for a more academic curriculum. He knew that principal C had pressure from upper administration.

The job that a principal has ends up being a balancing act and this is unfortunate. I think what is good for kids and what the school board or the district needs them to be financially. For example, in kindergarten, I would say that one of things would be really good is to take a lot of field trips in kindergarten. We are allowed to take two. I would say that we should be allowed to go more so the children have the experiences to go out to some of these places, fire houses, police stations, to the park, and to the different

things like that. If you ask to get more, it is money thing. They don't say no you cannot, it is not a good educational thing to go, but they say we don't have the money for you to go. But that should be where I should be allowed to put my money for kindergarten. I should say I want to transfer some of my money for this one, but here it doesn't work that way. But I think that the building principals often so much to look at that in terms of what that is for kindergarten balancing act. I think our principal does understand what is best, but really then comes to conflict with two things what the district has required for her either by guidelines for all teachers or for the building. Second, how she has to juggle what kindergarten does based on with the other first, second, third grade. [Teacher interview 1, 01/03/2002, pp.10-11, lines 213-229]

She [principal C] would probably say almost the same thing I did about having children a chance to play and socialize and in their first school experience. But she would also add that it is a place where they have to become more academic. There will probably be a little bit more stress on academic on her part. I don't know if she believes but I do know she is getting pressure from superintendent and assistant superintendent to show more academics. So I would think that it would be similar what she says similar to what I said expect there will be a little bit stronger emphasis on the academic. Where as my way is more on the socialization and the play, which we all know how young children learn anyway so. [Teacher interview 1, 01/03/2002, p.11, lines 235-244]

I think she [principal] thinks very similar to what I do expect. There are more pressures on her to produce academically by giving a test at third grade to see how good they do. Whereas my philosophy would be more authentic assessment and make it meaningful and purposeful to the child. Some of her directions, even though I think she believes that there have to be a little bit more pressure, teach the kids what I wanted them to learn,

what the principal wanted them to learn, what the school wants them to learn. And almost force them, force to speed them so to speak because there is a lot of pressure not only in L., but also around the state and around country to do well on tests and improve your test score. Our test scores in our district are wonderful. But this was back to what I said to you before, I don't care if I am number one if I am doing good if I am doing the best I can do. But when administrators, including principals look at it, they get pressure, feel pressure from parents, and from some other administrators, and from the state to try, to do even better. And of course that could be a good goal to try to improve, to do better, but I think way too often we worry about that doing better more than we worry about these are kids, these are five, six, seven eight, nine year old and for us to push them so much into the test it is doing harm. [Teacher interview 1, 01/03/2002, pp.22-23, lines 516-535]

We have a very good working relationship I think. I think she appreciates me and understands that I am trying all in the best for children. I understand that she wants what is best for children, but she has limitations by being a principal. My father was a principal and I understand completely that once they take that job, the hat that they used to wear, teacher hat, kind of get pushed off the side and they have to wear a second hat it is called the administrator hat and it does not always fall in line with what is best for kids, but is best for the budget. That is frustrating but my relationship with present principal is I think a good one, a good working relationship. I think she respects me. I respect her. We do not always see eye to eye. Some things we differ greatly on, there are things that she is very cooperative with me on, and works very harshly with me to try to improve the education of the children. There are places that we don't agree although this year we haven't really had any problems so far. [Teacher interview 3, 03/07/2002, p.7, lines 148-161]

Teacher C's interview responses clearly indicate that the issue of trust for him meant being able to make decisions about curriculum and teaching. He was certain that he was doing his best in his own eyes and in the eyes of his principal.

I guess the most supporting factor would be that she trusts in me doing what is right for the children. If it is important to me in the curriculum, it will be in the curriculum. Kind of to me with regard to developmentally appropriate besides some content whether it is developmentally appropriate or not or talking strategies how to teach and the way to teach and my principal has been willing to. I think my principal knows that I am a developmentally appropriate teacher and that I strive to educate the children in a developmentally appropriate manner. [Teacher interview 3, 03/07/2002, pp.8-9, lines 172-180]

The fact that principal C's and teacher C's context provided opportunities for teacher decision making, through self-directed supervision and teamwork, is influential in defining their roles. For example, the existence of multiple kindergarten teachers gave a stronger voice to teachers in making decisions, while it lessened the voice of the principal to only fulfill what was required for evaluating teachers' performance. Hence, the teachers both empowered themselves and were empowered by their principals through having autonomy to make decisions, to carry out these decisions, and to evaluate the outcomes resulting from them. The role of principal was twofold. Within the parameters of teamwork, her role was to operate as a resource to be used when needed. Her second role was to be an evaluator of teachers' competency to ensure that teachers met the district's professional standards. She appeared to be more authoritarian when speaking of this role.

In summary, guided by these professional merits, professional enhancement of teachers becomes a collective goal of all involved. This type of collectivity and individuality in formation of supervision is referred to, in Nolan and Francis's (1992) terms, as "group supervision." Group supervision is valuable since it allows teachers to examine the predicaments and dilemmas of their practices. In the meantime this group process allows for individual goals to be attained. For instance, teacher C focused on learning about and incorporating the idea of multiple intelligences into his classroom through self-selected staff development opportunities. Through this he increased the likelihood of attaining both personal and collective aspirations of the group members.

Perceptions about Curriculum and Teaching

The increasing amount of pressure for more academics became apparent when principal C and teacher C started to talk about curriculum and teaching. Some parents and upper administrators think that kindergarten teachers should do more towards teaching basic reading and writing skills as this pressure has surfaced in the literature on kindergarten curriculum (Nelson, 2000; Stipek & Byler, 1997). The way principal C and teacher C articulated their views on this pressure was noteworthy since it related to their supervisory associations. Principal C was to some extent reserved about this pressure while teacher C was quite open and vocal. Principal C expressed that meeting state standards is an issue right now in the eyes of upper administration, but she chose not to elaborate on that. Moreover, she was not very enthusiastic about doing more toward gearing the curriculum to meeting the standards. Although she pointed out teacher C's making less emphasis on academics, she was quick to articulate the source of pressure for

more academics as being parents. Rather, she expressed confidence in what and how her teachers were doing in the classroom.

I think sometimes, he [teacher C] could do a little more with academics. He is a little bit more play oriented, song oriented, and I am not upset about that really. But I know we have sometimes destructive parents. Like I said, we got the college professors etc. now, and definitely, they think their child is reading, they should read more. It is like we can never do that enough. [Principal interview 1, 12/20/2001, p.8, lines 177-181]

Teacher C took a stance against and clearly criticized the demand for incorporating more academics into the curriculum. From his perspective, there should not be a rigid emphasis on academics since children need a variety of experiences at this age. There was an obvious inconsistency between what he envisioned and what other stakeholders conceived of in a good kindergarten. Teacher C's following responses support these claims:

... some of our preschools are going very academic. Returning to very academic and so they are telling the parents that we are here not doing enough academically. Already taught them alphabet, they should be doing more than that. So it is because they are not doing what is developmentally appropriate that is what I was talking about. If you do that increased pressure academically preschool, can you get them to learn the alphabet, yes, I can get my kids to learn multiplication if I wanted to, but they won't retain it and it won't do them any good. They'll forget it, and they don't understand what it means, it is not meaningful and purposeful. Now N. [a child in his classroom] likes to do stuff with numbers. He might someday to me say, I can multiple; he'll learn to do the multiplication because he wants to at that case for him it is meaningful and purposeful. As a reason maybe it is just if he wants to learn it. That is

okay. He wants to have joy with numbers that is a good thing, that is a positive thing for him. [Teacher interview 1, 01/03/2002, pp.30-31, lines 674-689]

We have a list of expectations for kindergarten, expectations for leaving kindergarten, and first grade has expectations for entering first grade. I guess my goals are to have them meet those requirements. I kind of said earlier what I think my own personal goal was that they leave kindergarten happy, wanting to come to school, excited about learning, excited about books, exciting about coming to school, being with friends and listening to the teacher and following the directions and just being here. Academically in kindergarten, I think it is reasonable to expect them to learn the alphabet, all the capitals, all the lower case and all the sound. Maybe not the vowels, but all the capitals and lower case letters, be able to write them, be able to write a few words, be able to read a few words, not a lot. Some of them can and if they can, then you build on that. So your goal would be to help these children at their own rate. If they are reader already, let us help them read better. But kindergarten in my opinion isn't the place where children necessarily learn to read. Beginning reading is the foundation, but they get the heavy-duty stuff in first grade. [Teacher interview 1, 01/03/2002, p.18, lines 396-409]

This suggests that principal C and teacher C had a shared understanding that there was a demand for a more academically oriented kindergarten curriculum, which contradicted what they believed their curriculum should be. At this point, they seemed to not let this demand take over completely, rather they chose to mainly base their work with young children on their own educational beliefs and values. The common understanding between them appeared to be strengthened by the fact that they were philosophically close to each other, which will be elaborated in the following paragraphs.

The developmentally appropriateness of the curriculum was essential in the eyes of both principal C and teacher C. For them DAP consisted of the following: whole child, individual levels and needs of children, and avoiding stress through use of play in the classroom. The notion of “whole child” meant focusing on physical, emotional, social, and cognitive development of children. They acknowledged that their district set expectations for each grade level, but they also recognized individual variations among children and thus emphasized the importance of modifying learning experiences. An Overarching theme for them was the socio-emotional status of the children because they wanted to ensure that the children have positive experiences and develop positive dispositions towards learning and being at school. This is where principal C’s point on avoiding stress and teacher C’s emphasis on meaningful and purposeful learning come into play. These claims are drawn from the following interview responses of both:

I believe they [teachers] want to take the child at the level they are at and work with techniques to make them successful. That is to make them successful, not necessarily does that mean you are going to be what is considered on grade level, but moving them along with process at their ability level. Things that age appropriate, emotionally appropriate for the child, etc. because we have children at all ranges at the maturity level.

[Principal interview 1, 12/20/2001, p.9, lines 188-195]

For one thing, you don’t set stress level too high. If you have a standard rigid curriculum, and you have children coming in maybe they are not exposed to many things, even just community awareness something like, or maybe they have never been exposed to the alphabet or to numbers etc. If you have them go on so high, that you already have those expectations, it causes a lot of stress. One thing we want to look at it the whole child not

just for the going academically or concerned about them socially, emotionally, and physically as well. So we don't want to keep the stress level high, learning to be fun, and keeping motivation up. [Principal interview 2, 01/04/2002, p.1, lines 8-15]

... nowadays more and more academics are being pushed at the kindergarten level but it shouldn't be that. Kindergarten should be where they come and they have experiences to get to know these children, socialize with other children, learn about school, learn how to act and interact with the children and the teacher, understand the authority is there, understand their responsibility as a student. I think if I can have them be happy and liking to come to school when I am done with my year I did my job. Now first grade teacher won't think that they want me to also teach the alphabet and the sound. I do that but I would say to them and I have said to them if I just send them to you happy and wanting to come to the school and exciting about school, I probably did my job better than you can hope for. I will certainly teach the alphabet and try to teach them all the sounds but the most important is to get in the air, get them excited about school and excited about work, excited about learning. We do that in terms of curriculum by things that we put in and how I teach it, but I think it is a place where the children should have choices, but also have some structure. My job is to guide them so that a choice isn't throwing chairs out the window, but a choice is playing tag, but we only play tag outside so we understand the limit of the different areas that we are allowed to play in. They understand what it is that goes on in school. I guess the kindergarten would be the good experience of school that it should be a place where they are happy and excited about school, excited about learning and to give them a foundation for the next twelve years. [Teacher interview 1, 01/03/2002, pp.6-7, lines 132-154]

The more they are happy and excited about, the more they learn. As adults we don't go work on something we don't really happy with. My car gets broken; I take it to the shop. But my guitar's tune breaks, I have fun to tuning it and putting on, and I'll work with the guitar. I'll try to write a song, it might even be hard, but I'll focus on it as an adult. That is what I want kids to be able to do. Even if they come of project that is hard for them that they are excited about and they feel good about themselves as learners, and willing to go and try it, even if they don't succeed the way they thought they should. The effort is also important. [Teacher interview 1, 01/03/2002, pp.7-8, lines 160-169]

So we have some toys, like toy animals, a little garage with some cars. A lot of times some of these things are there. Again because the children are trying to learn them so not so much that I want them to play with cars, or playing with animals, but they learn cooperation and how to work with each other and share the toys and in a classroom setting and socialize. Part of kindergarten curriculum is to help them socialize and learn how to be in school. I think one of the main things I can give them is the understanding of what school is about and how they get to work in this setting to me that is even more important than teaching them the alphabet. [Teacher interview 1, 01/03/2002, pp.57-58, lines 1302-1309]

It [kindergarten] needs to be developmentally appropriate that is for any level, but the words that I use, meaningful and purposeful in my mind is developmentally appropriate. [Teacher interview 2, 01/17/2002, p.1, lines 15-16] For example in the reading, the language arts, the way that I think the children learn best is natural when authentic, not contrived and not in a formula. A lot of the companies that make programs for school, all level, cut it off formulas that they put into that you have to do the first, and then, and then. I think if we read really good stories, good literature, we'll learn about the literature, and then after we learn about the literature enjoy the

story, then we can go back, take it apart and look at how they made the story. What the author was thinking, in terms of what the comprehension part is and also how the words are made, find the words that they know? In some of the books, they should be able to learn all the words, some of the harder books they'll only find little words that they know. But eventually, they will know more and more words and understand more and more words and start figuring out how to spell things, because it is meaningful, purposeful to them. Those are the two words that I use a lot when I talk about how I teach. If it is meaningful and purposeful to the child, they'll want to be able to do it and they will do it and I will come at you to teach me more. If it is not meaningful and purposeful, they'll probably do it for you, but they won't do it with the same excitement, and they'll not try to follow up on it if they don't see a reason for it. [Teacher interview 1, 01/03/2002, p.22, lines 486-501]

Other part of developmentally appropriate is that in the school setting too often, parents and teachers, a lot of time parents and administrators think we come just with our heads. But we don't, we come with our brains or academic, we come with our emotions, we come with our feelings, we come with our health, and we come with our spirituality and we come with all those things. And all of those things are what makes up the child. [Teacher interview 1, 01/03/2002, p.27, lines 598-603]

In teacher C's interview responses above there is a heavy emphasis on what is meaningful and purposeful for the children in his classroom because that is how he ensures that his instruction is developmentally appropriate. He gave the use of literature to teach literacy skills as an example of what he meant by meaningful and purposeful. However, what seemed to be de-emphasized here in both teacher C's and principal C's interview responses is the third dimension of DAP which is the socio-cultural

characteristics of children. This dimension entails that teachers be sensitive to children's families and cultural aspects (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997). When asked about his thoughts about diversity related experiences in kindergarten, teacher C mainly focused on surface characteristics of culture, such as food and holidays. He mentioned class discussions and inviting people from outside of school to talk about their culture as ways of addressing diversity. Through such experiences, children understand each other better and learn about differences and similarities among them:

We'll talk about Hanukah, Christmas, Kwanzaa, and we might talk about Ramadan. We might talk about different kinds of things, what is been celebrated, and how they celebrated. With kindergarten kids, you cannot get too deep into whys. [Teacher interview 2, 01/17/2002, p.7, lines 153-158] Sometimes when we talk about the different countries that they eat different types of food all we try to look for what it is like in different places. The likes and differences so we except the differences and can appreciate how we are all same. [Teacher interview 2, 01/17/2002, p.9, lines 195-197]

... whether it is skin color or the way the eyes look, or the way we speak with accent or not accent, but children pick up on those things, so they want to discuss them. So when they want to discuss them, because it is meaningful and purposeful at that point, the teachable moment, you talk to them about those issues. It is hard because you are afraid to give too much, you don't want to give too much. Sometimes a kid will ask one question, as a teacher you want to answer all his questions, and you give too much response, they don't understand this. [Teacher interview 2, 01/17/2002, pp.15-16, lines 335-348]

Kindergartners are still into themselves, and how things related to them. That is how you need to make your goals so they could see why it is

important to them or why it should mean anything to them. Again making it meaningful and purposeful. But also, if I can get across to that we are all the same, but we are all different, it doesn't matter if I have blond hair or brown hair it doesn't matter, am I a white skin, black skin, yellow skin that we are all the same that is the beginning of the multicultural issues for kindergartners that are important to get across. My goal would be try to get them understand that in this great big beautiful world, there is a lot of differences, but basically we have the same needs, the same wants.

[Teacher interview 2, 01/17/2002, pp.13-14, lines 293-304]

Note that teacher C connected diversity related experiences to his overriding principle of what is meaningful and purposeful for the children. It would then follow that such experiences relating to diversity mostly generate from who the children are in his classroom. Ultimately, this then contradicts his focus on surface characteristics of culture since such characteristics are generic and may or may not apply to an individual child even if he/she belongs that cultural group. This way of approaching diversity is widely criticized in the literature on diversity and referred as tourist approach (Derman-Sparks & ABC Task Force, 1989). Lip service is given to the diversity rather than making it generate from the lives and experiences of children.

Interestingly, teacher C additionally had a commonly seen concern about the diversity in classroom life. He believed that focusing on diversity issues might perpetrate racism since children at this age don't see their skin color. This is considered a misconception as reported in the literature on diversity. If the focus is on surface characteristics of a culture and if it is not critically examined, it may result in learning experiences that are based on biased thinking (Derman-Sparks & ABC Task Force, 1989; Kendall, 1995).

... when we were reading the story, and it was talking about when Martin Luther King was playing with the boys, some of them said we are not going to play with you because you are black. So this little five year old looked at me, he looked at in front of his hand, and he looked at back of his hand and goes “Am I black? Because to him it wasn’t an issue, sometimes I am afraid when we do the multiculturalism, we actually encourage some of the bigotry, the racism. So it is a hard concept I think to get right. [Teacher interview 2, 01/17/2002, p.8, lines 169-185]

We often talk about Martin Luther King in January and do something about it. But every year when I do it, you have children who don’t get it because to them kids are kids. Don’t see the color. They see it as different; they see it black person like a blond person. If I have blond hair, and you have black, you are different than me. There is not a difference between the differences. It is hard because often you will be pointing out the difference to the kids. I am afraid sometimes we point out difference and bring it up. They are not even thinking about it. [Teacher interview 2, 01/17/2002, pp.14-15, lines 312-326]

In summary, “autonomous” is a perfectly matched word for portraying the clearest characteristic of teacher C. He is very critical of any force that drew perimeters around what he could and could not do in his classroom. It is a personal and professional issue for him to determine the course of his teaching. For example, his personal joy is music and he frequently uses it in the classroom. Professionally, he reads widely about DAP and believes in it strongly. Hence, he entitles himself and sounds very confident that decisions related to his teaching have to come from him. He has “a power to be” and “a power to do” in Sergiovanni and Starratt’s (1998) words.

I want to do it [determining how to teach] myself because I say I bring to the classroom me, I bring E. [teacher C's name] to the classroom. Nobody else can say, E. you should play "Old McDonald have a farm" today. I can do that. F. [another kindergarten teacher] might not do "Old McDonald have a farm" because she doesn't play the guitar. J. [another kindergarten teacher] might do a mural because she is in art stuff. I do that too, but I don't do that at the same way. I don't like somebody telling me how to teach. You can help me decide what my goal, and then let me do it in the classroom the way I want, otherwise why hire me. [Teacher interview 1, 01/03/2002, p.33, lines 736-743]

What bothers me is that if someone asks me to do more than that I feel developmentally appropriate. If I ask them to do more, well I can get my kids to learn multiplication table in kindergarten, but it is not appropriate. Some of them may even remember them, but it doesn't mean they understand what they are doing and that is not appropriate so why should I waste my time. Firstful, it might take me longer to teach them that, if I actually wait until they are ready for it, when it is developmentally appropriate for them to learn it, they'll learn it faster and quicker, and it'll mean something. I don't have to re-teach. What tends to happen when you teach things that are not developmentally inappropriate, you end up teaching, and re-teaching, and re-teaching it. They'll get it yes eventually everybody gets it. If you do a lot of re-teaching and re-explaining and a lot of drill, that isn't necessary if you can figure out what a right time is to teach it. [Teacher interview 2, 01/17/2002, pp.1-2, lines 30-41]

As was seen in the section on supervisory associations, the characteristics of the context such as teachers' power to make decisions and principal C's confidence in them, can be considered as an important factor for teacher C to take such a stance on what he

believed in. Since a sense of empowerment and autonomy were valued in this context, any threat to them was criticized rather than adapted without question.

Classroom Practices

To reiterate, principal C and teacher C defined their curriculum within the framework of DAP in which whole child, play, individual differences of children, and a stress free classroom atmosphere were essential. Socialization of children was especially emphasized by both of them. Generating “meaningful and purposeful” experiences was key in ensuring developmentally appropriate practices in teacher C’s opinion. Examining teacher C’s practice through the observational data indicates the consistency between his interview responses and his actual classroom practices.

As the children entered the room, they immediately started engaging in doing something in one of the stations, which was their free playtime. The interaction between and among the children was noteworthy. There were groups of children building with blocks, working in pairs with legos, or individual children drawing with crayons. I could see and hear the children’s conversations and laughter while playing. Children’s interaction with each other was not limited to the free playtime, rather it was observable throughout the day. [Classroom observation data 1, 11/20/2001; 2, 01/03/2002; 3, 01/04/2002] So this suggests that teacher C’s and principal C’s emphasis on socialization in terms of learning to interact with peers was put into practice.

Teacher C’s interaction with the children took different forms. For instance, one time he assessed some children on literacy and mathematical skills during the free time by taking them aside. Another time, he watched a video about capital and lower case

letters matching with an object, such as Rr Rooster and its picture. The person in the video read the letter and the word. Teacher C let the children guess the letter before the video said it. Children laughed and tried to guess. Teacher C acted as one of them. Once, he guessed a letter's matching picture, and he was wrong. He said, "I was wrong". Another child said, "I was wrong too". [Classroom observation data 3, 01/04/2002]

Teacher C had repeatedly stated that what is meaningful and purposeful to the children motivates them to learn. Exposing children to literacy in natural ways was an example to illuminate his point. The following example came from my classroom observations that indicated how he put this point into practice. He read two big books about snow; one familiar book and one new book as he told me after the read aloud was over. When reading, he said to the children "I want you to focus on words now" and asked questions, such as "what is this page called?" After he finished, he asked, "what did you notice about the words? One child said, "they rhyme." Another child said, "There are two lines on the first page." Then he went on reading and showing which words rhyme and the page with two lines. When the children were listening to the read aloud, several of them were repeating one or two words with teacher C and laughing. One of the children asked a question: "what is a go-car?" and another child responded to her. When the book was over, the children asked him to read it again. They seemed to be very attentive. [Classroom observation data 2, 01/03/2002]

There were several other examples of how he made learning meaningful and purposeful: Teacher C and the children read a poem together while he pointed out the words of the poem already written on a big writing board. [Classroom Observation 1] They sang a song about the alphabet with movements while he played a song with his

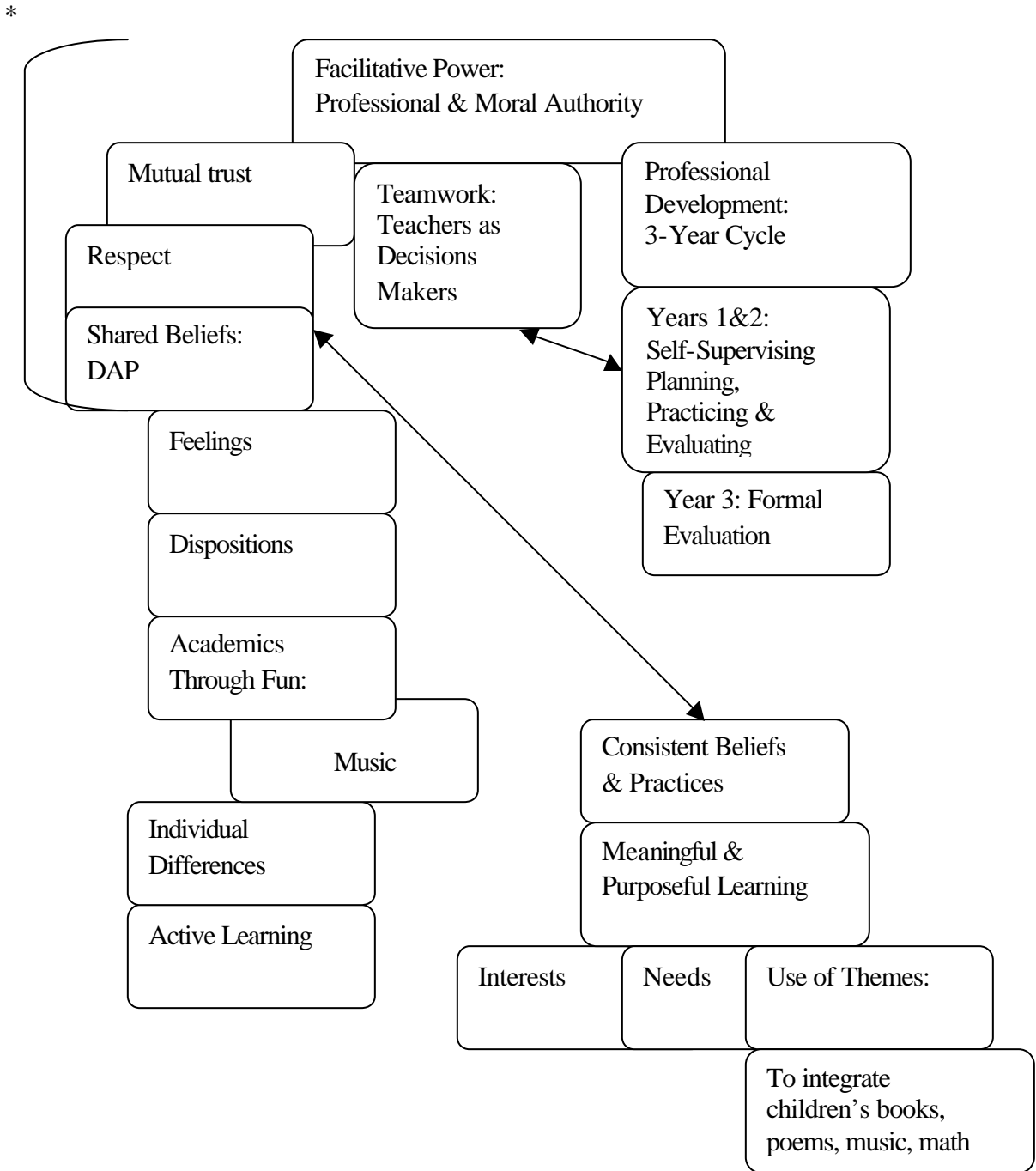
guitar, “Grab a letter, throw it in the pot, stir it...” They moved their hands and body while sitting, most of them laughing from time to time. [Classroom observation data 3, 01/04/2002]

The interesting aspect of these examples of his practices was the children’s high level of motivation and participation. The children appeared to be happy and engaged. Both principal C’s and teacher C’s envision of what a good kindergarten was seemed to come alive in the classroom. However, there could have been additional opportunities for the children’s experiences to be more enriched. For instance, I observed the children asking questions, responding to each other’s questions, and reminding of each other the class rules. I thought that there could have been more opportunities for children to engage in exploration on topics such as science concepts.

Synopsis of Case C

As I studied principal C's and teacher C's interview responses and examined teacher C's classroom teaching, I kept thinking about the following question: Is it the context, professional, or personal characteristics of the individuals involved in case C that shaped the supervisory associations between them? My answer is: neither of them by themselves, but both have played a role in generating such an association. Neither the context nor the individuals involved can be overlooked.

Contextual factors matter because they may promote or perimeter educators' personal and professional growth. This is not to say that it is impossible to see educators who thrive regardless of their context. As is seen in Figure 3, promoting educators' personal and professional growth can take place through exerting facilitative power, rather than exerting power-over them.



*Blocks direct influence of external pressures for a more rigorous academic curriculum

Figure 3: Inactive-collegial supervisory associations

Facilitative power in case C demonstrates itself through the existence of two major contextual factors. The first one was the separation of evaluation from supervision by using three-year cycle. The first two were for self-governed staff development and supervision and the third was for evaluation of teacher competency. As teacher C put it, this type of approach to supervision, staff development and evaluation empowers teachers by allowing them to be part of the process, and in the case of teacher C, leading his own professional growth. This also alters principal C's function by taking a non-authoritarian part for most of the time, even lessening her role as a supervisor since the teachers self-supervise themselves. The second contextual factor was principal C's facilitation of a supervisory task, which is called group development (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 1998). By means of this facilitation kindergarten teachers worked as a team on issues related to curriculum and teaching.

These contextual factors were fostered by the sources of authority that governed supervisory association in case C, which seem to be technical-rational, professional, and moral, (Sergiovanni & Starrat, 1998). These sources of authority represent professional characteristics of teacher C and principal C in interacting with each other and determines the process of this interaction.

Principal C's technical-rational authority surfaced as she talked about the training of teachers for teaching strategies and conducting annual observation to ensure that teachers teach in accordance with the professional standards of the district. This type of authority was less dominant since this evaluative observation took place once every three years. More dominant sources of authority seemed to be moral and professional. As part of their moral and professional authorities, principal C and teachers C valued collegiality

with each other and among teachers. Principal C had confidence that the teachers were competent professionals and self-motivated to carry out what is best for the children. On the other hand, her support seemed to be available for teachers when needed.

These sources of authorities for supervision were supportive rather than hindering for what teacher C envisioned doing in the classroom and in the school as a professional and as a person. Teacher C had confidence in his ability to teach in line with DAP. He ensured this by questioning his own teaching through considering whether the learning experiences are meaningful and purposeful for the children. He strongly believed that children learn better when learning is meaningful and purposeful. This suggests that he had a very enhanced sense of efficacy. High self-efficacy manifested itself in teachers who believe in not only their effective teaching but also in children's ability to learn (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998).

Teacher C worked toward having a sense of empowerment and autonomy. He was able to back up his justification with his understandings coming from his teaching experiences, research, and other readings. He addressed the research conducted in the area of what children gain and/or not gain with rigidly structured academic curriculum versus developmentally appropriate curriculum. He cited points made by widely known publications, such as NAEYC's publication on developmentally appropriate practices. He also referred to what he knows about the districts that administer standardized test and thus teach toward this test. Lastly, he attended and presented in conferences related to education of young children. Hence, the picture portrayed here is a person who is well informed about early childhood literature, who has years of teaching experience, who communicates with other public school educators, and who is able to communicate at a

professional level with other educators in conferences. So his personal commitment to his professional growth was a tremendous influence for the two previously mentioned contextual factors to be successful.

In summary, driving forces in school C's context are shared values between principal C and teacher C. Among these values are respect, trust, and understanding, which are considered tenets of collegiality. This generates when educators work individually and collectively in an effective manner and are guided by moral necessity to function better (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998). The manner in which teachers' work as a team is an indicator of how teachers worked as a community to improve their teaching through dialogue. Those involved in this process might have had opportunities to examine and re-examine their educational platform and how it relates to their actual practices. As a result, an understanding about teaching and learning emerge, and ideally they would be put into practice.

There seemed to be a discrepancy between what principal C and teacher C's and other stakeholders', parents and upper administrators, envision of kindergarten curriculum. As a response to this demand, teacher C incorporated direct instruction of literacy skills in large group such as all children repeating capital and lower case letters of alphabet while he showed each of the letters made of different colors of fabric. He also used a more structured assessment method that had been required of all kindergarten classrooms in school C. Principal C channeled this demand to teacher C in a way that did not overlook their existing professional and personal espoused platforms and actual practices that took place in the classroom. Teacher C chose to work around this demand

while working to keep his own understanding and practice of what a good kindergarten should be about.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CASE D

Portraits of principal D and teacher D are presented in this chapter. Principal D is a male and has been in this current administrative position for 11 years. He has a Masters of Science in Administration and taught K-6 grades. Teacher D is a female. She has a Masters of Science in Education and held both N-3 and K-6 certifications. She has been teaching kindergarten for eight years and taught in other schools for six years.

Portrait of Principal D and Teacher D

Responsible for four school buildings, principal D sounded pressed for time, but contented with how things were going. “We have always done well with the kids,” he said with a sense of pride. Adopting a new literacy program, the kindergarten program turned out to be very comprehensive, had great assessment methods, and emphasized reading and writing well in his eyes.

Principal D saw a clear distinction between his point of view on curriculum and the teaching and teachers’ view. As he said during my first interview with him, this was simply due to his administrative position, which led him to consider the bigger picture as opposed to teachers who only thought about individual children and their classrooms. The most obvious distinction came from his ability to see where kindergarten fit within the elementary school in preparing the children to take standardized tests in third grade.

Professional paradox is a phrase that describes the situation of teacher D due to the flux of philosophical and practical change in her classroom with the adaptation of a new literacy program. She had not completely made peace with this program but was not opposed to this change either. In her mind, but not in her practice, she was resisting the

goals and practices set by this program because it was not compatible with what she imagined a kindergarten curriculum to be. She was very vocal about this inconsistency between what she was required to do and what she believed in.

Imposed upon teachers by the administrators, this program was aligned well with the state achievement standards. However, it asked too much of kindergarten children in regards to learning to read and write in teacher D's opinion. The children were not ready for this heavy emphasis on literacy skills and thus encouraged to memorize what was taught to them. As opposed to this sole focus on academic skills, she believed in incorporating music, art, and play, into academics, but there was no time to include them. The following statements taken from her interview responses sums up well her state of mind "Why do I have to push them at five when I know next year they'll be ready to read? I can push them, but why? I don't know." [Teacher interview 1, 03/04/2002, p.17, lines 382-387]

Nature of Supervisory Associations

Both principal D and teacher D portrayed their supervisory association as being positive. They both pointed out that one of the indicators of their positive association was the fact that they could talk with each other about anything. Principal D perceived teacher D as an individual who needed support rather than encouragement, since she is very committed to do her best for the children and for the program. Teacher D considered principal D as approachable. Despite their positive perceptions of each other, the way principal D and teacher D perceived supervision, curriculum, and teaching related issues were quite different.

Supervisory associations in case D were more so the product of power-over teachers that dominated the association between principal D and teacher D than other factors, such as existence of shared values and educational beliefs. There were administrators on the one hand who were decision makers and there were teachers on the other side of the spectrum who carried out the decisions as prescribed. The administrators' decisions ranged from choosing a curriculum for teachers, providing in-service training about the curriculum, and conducting quality control oriented classroom observations. Teachers were solely there to carry out instruction as planned. Hence, the initial use of power-over approach installed teacher-proof curricular materials into kindergarten classrooms representing what Smyth calls (1984) hidden control over curriculum and teaching by external forces.

According to teacher D, administrators of school D were motivated by the goal of scoring high on state wide standardized achievement tests, and decided to search for a new literacy program for the kindergarten without getting any feedback from teachers. However, in principal D's words, this search was initiated by teachers' concerns over limitations of the existing program and chosen by the administrators. Regardless of how this program was chosen, the message conveyed was that the administrators had decision making power of making decisions even for a matter like curriculum while the teachers' voices were not heard until all the major decisions were already made even for a matter like curriculum. Evidence for this is supported by teacher D's interview responses below:

Well I think they [administrators] give us a say in it after they decided it. They decided we are going to do this literacy program and now, the kindergarten teachers, we are going to class; it was every week, as the year

progresses it is every other week. But they are asking our opinion “How do you like it, is it working?” but it is too late we have already adopted it. We like part of it, we do, but it is too late, to say we don’t want to do the whole thing. We like this part, but not this part. We didn’t have a saying in that, but we do have a saying now as far as what kind of materials we need, what is going to help you work this out. They’ll let us make a list of what we need. As far as that goes, they have been very good about supplying materials to do this reading, and writing. [Teacher interview 1, 03/04/2002, pp. 18-19, 408-415]

I think they [administrators] had it [literacy program] in their mind that this is what they wanted to do, so whether we were there well we are not sure, they’ll probably say we are doing it. So, I think it would be helpful obviously to have a kindergarten teacher. The ones who are going to teach it should be involved in deciding it. They’ll probably think that too, but I think they were very eager to try this. It would look good for them as a district, if this works well for our district. [Teacher interview 1, 03/04/2002, p. 19, lines 423-428]

The hidden agenda behind power-over-teachers-approach is the governing factor of tests, both state wide standardized achievement tests and district wide year-end kindergarten tests. The administrators demonstrated through their decision making process how an educational policy, like standardized achievement tests, becomes a form of power over the school administration as well. Hence both teachers and administrators are disempowered. Although state mandated standardized tests are first administrated in third grade, the preparation should start in kindergarten according to principal D.

Standardized tests are gaining momentum within the accountability movement in education, which then becomes the driving force for some educators, as in the case of

principal D, since they can be used as proof of success. Principal D's long-term goal for kindergarten is to prepare children to score high on state wide standardized achievement tests in later grades as it is seen in his interview responses below.

... goals are to make sure that we provide a program, again it continues to meet their needs, but it is also addressing standards set by the state. Now we are standard motivated. The first time, they'll be formalized testing at the elementary level will be third grade now, starting next year in the reading, the math, and science. But just in the process of getting kids ready for that test in third grade, we start in the kindergarten level. We have to make sure our program at the kindergarten level supports what is going on in the first grade, first grade has to support what is going on second grade, second grade supports what is going on third grade which is getting kids to the point where the state says there they are to be. So, long-term goals are to provide a program that builds upon to have the kids at the point where they are expected to be at the elementary level, the first official statewide test at the third grade level. [Principal interview 1, 03/04/2002, p.2, lines 35-45]

Kindergarteners in school D were tested at the end of the school year by using a curriculum-based test. The results of the test were an indicator of whether teachers covered the curriculum. Thus, principal D addressed the importance of teacher D's covering the curriculum as it was planned within his goals of supervision.

Supervision meant the annual classroom observation to both principal D and teacher D. Principal D did not inform teachers about when he was going to conduct the formal observation. For all kindergarten teachers, he aimed to conduct the observation during the guided reading time. After the formal observation, the principal and the

teacher met to go over the guided reading session that he observed in case either of them had questions or if he had suggestions for the teacher.

Officially I am supposed to be in the class, observe each teacher once a year, and if they are non-tenured teachers twice a year. I usually do formal observation, but then I try to stop in periodically. For example, last year with the kindergarten teachers, I made a point of stopping in all the kindergarten classrooms to see how things are going more than once, but also to meet and talk with them to see how things are going. So, informal observations as well as formal observations. [Principal interview 3, 03/07/2002, p.5, lines 105-110] What I do is, I ask them when I show up in the room if it is a good time. And if it is a bad day, they tell me. I come back some other time. Very seldom occurs where they tell me not to come in. [Principal interview 3, 03/07/2002, p.5, lines 112-114]

I try to find a spot in the classroom where I am not in the way. That is important. A little kindergarten kid, when I first walk in, they wonder why I am there. They will start maybe paying attention to me rather than to her. So I try to find a spot where I can just sit there. I don't move around or anything. Once I get settled in, then they kind of forget I am there. In fact, this year I have been trying to get in during the guided reading session. So a lot of kids are working at learning centers. Often times, they will call me and show me what they are doing with the learning center. As long as they are not disrupting the guided reading that is okay. [Principal interview 3, 03/07/2002, p.6, lines 121-131]

I have a form that I get through. Then within a couple days of observing, teacher and I will sit down with them and go over the lesson. I might have some questions and I might have a suggestion. They might have the questions for, and we kind of discuss the lesson or any other concerns they might have. Often times, they will ask me to come back again for

something else, to check something else out for them. But I try to keep it low key, not easy. [Principal interview 3, 03/07/2002, p.6, lines 140-147]

There might be an aspect of the lesson that I might have an idea for them that would make it go smoother. I sat in the class this year, and it was a spelling class. They were talking about vowel sounds of syllables. The teacher was using a definition of vowel sounds of syllables that I have years ago come up with a real simple explanation for that so I shared that with the teacher afterwards. It was like what I suggest was so much easier than what they were doing. So it depends what I see and what I think I can do to help them. [Principal interview 3, 03/07/2002, p.7, lines 150-156] If there is a problem, we'll talk about it. Then I set up a time and I'll come back again to give some ideas how to address the problem. And then I'll come back again. [Principal interview 3, 03/07/2002, pp.6-7, lines 140-141]

The interpretation is important because what I see and what they see. When I fill out my observation forms, I do it with pencil. Because if there is something I have a question about, I will ask them. There may have been something I might mark, there is a concern, and maybe I felt that they didn't do enough for prior to starting a new concept. When I talked about it I found that prior to me walking in the classroom they have done that. Or maybe how they conducted their class the day before is dictated and they didn't have to go that much detail to start. Those sorts of things I will be clarifying in my interpretation what is going on and not having been here the day before or even half hour an hour before, I may miss something that impacts that. So that is one of the things I will ask a clarification of. [Principal interview 3, 03/07/2002, pp.8-9, lines 177-187]

What is described above is the conventional view and practice of supervision mixed with teacher evaluation as it is commonly perceived and used in public schools (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998; Vandiver, 2000): classroom observation by using a checklist and a post conference. This type of supervision revolves around quality control orientation. It centers on evaluating teachers' competency through focusing on predefined teaching behaviors. In the case of teacher D, she was evaluated based on the criteria of conducting an effective guided reading session as described in the literacy program.

Developing a better understanding about this notion of supervision entails the examination of two sources of authority that seemed to be governing the supervisory associations between principal D and teacher D: bureaucratic authority and technical-rationality authority. When individuals operate primarily within these sources of authority, the roles of all involved are distinctly established. The principal plays the role of the superordinate and the teacher is the subordinate. The superordinate is the decision maker and is perceived to possess proficient knowledge about curriculum and teaching, hence he/she is able to make judgments about one's teaching competency (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998). In principal D's interview responses, for instance, he talked about the function of the post-observation meeting as a time for him to give explicit suggestions, ask questions to the observed teacher, and find a solution if there is a problem. The message conveyed there was that principal D was responsible for providing answers to questions, offering alternative ways of doing things in the classroom, and solving problems. In other words, all the thinking related to teacher D's performance was done by the authority figure.

Teacher D was placed in a subordinate position. She became a technician who carried out expert knowledge provided by the literacy program and principal D. This implies that principal D thought that he had a better knowledge of the matters under consideration. Actually principal D went on to state that the most important component of his supervision was for teachers to listen to his suggestions and carry out changes based on these suggestions. Partly this happens because of equating authority with expertise. Hence, it can be concluded that the bureaucratic authority is at work (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998).

Moreover, bureaucratic authority clearly states role expectations (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998). This type of role distinction was evident in principal D's thoughts as he talked about why his views of education would be different than the teachers'. The interesting aspect was that both principal D and teacher D had a common perception that they would have differences of opinion when articulating their views on issues related to kindergarten curriculum and teaching. Principal D thought that teacher D's views on such issues would be different than his views because she only thinks about her classroom and individual children, while he thinks about all of the kindergarten program and school system. Also, she would concentrate on what she likes to teach and what the children like to do in the classroom. According to teacher D, principal D would have a dissimilar perception about what a good kindergarten is because he would concentrate more on academics due to the pressure from the superintendent. However, if he did not feel that pressure, he might describe a good kindergarten more similarly to her description.

I think she [teacher D] would be more focused on individual students not necessarily certain things about a program, meaning the standard set of the

program, where the objectives set in kindergarten program. I think she is, all of our teachers are fair about the needs of the kids. Not always educational, but social, emotional needs as well. [Principal interview 1, 03/04/2002, pp.1-2, lines 23-27]

... they are focused on their class. They are not necessarily taking the look at the broader picture where all the kindergarten kids are taken into consideration. Or all the class broader picture, and how that broader picture dictates the entire school system. Sometimes dictates, maybe resource might be available for a particular classroom I mean, in terms of perspective. [Principal interview 1, 03/04/2002, p.6, lines 133-138]

I don't know they might get a little more involved in as far as what they like to teach in their classroom. It might be some of them like to read to, some of them like to get involved in learning centers, something like that. There might be a difference there. [Principal interview 1, 03/04/2002, p.4, lines 72-76]

The influence of technical rational authority can clearly be seen as principal D talked about his focus during his annual observation, which was on the guided reading session. This single focus alone conveys a compelling message about what he, as a supervisor, valued. Which was the teacher's ability of managing reading instruction and the children's responses to this instruction based on what this literacy program defined as an effective guided reading session. This suggests that technical rationality authority is in control rather than teacher D's way of defining effective reading instruction. As a matter of fact, principal D was not in control in that situation either. The control belonged to the literacy program not to teacher D or principal D.

Smyth (1984) claims that the prevalence of technical authority is more dangerous than bureaucratic authority since it gives a false impression of autonomy. For instance, curriculum packages seem to give teachers latitude on the surface, but in reality pressure to conform to prescribed procedures promises more effectiveness. So, while bureaucratic authority is more apparent, technical rational authority is less observable, since it exerts psychological type of control by forces external to schools.

In both bureaucratic and technical rationality authority, teachers' professional autonomy is marginalized. Bureaucratic authority regards hierarchical relationships through which principals become superordinate to teachers. The power of being superordinate grants principals as being well informed about the process of teaching and learning. Technical rational authority recognizes scientific knowledge above any other type of knowledge, such as practical knowledge of teachers and thus teachers operate as subordinates to scientific knowledge (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998; Smyth, Dow, Hattam, Reid, & Shacklock, 2000).

In summary, principal D exercised a conventional form of supervision influenced by bureaucratic and technical rationality authority. The overarching form of supervision seemed to be what Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998) characterize as "testing program itself becomes a system of supervision" (p.220). Analogously, Waite (2000) defines such focus as "supervision as accountability" (p.286). It serves to the efforts for establishing accountability through testing.

Perceptions about Curriculum and Teaching

According to teacher D Individuals such as the superintendent, curriculum coordinator, and principal D were convinced that the literacy program was the one best-suited their kindergarten program. With the adaptation of this literacy program, the kindergarten curriculum was given a new philosophical identity that drifted away from teacher D's beliefs and values. As was mentioned in the previous section on supervisory associations between principal D and teacher D, this literacy program was chosen by the administrators and passed down as requirements to teachers.

Curriculum here is perceived as product, which consisted of in this case, a prepackaged literacy program. Hence, curriculum change meant adopting a new prepackaged program that contained instructions for teaching the predetermined content and assessing children's level and progress. Moreover, teachers were trained to implement the program effectively. When curriculum is considered as a product, the outcomes and methods of reaching these outcomes are clear, which makes curriculum certain and predictable (Cornbleth, 1996).

In teacher D's eyes, the problem was two-fold. First, teacher D and her peers were excluded in making the decision to stop using the existing program and to adopt another program. Second, the chosen program was inconsistent with what teacher D believed in. The new curriculum meant several things for her: alteration of classroom organization and materials, heavy emphasis on reading and writing, elimination of playtime, etc. For instance, there had to be both a writing center, and an ABCs center in the classroom. The classroom's walls needed to be filled with the letters of the alphabet and numbers in order to help children focus on literacy. The philosophy of the literacy

program was not aligned with the use of any other decorative materials in the classroom since such materials distract the children's concentration from their actual work. Before this newly adopted program, she provided the children with materials like, blocks, and puppets, and centers like housekeeping. She needed to eliminate the playtime due to the requirement of spending two and a half hours of the half-day program on reading and writing.

Teacher D's personal goals were for the children to enjoy school, to take risks, and to progress in all areas of development without any stress. As opposed to the requirements of the district's administration, she valued children's play as one of the modes of learning since play fosters their social skills, creativity, and fine motor skills. Moreover, making learning fun through themes that provided the opportunity to do arts, cooking, and crafts was important for her while the district's goals were all academic. Her personal views on kindergarten curriculum were more aligned with the previous curriculum, which she referred to as being developmental.

My goals, I want them to enjoy school, I want them to learn, and I want them to not be afraid to take a chance and try something. I would like to help them all move beyond where they are when they come in academically, socially, emotionally, and physically. [Teacher interview 1, 03/04/2002, p. 9, lines 188-191]

The district's goals, academically we have a curriculum handbook that we are to cover this, this and this in kindergarten. So I think it is based on their report card, their letters, sounds of the consonants, numbers of 20, measuring by inches, etc. There is a list of objectives for the year...[Teacher interview 1, 03/04/2002, p. 9, lines 191-193]

According to teacher D, compared to the current curriculum, the previous curriculum was more comprehensive as it included art, music, physical activity, and academics. It valued children's interests and did not impose skills and knowledge on them that are beyond their reach. The new literacy program pushed the children into something that they are not ready for. She was especially worried about the amount of pressure this program put on children to start reading in kindergarten. Its value for the children was questionable in her mind:

Our philosophy, I should say, was more developmental and so we got a new superintendent and this is his third year...we didn't do a lot of pushing at this program for the last maybe fifteen years. That was a big thing, and now just the opposite. No I cannot say it is just the opposite. We still incorporate some of it, but it is definitely more academic now. More of the literacy, they should be reading in a level C by the time they go to first grade, so it is like boom this philosophy came in. [Teacher interview 1, 03/04/2002, p.17, lines 370-385]

I think with developmental, we take each child where they are at, and I would try and take more of what they are interested in and not force things on them in a way. I think we used a little more of a combined program where there is more art, more music, more social, physical and academics all combined. Some of their learning, I think, is self-directed through their play, and I guess it is a more holistic type of approach in my opinion. [Teacher interview 2, 03/06/2002, p.1 lines 10-15]

Now I am just trying to take where they are at but I feel like I am forcing them into some things that they are not ready to learn. Where before we didn't have this reading program where they have to be reading at a certain level by the end of the year, I didn't feel any pressure. Maybe in

some ways, the reading program is good, because it is pushing along further than I think they would have been at the end of last year, but some of them I think it is frustrating, because I feel they are just not ready to read. I am pushing them into these little books and it is not really making sense to them yet. I do wish we had more time for the playtime because I think they learn through that and they need that and they just don't have time for it. I think our superintendent would think playtime as a waste of time, maybe not the principal but the superintendent. [Teacher interview 2, 03/06/2002, pp.1-2 lines 17- 26]

I just wonder 'Is it necessary for kids to read at five years old? They are reading in first grade. Why do I have to push them at five when I know next year they'll be ready to read.' "I can push them but why?" I don't know. That is my question about it. It is working for some. They are reading, some of the can read books that, I don't know. I wouldn't push them into before, but then I also see kids that we are trying to push into books to read, they don't even know their letters and sounds yet. And according to the philosophy they have to be reading books. They memorize it, but they are not reading it. I sat down with her, point to every word, read it together, do different things to work on words and after five or six times, you might read it by yourself to me. Then, if I ask her to read it tomorrow, she won't know it. She memorizes it, and I can see her getting frustrated and I think 'Why are we doing this to poor kids?' So that is the bad part of it but the good part of it is there are some kids that are really taking off with this. But they are the kids who are going to do well no matter what. You know what I mean? They have the stable home environment, they have the parents who sit and read to them at night. They are ready. They are going to be fine. But some of these kids just shouldn't, I don't think they need that extra pressure right now to read. [Teacher interview 1, 03/04/2002, pp.17-18, lines 382-398]

Although teacher D believed in the importance of focusing on reading and writing, she disagreed with the extent to which these two areas were emphasized with this new literacy program. Basically first grade curriculum was pushed down to kindergarten, which overlooked what the children can and cannot do.

The philosophical and practical alterations imposed on teacher D as she adopted to the new program created what I call a professional paradox; where one's espoused platform is in conflict with administrative requirements. She was very vocal about this paradox when I asked questions about the curriculum. She often posed the question of "My personal or the districts...?" [Teacher interview 1, 03/04/2002, p. 9, line 186]

This suggests that her views on education were not in agreement with the district's view. In the section on the nature of supervisory association, principal D's goals for the children tended to focus on the children being more successful in reaching externally established goals, such as standards and grade level expectations. Teacher D's goals were related more to attitudes, such as enjoying school and children's dispositions, such as taking risks. What was imposed on teacher D was a uni-dimensional and one-size-fits-all type of curriculum that consisted of a sole focus on academics. All the other dimensions, if any were mentioned, served to further the goals of preparing children to be successful in the upper grades. Principal D's interview responses, clearly served to reflect this philosophy.

Classroom Practices

"We have a curriculum-based assessment that we use. What we do is we have a written curriculum that teachers are expected to cover, and then we have generated a test

from that curriculum at the end of the school year” [Principal interview 1, 03/04/2002, pp.11-12, lines 254-256] said principal D. To him this assessment indicated whether teachers covered the curriculum as planned. As part of his supervision, therefore, he emphasized the importance of making sure that teachers teach the planned curriculum. As was previously discussed, reading and writing were the main foci of the kindergarten program. For teachers to carry out this emphasis, they needed to follow the literacy program. This emphasis was clearly reflected in teacher D’s classroom practices in the form of a heavy emphasis on reading and writing skills.

Starting from the large group time in the morning until recess, every learning experience was teacher structured and directed and was almost exclusively about literacy skills, such as learning the letters and sounds of the alphabet. With teacher D’s words, the upper administration pointed out that the kindergartners should be able to read by the end of the year. In order to meet the expectations set for kindergartners, playtime was eliminated from teacher D’s classroom.

In the large group time, teacher D showed to the children what they needed to do during center time and demonstrated to the children how to do these activities. [Classroom observation data 1, 03/04/2002] “Next thing I want to do is letter ‘D.’ I am going to hold up some words and tell me what it starts with.” ‘Doctor’ was the first word she held up and asked, “Can a doctor be a man? Can a doctor be a woman?” “I want you to think of something in your mind that starts with ‘D’. The children said: dog, dinosaur, and dad. [Classroom observation data 1, 03/04/2002]

What was interesting about this activity was that teacher D led the children to pay attention to the stereotypes about gender-oriented jobs. [Classroom observation data 1]

On two other different occasions, the researcher observed teacher D's efforts to avoid gender-biased statements when interacting with the children. Through this method, the children received the message that they can think and behave outside the traditionally defined gender roles.

As a follow up, teacher D said, " We are going to do the letter 'D' today, so remember to trace D's. Look up here; a capital 'D' is a straight line and a half of a circle. A lower case 'd' is a circle and straight line." She holds up some pictures that started with 'd' and says, "I will put this 'D' book here so that you can get ideas." [Classroom observation data 1, 03/04/2002]

During my three-day observation, I saw the children working alone during the center time to complete their center time activities while teacher D worked with small groups of children for their guided reading session. She only gazed at the others who worked in other centers. Sometimes the teacher's aid came in and walked around to help the children when needed. [Classroom observation data 1, 03/04/2002; 2, 03/06/2002; & 3, 03/07/2002]

After center time, the children and the teacher met in the circle time. The teacher went through each child's folder to see what he/she did. For instance, when looking and showing a child's work to the group, the teacher praised the child for writing the sentence, and let other children figure out what he/she forgot to do. For example, this one child forgot to put a period at the end of a sentence. Then, he took his folder and went back to the table to put the period. [Classroom observation data 1]

Two hours of a half-day program were required to be spent on reading and writing, according to teacher D, in order to get the children reading at level C by the end

of the kindergarten year. During my observations in her classroom, almost all the activities were about the letters of the alphabet, their sounds etc. All of them were preplanned by teacher D. They were highly structured to the point that there was only one way of doing them. The children worked alone in their seats or rotated through the centers to finish up that day's activities. The children did not need to do much thinking, they only needed to listen and follow the directions given by the teacher during the center time in order to do the activities. They looked programmed as they worked in each center without communicating with each other.

The question that is raised here is what happens to professional enhancement of teachers who work in such a school context? Was there any other way for her to work around the district's requirement and to teach in line with her personal espoused platform? What are the effects of such a program on children? Teacher D chose not to operate outside the expectations of authority even if it was not compatible with what she believed in. Looking at this group of children in teacher D's classroom, one would think that they were on task and working hard, which in evaluative-based supervision indicates effective teaching and learning. Unfortunately, teacher D was still mentally dealing with this paradox as she tried to figure out ways to learn to implement the program better.

I had asked our curriculum coordinator if we would be allowed to go out to [state's name] where it is developed to observe some kindergarten teachers using this. The answer is no. We don't have the funding. So I think that would help. Maybe ideally I would like to go in the fall when they are starting and then in the middle of the year and at the end of the year to see how it progresses but it doesn't happen. [Teacher interview 3, 03/07/2002, p.18, lines 396-402]

Maybe this is because it is my first year, but I feel rushed. I feel like I have to rush through everything. I know this is the first year implementing this, and I have to get a little more organized, get it under my belt more. But I think I would almost like to see the day expand a little so that we would have more time for other things that I am not doing. [Teacher interview 3, 03/07/2002, p.11, lines 233-237]

I concur with Gitlin and Price (1992) when they claim that teaching is seen as a technical endeavor within administrative evaluative supervision. Teachers were confined to teach as prescribed and thus lessen the value of their practical knowledge. Teacher D's self-efficacy seemed to weaken with respect to her own competency as a teacher and her teaching's impact on children. For instance, she was unsure whether she covered different curriculum areas well enough, and whether the children had enough experiences in areas other than reading and writing. Reading and writing skills were focused on to such an extent and isolated so that in teacher D's eyes they seemed to be areas that could not be related to any other areas. She needed to be reassured and thus felt the need to be monitored more often by her principal. One annual observation was not adequate in her opinion.

Well, I think it would be ideal if he could observe more, but I understand he is under time limit himself. So I think if we were allowed, or given more time to talk as a kindergarten group, we do have these classes but again there is usually a topic we have to cover. Sometimes I think we also, just the kindergarten teachers, we need time with the group and say what are you doing with your ABC center, what are some ideas you have, what are you doing with this and that. What problems you have. We had to come up with a report card very quickly, we thought of something and

we don't like it, but we haven't had time to sit down go over it yet and come up with the better solution. So we probably have to meet over the summer some time on our own to do this which is okay but it is just there is not enough time and I am not saying that is Mr. [principal] fault. I think we just cannot. That is the problem I see. It would be great if he could observe me more, but I understand he cannot. [Teacher interview 3, 03/07/2002, pp.16-17, lines 366-377]

It appeared in teacher D's comments that she wished to be closely monitored, which is consistent with the view of conventional supervision and was something that she needed, but was not provided with. This contrasted with the notion that experienced teachers find traditional supervisory practices irresponsible to their needs (Brundage, 1992). Actually, the merit of supervision as quality control is often questioned in the literature on supervision. Some believe that this type of supervision becomes a ritual or formality rather than a professional enhancing endeavor, since the supervisor in most cases lacks the knowledge of the context, the students, and the teachers, presents little or no opportunity for educative discourse (Vandiver, 2000; Abbey, 2000), is a one-time visit (Starratt, 1997), and marginalizes teachers' knowledge (Gitlin & Price, 1992).

Synopsis of Case D

Figure 2 summarizes the nature of teacher-supervisor relationships in case D. In general, this diagram shows what types of authorities and form of power is used in accountability-oriented supervisory association that is driven by tests. It also indicates how such supervisory associations shape teaching and influences teachers.

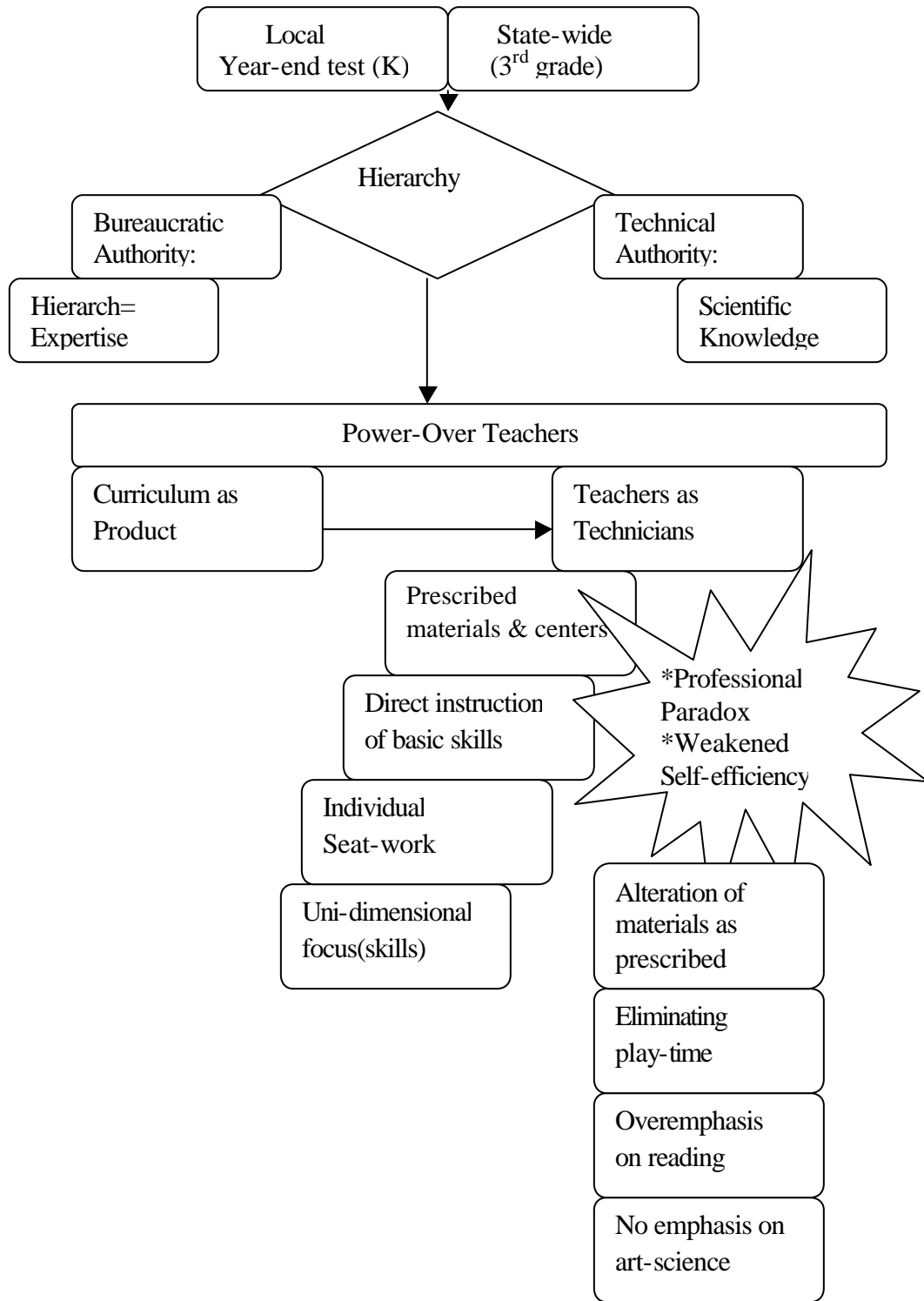


Figure 4: Accountability-driven supervisory associations

As seen in figure 4, the greatest influence on curriculum and supervision in this case is the educational policy of standardized achievement tests and accountability movement. The reliance on bureaucratic and technical rational authority placed the power of decision making in the hands of individuals in administrative positions and in scientific knowledge. This demonstrates the power of national educational policy over principal D to which he responded by adopting a prescriptive curriculum package and by conducting supervision in a bureaucratic manner based on hierarchical order.

In theory, principal D viewed teachers as professionals and in fact he said that he “expects teachers to make professional decisions” which fits in with what Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998) call “labeling teachers as professionals but viewing the work of teaching as bureaucratic” (p.203). However, in practice, teachers were not part of making a decision about adapting the literacy program. By solely depending on these two sources of authority, the system disempowered teachers and diminished their role to a set of predetermined teaching behaviors. This in turn showed the teaching process to be bureaucratically driven and confined the children’s experiences to a set of academic skills. Teacher D’s sense of disempowerment seemed to impact her self-efficacy. In explaining the dynamics of teacher efficacy, Sergiovanni and Starratt, (1998) point out the importance of school culture that procures “shared decision making and covenant” (p.208).

The fact that principal D was responsible for supervising teachers in several school buildings and the fact that he aimed to observe kindergarten teachers only when they were conducting guided reading session exacerbated the issue of scheduling conflicts for principal D. He seemed to rationalize bureaucratized supervision based on

infrequent and checklist based observations. Waite and Fernandes (2000) call this overly hectic schedule that seems to prevail as “intensification.” They call attention to how much of a principal’s job is bureaucratized through increased paper work, rules, and regulations to be followed. This bureaucratization, in turn, manifests itself in teacher supervision mainly as observing and appraising of teacher competency. This asserts that there is an absolute certainty of the shape that teaching in a kindergarten classroom should take, which ultimately goes against the dynamic nature of children’s learning.

It is not surprising to see that the influence between principal D and teacher D is unidirectional. This unidirectional influence generates as part of the bureaucratic and technical rational authority. Both sources of these authorities operate based on the premise of hierarchical relationships. Hence, principal D’s expectations transmitted through supervisory processes and the prescribed type of teaching in the literacy program had a greater influence over teacher D’s practice than her own educational beliefs and values. As was discussed, the educational policy on testing was the main controlling force behind all these influences. What principal D did was to convey uni-directionality of the influence of national educational policy to the teachers. He let the testing system take over which may be partly due to the compatibility of his own views on education with the testing system. Certainly, teacher D’s views were not aligned with the focus of testing and principal D’s view. What is important for teacher D is overlooked. Waite (1995) put it well as he states that “pressure on teachers to raise their students’ test scores” disempowered teachers, but supervisors’ situation is no different than teachers since they are also disempowered through “increased pressure to deal with teachers as a mass, to spend much of their time shuffling paperwork...” (p.7).

CHAPTER EIGHT: DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter eight presents a summary of themes across the four cases, discussion of the themes in connection with the literature, implications for teacher supervision, limitations of the study, strengths of the study, and recommendations for future research.

Summary of Themes

The primary themes that emerged from the study and that were used to characterize the dyads were:

- (1a) active and inactive-collegial supervisory associations
- (1b) teachers of collegial supervisory associations with consistent curriculum beliefs and actual classroom practices,
- (2a) inactive-hierarchical supervisory associations,
- (2b) teachers of inactive-hierarchical supervisory associations with inconsistent curriculum beliefs and actual classroom practices,
- (3) inactive supervisory associations for all experienced teachers,

The results of this study demonstrated two types of supervisory associations: (1a) collegial and (2a) superior-subordinate. The collegial supervisory associations were further divided into two forms: active collegial and inactive-collegial. Both forms of collegial associations were primarily influenced by professional and moral sources of authority and supported by personal source of authority. These authorities manifested themselves through the principles of mutual respect, trust, and shared understandings about the education of young children. The primary principle that differentiated active-

collegial from inactive-collegial supervisory association was ongoing dialogue. The superior-subordinate supervisory associations were based on a hierarchical notion that were governed by bureaucratic and technical-rational sources of authority.

Case A represents an active-collegial and case C is an example of inactive-collegial supervisory associations. Case D reflects an inactive-hierarchical type of supervisory association followed by case B. A related finding was that teachers in collegial supervisory associations espoused and carried out DAP. In effect, their curriculum beliefs were consistent with their classroom practices. In contrast, teachers of inactive-hierarchical associations believed in DAP, but their actual practices were uni-dimensional, primarily focusing on formal instruction of academic skills. Hence, this reflects a discrepancy between their beliefs and observed practices. These two related findings, types of supervisory associations and types of curriculum beliefs and practices, are interrelated.

Discussion of the Themes

(1a) Collegial Supervisory Associations

Examining collegial supervisory associations indicated the influence of professional and moral authorities that helped generate reciprocal trust, respect and shared understandings about education. Collegial associations appeared to be active in case A in the sense that principal A and teacher A operated in their school as a community in which they valued a positive school and classroom climate. They engaged in ongoing dialogue about teaching and learning, and operated with shared understandings about education. Collegial associations seemed to be inactive in case C

since principal C's and teacher C's supervisory association was limited mainly to annual formal observation of his teaching performance. But they also had shared understandings in respect to education of young children, mutual respect and trust. These points will be elaborated later in discussing the differences between case A and C.

Trust, Respect, and Shared Understandings. What does it mean to have a supervisory association that is defined by respect, trust, and shared understandings? How important is it to have such an association for teaching and learning in kindergarten?

Developing trusting relationships with teachers brings certain responsibilities that both principals and teachers need to accept. Showing interest in teachers' classroom lives, acting as equals, and developing knowledge and understanding about young children's education are among the responsibilities of principals. Teachers need to see their principals as equals as well and to fully commit themselves to enhancing their own theoretical and pedagogical expertise. Additionally, they should be self-governed, but at same time operate interdependently with other members of their school. The importance of principals' interest in the teaching process has been recognized as an essential component in generating trusting relationships with teachers (Ebmeier, 2003; Pavan, 1997). This interest manifests itself in the form of spending time in the classroom and dialoging with teachers about their practices and children in their classrooms (Pavan, 1997).

In a study on associations among teacher efficacy, commitment, teacher supervision and organizational factors, Ebmeier (2003) found that principals' interest in the teaching process directly influenced teachers' respect and confidence in their

principals. The level of principals' interest also connected to teachers' satisfaction and commitment. Interestingly, this study demonstrated that the "effects of principal supervision on teacher affective reactions (confidence, commitment, satisfaction) are obtained only through the extent to which teachers believe the principal is interested in and committed to supporting teaching" (p.135). The emphasis here is that principals' interest in teaching by itself is not adequate, but teachers need to believe in the principals' sincerity. This study helps us consider the issue that not only principals' interest but also teachers' beliefs in principals' interest makes a difference.

Similarly, the issue of mutual trust was emphasized by both teacher A and principal A and teacher C and principal C. Both of these principals as well as teachers were aware of each other's understandings about the complexity of children's learning and teaching in kindergarten. In other words, they had confidence in each other's professional knowledge of educating young children. Moreover, there was an agreement among respective participants of case A and C about what constitutes a good kindergarten program. The understanding was that it was defined by its developmental appropriateness. This lended itself to shared understandings between them. There is also the component of respect that plays into this process. The type of respect demonstrated here conforms Ihara's (1988) definition of respect as quoted in Sergiovanni (1992b): "One who has respect from someone's special knowledge and skills will be confident that he or she will act knowledgeably and skillfully" (p.92). Trust combined with respect also meant that teachers A and C were able to translate their professional expertise into practice as being responsive to children, which was recognized by their principals.

Due to the existence of trust and respect of teachers A's and C's knowledge and skills, principals A and C relied on professional and moral authorities in their supervisory associations. They did not depend on a constant monitoring of teachers' performance. Nor did their teachers request such control from their principals to ensure them that they were doing the right thing. As Sergiovanni (1992b) stated, "neither one [professional and moral authorities] is management-or leadership-intensive, and both create a response in teachers that comes from within, rather than being imposed" (p.31).

Just as their principals, teachers A and C operated on the basis of professional and moral authority. Professional authority in this case meant that teachers A and C showed the knowledge of what, when, and how to teach. They were in favor of the philosophy of DAP not because they were required to do so but because they believed in its benefits for the children. This is in support of what Sergiovanni and Starratt, (1998) argue about professional authority which is, "knowledge does not exist apart from teacher and context, and so teachers are always superordinate to the knowledge base" (p.35).

I would add to Sergiovanni's and Starratt's (1998) point that supervisors are also superordinate to the expert knowledge if they do not impose such knowledge on teachers and do not operate solely with the suggestions provided by such knowledge. Both teachers and supervisors ought to recognize that scientific knowledge should be used to inform one's practice, but not to prescribe it.

Further, these teachers responded to moral authority as well. They had "duties, responsibilities, and obligations" that led them to "work diligently, practice in exemplary ways, keep abreast of new ideas, help other members of the learning community be successful..." (Sergiovanni, 1992b, p.50). Moral authority also guides teachers to be

self-governed professionals who operate with shared commitment and be interdependent on other members.

What is observed here are teachers who experience personal authority in the form of a positive climate with the “conditions of work that allow people to meet needs for achievement, challenge, responsibility, autonomy, and esteem.” This establishes a strong source of support for professional and moral authority (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998, p.41).

The components of trust, respect for teachers’ autonomy, and shared understanding establish a strong base for collegial supervisory associations that reject the idea of controlling teachers of young children through standardized teaching. Hence, factors such as performance on standardized tests cannot dictate what they teach and how they teach in their classrooms. For example, in teacher C’s situation, his belief system on educating young children, his self-study of field related literature, and past teaching experiences were strong determining forces in his practice. In addition, principal C strived to protect teacher C’s autonomy against outside forces that attempted to control curriculum and teaching. As an example of this, upper administrators’ and parents’ demand for more academics in kindergarten were becoming stronger. Yet, principal C did not give into this demand. Her understanding of supervisory associations was not based on the principle of control. Teacher C interpreted this pressure, as an intrusion of his professional judgment.

In summary, what is seen here are teachers and principals working toward creating a supportive environment in which both sides fulfill their professional and moral responsibilities in a way that they are both empowered. The empowerment was carried

out through mutual trust and respect of teachers and principals' in respect to each other's knowledge and skills for providing enhancing learning experiences for children, strong commitment to work with children, and dedication to the virtue of caring. In Sergiovanni's and Starratt's (1998) words, these features are considered as "professional virtues" (p.76) that are fundamental in generating collegial supervision. Such virtues can flourish to a greater extent as teachers and principals share ownership of the complex phenomenon of educating young children.

What Set Case A Apart from Case C? The major point that differentiates case A from case C makes it an active-collegial supervisory association is principal A's and teacher A's emphasis on ongoing dialogue when speaking about their supervisory associations. The lack of emphasis on dialogue was the main consideration in determining the supervisory association between teacher C and principal C as an inactive-collegial association.

In active-collegial supervisory associations, dialogue among teachers and between teachers and principals becomes essential since that is how individuals "make explicit professional values and accepted tenets of practice" (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998, p.44). Analogously, this is how principal A and teacher A knew each other's perspective on education and developed shared understandings in regard to. Also, it is through dialogue that teacher A reflected upon her practice.

In principal A's and teacher A's view, DAP was an important part of the kindergarten program with emphases on individual characteristics, needs, and interests. For them, the connecting forces are the values of caring for, acceptance of, and trust in

children and adults. This emphasis on values diversity is seen as an integral part of classroom lives, not as an add-on to the curriculum. Recognizing diversity manifested itself in teacher A's classroom through several venues, such as guiding the children to feel good about themselves for who they are, including their language background into the classroom by utilizing things, such as books in the children's native language, family types, and racial features.

At another level, such a collective endeavor between principal A and teacher A provides teacher A an avenue for reflecting upon her emerging understandings and practice. One measure of such reflection surfaced from both teacher A's and principal A's comments when they talked about their ongoing dialogue on teaching and learning. It is through the nature of such dialogue that a trust relationship was developed as the principal continued to show interest in the teaching practices. For instance, teacher A consistently emphasized how much principal A was involved in what she was doing in her classroom and how comfortable she was to discuss her failures and successes with principal A. Teacher A relied on principal A's ability of perceiving teaching with an eye toward realism and used this process as a way to reflect on them. She was not concerned that principal A would judge her or use her speaking about failures as part of her annual evaluation. Analogously, principal A trusted teacher A's ability to reflect on her own practice. Reflection was carried out through telling stories about teaching and learning. In principal A's eyes, this was a good teaching tool for both herself and teacher A.

As opposed to teacher A and principal A, neither principal C nor teacher C pointed to dialogue between them. Lack of dialogue, however, did not hinder their

shared understandings on the fact that DAP was an essential aspect of their program. However, their understandings of DAP seemed to be limited by the individual appropriateness of learning experiences that did not go beyond the children's abilities and interests. This lack of emphasis on dialogue may be due to the fact that teacher C was an experienced teacher while teacher A was a beginning teacher. Moreover, teacher C had two kindergarten teachers to talk with while teacher A did not have any other kindergarten teachers in the school building. So, it appears that the factors of experience and the existence of a team of kindergarten teachers were the reasons behind principal C's indirect support of dialogue among all kindergarten teachers rather than communicating with teacher C on an ongoing basis. Teacher C also had an opportunity to engage in self-supervision during his self-planned professional development as discussed in chapter six. In other words, teacher C experienced both individuality as in the form of self-governed professional growth and collectivity through collegial associations with other teachers.

The importance of dialogue between teachers and principals is pointed out in the ECE literature in a limited sense (French et al., 1998; Swadener & Miller-Marsh, 1993; West, 2000). Based on their study of principals' view on DAP, French, Lambert, Pena, Jensen, and Roberts, (1998) recommend that teachers and principals should engage in dialogue. West (2000) conducted a multiple case study about the influence of principals on the institutionalization of DAP. She found that teachers considered the principal as a crucial facilitator in both practicing and maintaining DAP in their classrooms. Which in turn meant, that the principal engaged in dialogue with teachers about DAP. Through this, these authors thought that better understandings about teaching strategies, children's learning, and development can be achieved. I agree with their recommendation to a

limited extent, however, it is not enough to just develop understandings and maintain DAP which will be elaborated in the implications of this study.

The importance of a supportive school climate is widely recognized in the field of early childhood education (Skyes, 1994; Wood, 1994). For instance, in describing a public school district's experience in generating more DAP, Wood (1994) calls for principals and assistant principals to examine how they influence teachers' and learners' experiences in the classroom. The idea behind such a recommendation is to encourage all to develop better understandings about teachers and children. All this is influenced by creating a caring community that maintains collegial relationships.

In sum, the primary principles of shared understanding, dialogue, respect, and trust are essential aspects of active collegial supervisory associations. These principles are similar to what Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998) refer to when defining collegiality. According to them, collegiality entails "high levels of collaboration among teachers and between teachers and principal and characterized by mutual respect, shared work values, cooperation, and specific conversations about teaching and learning" (p.200).

(1b) Consistency Between Beliefs and Observed Practices in Collegial Associations

Consistency between teachers' beliefs and behaviors has been the focus of many research studies in the field of ECE. A variety of factors, which are also related to this study, have been shown as reasons behind this consistency: higher levels of education (e.g. BS and/or MS) (Elicker, Huang, & Wen, 2003), type of education background (elementary versus early childhood), more years of teaching experience (McMullen, 1997; McMullen, 1999; McMullen, 2003) continued professional training (Elicker et al.,

2003), and teachers' involvement in their professional development in an active manner (McMullen, 2003).

In this study, teachers A's and C's curriculum beliefs of DAP were consistent with their classroom practices. Coherence between teachers' beliefs and teaching behaviors has been reported in the literature on ECE curriculum. For instance, Stipek and Byler (1997) conducted a research study on the relationship between teachers' beliefs, goals for education and their teaching. They found that teachers who believed in a formal instructional approach recognized the value of standardized tests more than teachers' of child-centered orientation.

Exploring the reasons behind teacher A's and C's matching beliefs and practices reveal both conflicts and supports for the findings of Elicker, Huang, and Wen (2003) and McMullen (2003). Conflicts emerge with respect to teacher A's years of experience and teacher C's educational background. Teacher A was a beginning teacher whose educational beliefs matched with her teaching behaviors which contradicts with McMullen's (1997, 1999) findings. McMullen's (1999) rationale behind such findings is that beginning teachers "may lack resources and coping skills necessary to implement what they have been taught and what they may truly believe are best practices with young children" (p.220). McMullen here draws attention to the influence of the work environment that links us to supervisory associations. As seen in chapter four, and discussed in preceding pages of this chapter, teacher A experienced an active-supervisory association that strengthens her confidence in her knowledge and teaching skills. Her work environment nurtured her for who she was professionally rather than creating anxiety through imposing practices that contradicted with her belief system. Therefore,

teacher A's lack of years of teaching experience was not a factor for carrying out what she believed in.

Teacher C's background in elementary education also is in conflict with McMullen's (2003) finding that teachers with elementary education backgrounds had weaker DAP related beliefs and practices. One way to explain the reason behind this conflict is to consider teacher C's ongoing professional development efforts which is in support of Elicker's, Huang's, and Wen's (2003) findings. Teacher C had immersed himself in a variety of professional development activities, such as readings of NAEYC position statements, participating workshops and conferences both as a presenter and as a listener.

Moreover, teacher C's active engagement in his professional development plan, as discussed in chapter six, is also consistent with McMullen's (2003) finding on the positive relation between involvement in professional development and DAP. As shown in chapter six, teacher C had self-planned, implemented, and evaluated two years of his professional development. Teachers A's and C's higher educational level (BA & M.ED) also coincides with finding that teachers with high educational level had matching beliefs and classroom practices (Elicker et al., 2003).

This study sheds light into an unexamined area in the lives of kindergarten teachers in public schools, namely their supervisory associations with principals. Teachers A and C empowered themselves through being committed to what they believed in. In the same direction, their supervisory associations also empowered them by recognizing their beliefs and by supporting them to operate in accordance with what they believed in. The phrase, teachers should have "power to be and power to do"

(Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998, p.82), illuminates well these two teachers' status in their supervisory associations.

(2) Inactive-Hierarchical Supervisory Associations

Inactive-hierarchical supervisory associations reflect what is commonly seen in public schools. Conventional supervision is known for its emphasis on “instructional relationships in the school on a hierarchical principal-teacher dyad, thus isolating teachers from each other and severely restricting opportunities for educative discourse ” (Reitzug, 1997, p.342). Within this hierarchy, roles of principals and teachers are distinctively stated. The principals' role in this process is to evaluate a subordinate's teaching performance (Nolan, 1997) conveying a sense that the principals are experts and teachers are non-experts (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998).

Case D reflects this sort of traditional supervisory relationship followed closely by case B. The discussion here will primarily focus on case D since it illuminates inactive-hierarchical associations better than case B. Inactive-hierarchical supervisory associations are inactive in the sense that there is virtually no open communication about education of children between teachers and principals. Also, they are hierarchical due to superiority of both bureaucratic and/or technical-rational authorities that exert power over teachers by using external forces, such as rules, regulations or scientific knowledge.

These driving source of bureaucratic and/or technical-rational authorities are external and operate as detached from school context and its participants (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998). Hence, curriculum and teaching are technical endeavors (Miller & Seller, 1985). Teachers are, then, to put others' thoughts into practice obstructing possibilities of

being “intellectuals” who engage in inquiring into their own practices and their surrounding circumstances (Smyth, 1991, p.64). This means that regardless of characteristics of a classroom context and a teacher’s perspective, a fixed notion of supervision, curriculum, and teaching would apply.

The bureaucratic and technical-rational were primary sources of authority that governed the nature of supervision, curriculum, and teaching in case D. Bureaucratic authority manifested itself in case D in the form of educational policies on standardized tests. Such policy was a motivation behind the administrators’ decisions to adapt a new literacy program without including teachers’ into the decision- making process. The annual teacher performance evaluation in case D served as a way to check for quality control of her teaching. The overarching goal here is to see whether teacher D measured up to standards of conducting a guided reading session as prescribed in the literacy program, which brought technical-rational authority into play. Meaning, the literacy program prescribed teacher D’s practice and thus was superior to her professional knowledge and skills.

This suggests that inactive-hierarchical associations allowed socio-cultural forces, such as state wide standardized tests, to control not only administrators’ actions, but also teacher D’ s practices. Teacher D was a subordinate technician to such a uni-directional force that diminished her professional autonomy. This meant that her role was to transmit pre-structured practices of the literacy program to children. Unfortunately, the majority of the learning experiences were narrowed down to a uni-dimension, namely academic skills. She experienced drastic philosophical and pedagogical changes that brought professional paradox to her thoughts and practices.

What teacher D had experienced in practice reflects the prevalent focus of supervision in both theory and practice. For instance, teacher D's experience of superior-subordinate association and its impact on hers, is consistent with the results of a recent analysis of supervision theories textbooks conducted by Reitzug (1997): "principal as expert and superior, the teacher as deficient and voiceless, teaching as fixed technology, and supervision as a discrete intervention" (p.326). Following hierarchical thinking is that any change in schools comes from top-down or from administrators to teachers. This way of thinking, however, does not contribute to either principals or teachers because it marginalizes teachers' knowledge and encumbers principals' responsibilities (Reitzug, 1997).

In summary, the influence of the recent accountability movement in the education arena can be clearly seen in case D in the following ways: emphasis on tests; both state mandated standardized tests and district mandated end-year test in kindergarten, and the expectation for teacher D to teach in accordance with the literacy program. There is currently an emphasis on meeting academic achievement standards and maintaining teacher accountability for conformity to a set of criteria. Waite (2000) asserts that this emphasis bureaucratizes supervision and education. Critics of the accountability movement argue that such movement brings a lot of stress to teachers, while it diminishes their autonomy. As was demonstrated in case D, teachers and the principals as supervisors were disempowered due to this over bureaucratization of their responsibilities (Waite, 2000).

**(2a) Inconsistency Between Beliefs and Observed Classroom Practices in
Inactive-Hierarchical Associations**

Teachers B and D who experienced inactive-hierarchical supervisory associations demonstrated a discrepancy between their beliefs of kindergarten education and observed classroom practices. In the interviews conducted with teachers B and D, they articulated their beliefs of kindergarten education within the framework of DAP. But their practices were clearly highly structured, teacher directed, and uni-dimensional; formal instruction of basic academic skills.

Teacher B had 14 years of experience and teacher D had eight years of experience and a master's degree. Yet, they both had a discrepancy between their beliefs and classroom practices. This is a conflicting finding with what Elicker, Huang, and Wen, (2003) and McMullen (2003) found in their study of developmentally appropriate beliefs and practices (previously reported under 1(b)). Elicker's, Huang's, and Wen's, (2003) study demonstrated that teachers with higher educational level and McMullen (2003) showed that teachers with years of experience had more DAP in their classrooms. The difference in this study is that teachers B's and D's beliefs were close to DAP orientation but their practices were opposite of DAP due to administrative pressure.

Teacher B was unaware of this inconsistency rather she was very comfortable with what she taught and how she taught. Inactive-hierarchical supervisory association did not appear to help teacher B realize the gap between her beliefs and practices. It is unlikely that teacher B would ask such assistance from principal B since principal B's understanding of supervision revolved around evaluating her teaching competence. Nolan and Francis (1992) point out this issue. They state that when supervisors operate

as judges of teachers' competence, teachers are more likely to avoid discussing real worries with their supervisors. In such a context, the supervisor holds all power and hence, unequal power sharing between supervisors and teachers precludes the development of trusting associations (Nolan, 1997).

It also appeared that principal B did not know whether there was congruency between teacher B's beliefs and teaching behaviors. Evidence of this was shown in chapter five. Second, he might not know what teaching behaviors are congruent with developmentally appropriate beliefs. Otherwise, he would have noticed this incongruency if he had engaged in dialogue with teacher B. These two points clearly show the need for active supervisory associations that can lead to the growth of both teacher B and principal B.

In contrast to teacher B, teacher D was aware of the inconsistency between her beliefs and her practices, but she saw administrators as being responsible for it, since administrators imposed upon her a highly academic literacy program that was not aligned with what she believed in. Teacher D simply chose to give up what she believed in and valued as a professional.

In sum, the lack of supervisory associations in case B and the dominating nature of supervision in case D did not allow the creation of a link between teachers' beliefs and their teaching behaviors. Teacher B's situation is illustrative of what Abbey (2000) points out about the vicious nature of bureaucratic supervision. Such supervision fulfills only bureaucratic requirements about teacher evaluation, but it does not produce an atmosphere for collegial dialogue (Abbey, 2000) that can lead teachers, like teacher B, to reflect upon their belief systems and their teaching behaviors. Teacher D's situation,

however, represents a conscious action on the part of administrators to impose what they thought kindergarten education should be. This created a professional paradox leading to a discrepancy between her beliefs and practices.

(3) Supervisory Associations of All Experienced Teachers (B, C, D) Were Inactive

Cross-examination of four cases of this study indicated that supervisory associations of all experienced teachers (B, C, D) were inactive. Their supervisory associations existed only in a formal sense, as in the form of one-time classroom visit for measuring teachers' competency. The inactive aspect of these teachers' supervisory associations differed from each other in the sense that teachers B and D experienced inactive-superior-subordinate supervisory associations, while teacher C had inactive-collegial supervisory associations.

Several crucial questions rise from this situation: Did principals B, C, and D think that teachers B, C, and D did not need an active supervisory association because they had been teaching for years? Did teachers B, C, and D think that they did not need active supervision? Answers to these questions are interwoven.

As was shown in preceding pages, teachers of collegial supervisory associations had consistency between their curriculum beliefs, DAP, and their classroom behaviors. Conversely, there was an inconsistency between teachers' beliefs and practices in superior-subordinate supervisory associations. I previously inferred that teachers in collegial associations both empowered themselves and also were empowered by their supervisory associations to be cognizant of what their thinking was and how they could put their thinking into practice. The fact that teacher C was able to teach in accordance

with his beliefs links us to the collegial aspect of his inactive supervision. Notice that it is still an inactive supervisory association but he and his principal connected on some features of collegiality: shared beliefs, respect, and trust. These characteristics, along with his commitment to his beliefs about education of young children, empowered him to have his professional autonomy, which differentiated teacher C from teacher B's and D's supervisory associations.

On the contrary, teachers of superior-subordinate associations thought of the education of young children in a developmentally appropriate manner but taught in a uni-dimensional way solely consisting of the instruction of academic skills. For example, teacher D's actions were in line with what was required by her administration in expense of what she believed in and leaving her unsure of her teaching abilities and the quality of learning experiences of the children in her classroom. Since she allowed other individuals to have total control of her teaching, she expected these individuals to decide whether she was doing a good job at teaching or not. Hence, she asked more of bureaucratic supervision, which is contrary to what others noted in the supervisory literature. Veteran teachers find bureaucratic supervision demeaning (Brundage, 1992; Holland & Adams, 2002). Teacher D's reason behind requesting more of such supervision appeared to stem from her weakening sense of efficacy in teaching that had to be altered in accordance with the way the literacy program prescribed it. As pointed out by Gilley and Callahan, (2000), environments that disregard teachers' values and beliefs negatively influence their self-esteem.

Besides these consistencies and inconsistencies, teachers of both collegial and superior-subordinate associations responded differently to how their practices had been

influenced by the demands imposed on their practices. An example related to curriculum is helpful here to better demonstrate the difference between teacher C and teacher D. An issue that both teachers C and D voiced concern over was the demand for more instruction of academic skills. In their eyes this socio-cultural force acted as a control mechanism to decide what and how curriculum and teaching should be carried out. However, the difference is that teacher C chose to stand up his beliefs about high quality practices while teacher D was only able to talk about what she believed in but was unable to put her beliefs into action. This type of demand for more rigorous academic curriculum imposes practices that are opposite of what some teachers believe in (Stipek & Byler, 1997), but teachers differently react to such demands. It is a source of disappointment for some kindergarten teachers (Wortham, 1995) while for others it becomes simply a matter of following what is imposed upon them as it was seen in teachers C's and D's reaction.

Also, I think that the teachers' values about education and their commitment are important in the way teachers work around or respond to administrative pressures for a more uni-dimensionally oriented curriculum. If they have less commitment in their own beliefs and values on education, they would give in to expectations of bureaucratic authorities, which transform teaching into a technical notion. On the other hand, if they have a strong commitment, they would not abolish their personal and professional opinion, rather they would be able to use novel ways to incorporate institutional expectations into their practice.

Another fact to be considered is whether gender makes a difference in how teachers react to the demands for more formal instruction of basic skills that are imposed

upon them by administrators or parents. As stated at the beginning of chapters six and seven, teacher C is male with a female principal and teacher D is female with a male principal. Is it possible that teacher C was able to take a stance to prevent outside sources to control his teaching because he is male? Is it possible that teacher D allowed her teaching to be controlled by an administrative body because she is female and the principal is a male?

As discussed throughout this chapter, teachers and principals of collegial supervisory associations responded to demands of educational policy on state wide standardized tests without sacrificing their professional autonomy. Rather, they rejected the idea of adapting teaching practices that are contradictory with their own beliefs and pedagogical understandings. So, it is safe to say or conclude that it matters whether teachers experience inactive-hierarchical or inactive-collegial supervisory associations.

Implications for Supervisory Associations

In this study, collegial supervisory associations seem to generate environments in which teachers and principals primarily operate from the sources of professional and moral authorities. Teachers and principals see each other as equals who have shared understandings that teaching and learning should be consistent with DAP in kindergarten classrooms. The emphasis is placed on individual and developmental appropriateness of learning experiences. It is surprising to see, however, limited and/or lack of emphasis given to developing socio-cultural and familial factors in the participants of this study, (with the exception of teacher A). Socio-cultural and familial factors, which is the third aspect of the revised edition of DAP, is discussed in the literature review on early

childhood curriculum as an essential aspect of curriculum. However, it seemed that most of the teachers and principals of this study did not share the importance of such a perspective.

Several issues and/or concerns surfaced about the issue of diversity across the four cases of this study. The first one is that diversity was considered as an add on curriculum. When talking about diversity, educators seemed to focus only on “children who are coming from another country.” It is common to see educators talk about being sensitive and responsive to diversity only in terms of superficial aspects of a culture, such as food and clothing. This is a limited way of thinking about diversity since diversity has a variety of aspects that are not necessarily defined by geographic location. Each individual child brings all of these unique aspects of diversity with themselves to the classroom such as their family types, family routines, gender, physical attributes, ability, community surrounding their families along with the commonly upon focused aspects of diversity such as culture and linguistics (Derman-Sparks & ABC Task Force, 1989).

Also, some teachers have anxiety and concern about having a diversity perspective in kindergarten. They think that it can produce negative consequences as some participants of this study pointed out. For instance, teacher C deemed that kindergartners do not recognize that some of them are coming from a different race, so pointing out race may perpetuate racism in children in his opinion. It is essential that teachers overcome their misconceptions of diversity and improve their knowledge and practices by developing understandings about a much broader early childhood curriculum both in conceptualization and in practice. Diversity related experiences are part of basic

education. It shouldn't be perceived, as something that needs to be done or seen as adequate to do a separate unit to celebrate a certain ethnic group.

Teachers of this study especially noted: time, lack of resources, pressure for including more academic skills into the curriculum, as reasons behind lack of emphasis on socio-cultural and familial factors. It seems that teachers had not done a philosophical analysis between diversity and curriculum requirements. This suggests that there is most certainly a need for more conscious effort to help both teachers and principals to develop understandings for more inclusive and responsive practices.

It is because of this lack of attention to more inclusive and responsive ECE and supervision of ECE teachers, the emphasis on developing and maintaining understandings about DAP is not enough by itself, it needs to be strengthened by internalizing a critical stance towards these understandings. For this to be facilitated, there is a need for different kind of supervisory associations between teachers and supervisors. Influenced by Garman (1982) and Pohland and Cross (1982), Smyth (1997), and Waite (2000), I suggest more organic teacher-supervisory associations.

Organic teacher-supervisory associations have unique characteristics. From this perspective, supervision is part of the phenomenon of teaching and learning in which they are all in an egalitarian position as opposed to hierarchically structured endeavors. Then, supervision becomes a "working relationship among educators that emerges out of and is defined by specifics of their work situations" (Holland & Obermiller, 2000, p.213). The phenomenon of supervision becomes a negotiated process. Meaning, both teachers and supervisors are in an equal stance and in a position to be learners and/or teachers (Garman, 1982; Waite, 2000). Their shared understandings on education thread through

their interdependence as well as independence that serves well for generating more enhanced learning experiences for children. Conceived this way, the well-known process of clinical supervision including pre-conference, observation, and post-conference, take place not as an isolated event, but as connected aspect of teaching (Holland & Obermiller, 2000).

Pohland and Cross, (1982) draw attention to the influence of perceptions related to curriculum and supervision on organic teacher-supervisory relationships in these words: "... organizational role definitions that imply that teachers "do" curriculum while supervision is something "done to" them are unlikely to facilitate the development of "organic" teacher/supervisor relationships (p.151).

The power of dialogue with a critical stance is essential in organic teacher-supervisor associations since it helps generate more responsive and inclusive practices and shared understandings between principals and teachers about young children's education. Noted in the literature in supervision is the fact that supervisors' notion of effective teaching is more powerful than teachers, which is perpetuated with the dominance of superior-subordinate supervisory associations (Reitzug, 1997).

Teachers and principals should take this one-step further by critically reflecting on their own perceptions and understandings of what good practices entail. So, it is not just any dialogue but the one that nurtures inquires into taken-for-granted beliefs and practices. One possible way to conceive and put critical dialogue stance into practice is for teachers and supervisors to examine their own perspectives on kindergarten education. Waite (2000) considers both teachers' and supervisors' reflection on their beliefs and presumptions as a foundation on which to build supervisory practices. A

possible starting point would be for teachers to examine their own beliefs and perspectives on different aspects of diversity. This dialogue might be carried out with a supervisor and/or other teachers. Thus, the guiding principle here is a critically oriented dialogue that encourages, facilitates and supports teachers' self or collective reflection. Borrowing principal A's terminology "telling stories of one's experience", can play an essential role in examining beliefs and perspectives. A complementary skill to story telling is to use Waite's (1995) technique of initiating dialogue after witnessing a teaching event. For example, a supervisor who sees a teacher doing an activity on different shades of skin color, may share with the teacher what she observed and express her interest to learn more about ways of incorporating and extending such activities. This, of course, is an ongoing endeavor that aims to build better understanding about children and teaching.

The question is: how do these examined beliefs and thought provoking dialogues manifest itself in practice? Conducting an action research can strengthen this dialogue-oriented process since it entails studying one's own practice to generate better understandings and working on areas of concern (Swadener & Miller-Marsh, 1993). Action research has been discussed widely in the literature on supervision. For instance, Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon, (1998) consider action research as one of the supervisory tasks that aims to better instruction.

More importantly, the need for using action research in an early childhood classroom has been emphasized in connection with anti-bias curriculum. For instance, Swadener, a college professor, and Miller-Marsh (1993), a kindergarten teacher engaged in an action research with a focus on anti-bias curriculum. Drawing from their

experience, they encouraged not only teachers, but also supervisors, and administrators to recognize the importance of action research. Their rationale is simple: “Observing the interactions and listening to the verbal exchanges that take place between children is a natural role of the early childhood teacher... Documenting and sharing this information with other administrators, researchers, and future teachers encourages professional dialogue” (p.26)

Swadener’s and Miller-Marsh’s (1993) action research showed the necessity of dialogue and role alterations between teachers and principals. They discussed the support of the principal as an essential component when carrying out anti-bias curriculum. For them, the principal’s support meant that she was open to converse about thoughts and make alterations in policy. Role alterations between teachers and principals took place when Miller-Marsh assisted her principal in recognizing the understanding level of her children about anti-bias related issues. Eventually, such initiatives of this teacher led the principal to be an advocate of the anti-bias approach school wide. This study is an excellent example of the fact that teachers need to take responsibility to educate their principals about their own perspectives.

Either as a follow up to action research or as a focus of action research, consideration should be given to putting newly emerging ideas into practice. For instance, as a way to address the issue of “aspects of diversity or socio-cultural factors,” teachers may focus on reading the related literature and work toward developing their own ideas to put such understandings into practice. The issue of diversity is what is underemphasized in the field in general and in particular in the participants of this study.

The focus here does not have to be diversity; rather it can focus on any other

sources that influence kindergarten curriculum and teaching. It is important to note that these recommendations are not on top of what teachers are expected to do as part of their responsibilities. They can be a collaborative activity carried out with other teachers or principals and as a focus for teachers' professional development.

A qualitative study conducted by Jacobson (2000) exemplifies an initiative toward fostering self and collective-reflection in administrators and teachers through dialogue. A group of three administrators and seven early childhood teachers participate in a "support-supervision group" to examine their perception of bias and classroom behavior. This study draws attention to the importance of providing support for self-reflection about bias and self-awareness both for administrators and teachers. In the center of organic teacher-supervisory associations is core values that govern all this process. Table 5 summarizes these core values.

Table 5. Core Features of Organic Teacher-Supervisory Associations**Dialogue**

- Learning about each other's beliefs and values
- Developing shared beliefs and values
- Reflections on and upon operationalizing beliefs and values
- Critical examination of concerns, problems, and issues specific to the classroom under consideration

Commitment

- Internally governed motivation to improve one's knowledge and skills
- Internally governed motivation to contribute supervisory associations and teaching

Reciprocal respect

- Respect for each other's perspective on issues, problems, and concerns
- Respect for one's areas of improvement and strength
- Respect to the very nature of supervisory associations

Flexibility

- Being open to approach conceptual understandings and operational actions from a different light as needs, interests, and situations change in both teaching and supervision
- Being open to novel avenues to exhibit one's professional growth plan and teaching competency (e.g. portfolios including self-plan of growth, self-report of progress and areas of concern)

These core values become the driving force of supervision but by no means do they impose a constant monitoring type of supervision. Supervision resulting from such values may come alive among teachers, not necessarily between a teacher and principal. Such supervision is collegial, critical-dialogue-driven, and embedded in the daily lives of teachers.

Organic teacher-supervisory associations are not an easy task for either teachers or for principals. There are a variety of reasons behind this difficulty. First, as Waite (1997) points out and this study shows, a majority of teachers' and administrators' understandings of supervision are confined to annual teacher competency evaluations.

This type of conception of supervision serves to the bureaucratic purposes but not to the teachers' growth. Waite goes on to say that teachers cannot gain anything from supervision that includes evaluation. Also, supervision should not be conceived as something done to teachers because this fortifies the notion that teachers are entities with imperfections that need to be fixed (Reitzug, 1997), and principals are experts who can provide solutions to these so-called imperfections.

The second difficulty in developing organic teacher-supervisory association is that supervisors are usually seen as sole responsible agents for the type of supervision and/or supervisory associations. Teachers as well supervisors are responsible for what they experience or do not experience with respect to supervision (Waite, 2000). Although supervisors are formally given the responsibility of supervision, it should not prevent teachers from seizing their place in supervision.

Related to this argument is the idea that not only teachers but also supervisors can grow as a result of supervisory experiences. Supervision should be constructed in a bi-directional manner as seen in this study. This means that both teachers and supervisor can be in the position of learners and/or mentors depending on the supervisory situation under consideration. According to Waite's (2000), role alterations between supervisors and teachers reflect the negotiated nature of supervision. This way, supervision may contribute to the growth of all individuals involved not just teachers and principals. Such bi-directional and growth oriented supervision cannot take place in super-subordinate supervisory associations. A supervision based on a critical dialogue stance that is carried out through collegial associations can serve well for such a purpose.

The third difficulty of generating organic teacher-supervisory associations stems from the fact that supervision of teachers has usually served to sustain existing teaching practices rather than raising questions about it (Smyth, 1997). The type of questions encouraged here transcends the technical competence of teaching. Rather it concentrates on a variety of contextual factors that influence teaching, such as roles and policies (Smyth, 1991). Without developing a habit of critical reflection, teaching practices and assumptions about them would remain as it is (Smyth, 1997).

Some trends, like the accountability movement fortifies such status quo through bureaucratization of teaching and supervision that usually imposes uni-dimensional practices in kindergarten classrooms. One way to respond to opposing views of administrators is that teachers should strongly work toward articulating their perspective. This way they can help others understand that responding to the demands of the accountability movement does not necessarily mean to standardize teaching. They should develop ways to help others, such as principals and parents, see how they can meet standards within their unique ways of teaching. Actually, this is where the dialogue as a component of collegial supervision comes into play as a way to educate upper administrators, parents, principals, and/or colleagues about more responsive early childhood practices. For instance, portfolios displaying children's learning experiences can be a big facilitator of such dialogue.

An issue that might be indicated as a reason behind absence of effort for developing understandings through dialogue is lack of time. Also, as shown in the literature review of this study, supervisors in general do not spend much time on supervision of teachers. Waite (1995) reminds us of the fact that educators are usually

after quick fixes of problems and concerns. Working to develop understandings about others' perspective seems to be a challenge, since it is about process. It consists of each party's conscious effort to make sense of how the other person thinks and operates and how children are impacted by these actions.

As seen in this study, principals A and C who operated with the notion of collegial supervisory associations handled the problem of lack of time and attention for supervision in a way that turned out to be supportive of teachers. Since principal A saw supervision in relation to the daily life of teaching and was available on an ongoing basis whether during the school time or after school, lack of time was not an issue for her. Principal C resolved time issues through supporting teamwork among kindergarten teachers even if she was not present all the time. The important point here is that when educators are committed to their profession they can always come up with alternatives that can eliminate the negative impact of forces such as lack of time.

Concluding Statements

Different supervisory associations rely on different sources of authorities that influence teachers' professional lives with respect to curriculum and teaching. The prevalence of professional and moral authorities in both active and inactive collegial supervisory associations establishes a circle of trust, respect, and shared understandings. This comes alive with the efforts of both teachers and principals. Teachers of collegial associations are conscious of what they believe in and how they put those beliefs into practice. Such associations nurture the teachers' commitment to these beliefs rather than oppressing them. However, the field of ECE can utilize more from supervisory

associations, like active-collegial, and needs to progress further with internalizing critical dialogue into its work. This way more inclusive and responsive early childhood experiences can flourish.

Conversely, superior-subordinate supervisory associations impose the contents of bureaucratic and technical sources of authorities upon teachers. Such authorities pass on requirements for teaching practices that overlook the unique features of teachers and children. The dependence on external control of teachers in these supervisory associations is evidenced through several interrelated indicators; ignorance of communication about teaching and learning inability to share control, existence of hierarchical control, and silencing teachers. An outcome of this type of supervisory association is to foster inconsistencies between the teachers' own thoughts and actions. The resulting learning experiences for children are uni-dimensional, primarily revolving around formal instruction of academic skills. It especially marginalizes the teachers' professionalism and fails to recognize the complexity of young children.

Considering the impact of supervisory associations on teachers is not to say that teachers teach in particular ways just because of what they experience or do not experience in terms of supervisory associations. But it does mean that teachers' commitment to their own beliefs, values, and practices are impacted by such associations.

Numerous research studies have pointed out supportive administrators as a key component when adapting and maintaining DAP (Jones, Burts, & Buchanan, 2000; Vander Wilt & Monroe, 1998, West, 2000). However, administration can be both a source of support and also a source of roadblock for implementing DAP (Jones, Burts, & Buchanan, 2000). These collegial supervisory associations were a source of support in

cases A and C despite teacher A's lack of teaching experience and teacher C's elementary education background. However, superior-subordinate supervisory association was a barrier that blocked teacher D to carry out her ideal and ideas in her classroom despite her high educational level, both early childhood and elementary education level, and years of teaching experience.

In the supervisory literature, there is both support and criticism with respect to the appropriateness of collegial supervisory associations in schools. Some educators deem collegial relationships as a fundamental component of education not only for teachers, but also, children and principals (Pavan, 1997). Others deem that collegial supervisory associations do not serve to affect teacher's daily lives in particular and change education in general. The argument is that such associations are not feasible due to teachers' over hectic lives in the classroom. On the one hand, teachers should be concerned with classroom management and be fully committed to making sure each child is learning. On the other hand, supervisors possess such skills that place them on a different level to perfectionate teachers' instruction (Harris, 1997).

The message conveyed in Harris's (1997) argument is that teachers are not competent enough to be on the same level with their supervisors. Their job is to follow the supervisors' opinion and leave the rest to their supervisors since they possess professional skills. Such hierarchy based supervisory relationships are exactly what has been leading teachers to be marginalized in their profession. The notion of teachers' having a voice for their own practices threatens some educators. It weakens the power that attempts to rationalize the prevalence of bureaucratic authority in schools.

While the participants' professional characteristics are primary factors of their supervisory associations, there are secondary factors that influence the interpretation of this study's results. One of these factors relates to the systemic feature of the professional development of teachers (case C). Another factor is about the gender issue across the cases. Both systemic features and the issue of gender are relevant to the phenomenon of supervision since they help illuminate the nature of supervisory associations.

In case C, professional development of teachers is arranged based on a three-year cycle. The first two years of it is planned, implemented, and evaluated by teachers. The third year of the cycle is used to conduct teacher evaluation through a one-time classroom observation of teaching. This type of systemic feature has an influence on the supervisory associations because it changes dynamics of how teachers and supervisors interact. For instance, when I analyzed the Supervisory Questionnaire, the results indicated that principal C held an eclectic towards technical notion of supervision. However, when I started to conduct interviews with her, I found out that she did not fit this previous notion of supervision. Rather, she carried features of collegial supervision. In a way, this systemic feature helps develop a collegueship between principal C and teacher C during the first two-year of the professional development cycle instead of an atmosphere of evaluator and evaluatee.

The issue of the participants' gender across the cases also raises a question about gender's influence on the nature of supervisory associations. The prevalence of males being in administrative positions and females being in teaching positions and of hierarchical principal-teacher associations (Reitzug, 1997; Apple, 1986) have been

pointed out in the literature on public schooling system. Smyth (1991) sees a link between the female dominated teaching profession and the prevalent use of superior-subordinate oriented nature of supervision. More interestingly, he says that such hierarchy in schools is covered up with the movements of accountability and supervisory effectiveness.

The issue raised in this study points out the difference between the nature of female and male principals' supervisory associations. To reiterate, in this study, participants of cases A and C experienced collegial supervisory associations in which principals A and C were female. Cases B and D had hierarchy-driven supervisory associations and principals B and D were males. This difference found in the supervisory associations of female and male principals suggests that principals' gender has an influence on the supervisory associations.

Also, how teachers of different gender respond to the demands coming from these supervisory associations. In this study, female (teacher D) and male (teacher C) teachers responded differently to the demands for more formal instruction of basic skills that are imposed upon them by principals, superintendents or parents. While teacher C took a stance to prevent outside sources, parents and upper administration, to control his teaching, teacher D allowed her teaching to be controlled by the administrative body.

Neither teachers' professional lives nor the complexity and richness of children's nature can be realized when teachers are treated as and act like subordinates to overly structured, prescribed, and uni-dimensional practices. More consideration has to be given to the issue of supervision of kindergarten teachers, specifically developing and maintaining organic teacher-supervisory associations. As professionals, we have a

tremendous responsibility to generate and foster supervisory associations that will maintain the unique nature of early childhood education within the public school system while contributing efforts of enhancement.

Limitations of the Study

There are several limitations of this study. The first limitation of the study is related to the issue of having principals and kindergarten teachers who agree to participate in the study. Not all principals and teachers whom the researcher thought to be ideal participants for this study agreed to participate. Since the study asked both principals' and teachers' participation and also, there were three interviews with each participants, convincing individuals to be part of the study presented some difficulties. One of the reasons for these difficulties was due to their time constraints. Another difficulty stemmed from the fact that some teachers agreed to stay after the school day is over, some did not prefer to do that. Thus, the researcher conducted interviews before the school day started or did phone interviews, which might have affected their responses.

Another limitation may come from the fact that the researcher has examined the results of the "Knowledge Preferences Questionnaire" before conducting the interviews and classroom observations. Knowing the results of this questionnaire for each participant may have impacted her classroom observations. For instance, due to a high multidimensional score, the researcher may have had high expectations about their practices and/or focus on what she thinks positive aspects of the teachers' teaching. It might be better if someone else other than the researcher had observed the four kindergarten classrooms.

Lastly, there was no opportunity to directly observe supervisory associations between principals and teachers. Thus, there was no way of illuminating whether their stated supervisory associations manifest itself in their practices. The “interviews” guarantees their supervisory practices.

Strengths of the Study

There are several strengths of this study. Kindergartens preserve their place within the public school system, but little is done to shed more light into this systems’ influence on teachers’ and curriculum. This study strived for illuminating a neglected zone, supervisory associations between kindergarten teachers and principals, that has a noticeable impact on teachers’ professional lives.

Second, there were multiple cases of study that allowed the researcher to investigate different types of supervisory associations. Interestingly, there was a consistency between type of supervisory associations and type of philosophy and practices of teaching kindergarten: Collegial associations had DAP and super-subordinate associations had academically oriented curriculum. Each case was unique due to their contextual characteristics and taught the researcher.

Third, this study examined both teachers’ and principals’ perceptions on curriculum and supervision. This way, a more complete understanding of their perception was obtained. Also, multiple numbers of interviews conducted with both teachers and principals allowed the researcher to ask any emerging questions in between interviews.

Suggestions for Further Research

Further research that is designed to specifically illuminate the live supervisory associations of teachers and principals is essential. This way we can better understand what teachers experience in their actual supervisory experiences and possible impacts of such experiences on their practices. There are abundant researches on how teachers do not practice what they believe in. Such research usually focuses on teacher traits, such as educational background or experience. A research perspective that explores the supervisory component can contribute to efforts of nurturing teachers' professional growth and in turn ideally enrich children's early learning experiences.

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APPENDIX A**INFORMED CONSENT FORM**

My name is Asiye Ivrendi. I am a doctoral student in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at The Pennsylvania State University with an interest in early childhood curriculum and instruction. My study aims to explore principals' beliefs/knowledge and their teachers' beliefs/knowledge and use of certain teaching practices in a multicultural society. Principals' role in facilitating the use of teaching practices in kindergarten classrooms is also examined.

If you would like to volunteer to participate in this study, you will be interviewed and your kindergarten classroom will be observed. Observations and interviews will be used for generating a more in-depth view of teaching practices and how principals affect the use of these practices in kindergarten classrooms. You will be interviewed three times and each one of the interviews may take forty-five minutes to one hour of your time. With your permission, the interviews will be audio-taped and the tapes will be accessed only by the researcher. They will be stored in a secure locked storage case and destroyed after completing the writing of the dissertation. Each classroom will be observed three times for three to four hours.

Your participation to this study is crucial in order to generate knowledge about teaching practices and to foster better early education of young children. Confidentiality of your responses to these observations and your involvement to the interviews are guaranteed. Your names or your school's name will not be revealed in reporting or discussing the results of this study.

Your participation to this study is voluntary, and you may withdraw your participation at any time. You may decline to answer any specific questions. If you agree to participate to this study please sign and date this form.

Signature of the participant _____ Date _____

I will be available anytime either by phone or by e-mail if you have any questions regarding this study.

Asiye Ivrendi: Ph.D. candidate and researcher Telephone Number: (814) 862-2099

510 Tulip Road/Eastview Terrace/ State College, PA 16801 E-mail: axb267@psu.edu

Signature of the researcher _____ Date _____

You will receive a copy of the Informed Consent Form for your records.

APPENDIX B**LETTERS TO THE PARTICIPANTS**

Department of Curriculum and Instruction
(814) 865-1500
The Pennsylvania State University
<http://www.ed.psu.edu/ci/>
Chambers Building
University Park, PA 16802-3205

November 17,2000

Dear Principal:

My name is Asiye Ivrendi. I am a doctoral student in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at The Pennsylvania State University with an interest in early childhood curriculum and instruction. My dissertation research is about views on developmentally appropriate practices in kindergartens and how principals and kindergarten teachers work together. I am writing to ask you and two of your kindergarten teachers to consider completing the enclosed questionnaires. The questionnaires will be used to learn more about principals' and kindergarten teachers' knowledge of developmentally appropriate practices and principals' supervisory styles.

The questionnaires that need to be completed by you are "Principal Questionnaire" and the "Questionnaire for Supervisory Practices." Please give the "Teacher Questionnaire" to two kindergarten teachers that you feel are the most likely to cooperate-(informed consent forms are included). If you work with more than two teachers who would like to participate, please notify me so that I can send you additional forms (my e-mail is axb267@psu.edu). If you work with one kindergarten teacher, please give one set of materials to this teacher and mail back the extra one with your completed forms. Teachers are asked to mail their forms separately.

A self-addressed and stamped envelope is available for you to return the questionnaires. I am also enclosing duplicate copies of separate informed consent forms. Please sign both of these forms. Keep one of these informed consent forms for your records and return the other one with the questionnaires. Parallel instructions and materials are given to each of your teachers in the envelope with their questionnaires.

At no time and under no circumstances will the knowledge of your identity, your school, the teachers, and responses to the questionnaires, be shared with any other person inside or outside your school. The information is data for research purposes only. Please contact either me or my advisor (Professor James Johnson at jej4@psu.edu) if you have any concerns or questions.

Your participation is greatly appreciated and very important to me. Please know that I am very willing and eager to share the results of my dissertation with you and your staff upon completion of the study. In return for your help, I will send a bibliography on readings about the topic of developmentally appropriate practices and supervision in early childhood education.

Thank you for your cooperation and assistance in completing the final requirements for my doctorate program in the College of Education at The Pennsylvania State University.

Sincerely

Asiye Ivrendi

Doctoral Candidate

Enclosures

Department of Curriculum and Instruction
The Pennsylvania State University
Chambers Building
University Park, PA 16802-3205
(814) 865-1500
<http://www.ed.psu.edu/ci/>

November 17, 2000

Dear Teacher:

My name is Asiye Ivrendi. I am a doctoral student in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at The Pennsylvania State University with an interest in early childhood curriculum and instruction. I would appreciate your help with my research about the use of developmentally appropriate practices and how principals and teachers work together.

Enclosed you will find a "Teacher Questionnaire" that will be used to learn more about your views on developmentally appropriate practices. A self-addressed and stamped envelope is available for you to return the completed questionnaire. Duplicate copies of separate informed consent forms are also enclosed. Please sign both of the consent forms. Keep one of them for your records and return the other one with the questionnaire.

Your confidentiality is guaranteed. At no time and under no circumstances will the knowledge of your identity, your school and your responses to the questionnaire be shared with any individual inside or outside your school. Your responses will be combined in group analysis of data.

Your participation is greatly appreciated and very important to me. Please know that I will share the results of my dissertation with you upon completion of the study. In return for your help, I will send a bibliography about the topic of developmentally appropriate practices in early childhood education.

Thank you for your cooperation and assistance in completing the final requirements for my doctoral program in the College of Education at The Pennsylvania State University.

Sincerely,

Asiye Ivrendi
Doctoral Candidate
Enclosures

APPENDIX C

THE PRELIMINARY STUDY AND ANALYSIS

A survey study was done to obtain data from a representative sample of teachers and principals. The survey was preliminary to the comparative case studies, which would require four principals and four kindergarten teachers, that worked with them respectively, to commit to the study. In the preliminary survey study, two questionnaires ("Knowledge Questionnaire" and "Supervisory Practices Questionnaire") were mailed to the stratified and purposefully chosen elementary school principals and their kindergarten teachers. The first questionnaire, the "Knowledge Questionnaire," was used to measure teachers' and principals' preferences regarding the type of knowledge that they think is important in a kindergarten curriculum. The principals' Knowledge Questionnaire had only the knowledge part, while the teachers' Knowledge Questionnaire also included a part on instructional activities. The "Supervisory Practices Questionnaire," the second questionnaire, was used for measuring principals' supervisory practices.

The "Knowledge Questionnaire" incorporates a questionnaire developed by Charlesworth, Hart, Burts, Mosley, and Fleege, (1993) in addition to having five other sections:

- ◆ demographic information included educational background, certification, years of experience, and class size;
- ◆ degree of influence indicated -self, other teachers, the principal, parents, the local school system, and the state;
- ◆ staff development activities;
- ◆ the "Teacher Knowledge Scale" (TKS);
- ◆ the "Instructional Activities Scale".

For the analysis of this preliminary survey study, several scores were computed. The information on demographics was presented in chapter three of this study. The analysis of the section on the degree of influence was computed using the average rank for the influence of different sources on planning and teaching. The mean scores for the degree of influence were computed by using reversed scoring. Higher scores indicated greater importance. The mean scores consisted of the average of the six sources of influences: parents, school system, principals, teachers-self, state regulations, and other teachers.

The mean scores on staff development activities were calculated for principals and teachers. The staff development activities' mean scores stemmed from six categories: training, (which had six subcategories) individual guided activity, observation, curriculum development, inquiry, and professional development schools.

Mean and standard deviation scores on knowledge of developmentally appropriate practices (DAP) were computed for principals and teachers for the "Teacher Knowledge Scale" (TKS) with results used to help identify principals with high DAP-oriented knowledge and teachers with more or with less DAP-oriented activities in their classrooms. Also, teachers' mean and standard deviation scores and Instructional Activities Scale (IAS) were calculated. The mean scores included the average of the subcategories under knowledge and instructional activities. The principals' and the teachers' in the qualitative part of this study were compared with the total mean score of all principals.

Degree of Influence

Table C.1 shows principals' average rank for the degree of influence on teachers' planning and teaching. The principals of the purposeful subdivision sample considered themselves and teachers as the most influential on curriculum planning and teaching as compared to principals in purposeful and stratified sampling. Also, they deemed state regulations as having the least impact on planning and teaching compared to the participants of the other two samplings.

Table C.1 Principals' Average Rank for the Degree of Influence on Teachers' Planning and Teaching

Sources	Sample Types		
	Stratified (N=12)	Purposeful (N=7)	Purposeful Subdivision (N=4)
Parents	2.1	2.0	1.5
Teachers	3.8	3.6	5.5
School System	4.1	3.0	3.0
Superintendent	2.3	3.1	2.5
Principal(self)	2.8	4.4	4.5
State Regulations	5.6	4.9	4.0

Note: Higher scores indicate greater influence

Table C.2 shows teachers' average rank for the degree of influence on planning and teaching. The biggest difference in average rank for the influence of different sources on planning and teaching is principals across three samples. The teachers in the purposeful subdivision sample considered the principals as being the most influential force (Mean=4.5) followed by the teachers in the stratified sample (Mean=3.5). Among the three samples, the teachers in the purposeful sample perceived principals as being less influential (Mean=3.0) compared to the teachers in the previous two types of samples.

Teachers in all three types of samples viewed themselves as the strongest influence while they deemed parents as the weakest influence on their planning and teaching.

Table C.2 Teachers' Average Rank for the Degree of Influence on Planning and Teaching

Sources	Sample Types		
	Stratified (N=28)	Purposeful (N=15)	Purposeful Subdivision (N=4)
Parents	2.5	2.1	2.0
School System	4.2	4.3	4.0
Principals	3.5	3.0	4.5
Teacher (self)	5.2	5.0	4.8
State Regulations	3.2	3.6	3.5
Other Teachers	2.4	3.1	2.3

Note: Higher scores indicate greater influence

Staff Development Activities

Table C.3 shows principals' frequencies on staff development activities across the samples. Almost all principals in all three types of samples reported that they offered training. Among the components of training, workshops were widely made available while portfolios were rarely offered across the samples. The principals in the purposeful and purposeful subdivision samples reported more use of curriculum development and inquiry than did the principals in the stratified sample.

Table C.3 Principals' Frequencies on Staff Development Activities Across the Samples

Staff Development Activities	Sample Types		
	Stratified (N=12)	Purposeful (N=7)	Purposeful Subdivision (N=4)
1.Training	11(91)	6(85)	4(100)
(a)Workshop	11(91)	6(85)	4(100)
(b)Onsite Visit by Trainer	7(58)	5(71)	3(75)
(c)Visiting DAP Classroom	5(41)	4(57)	2(50)
(d)Portfolio/Journal	2(16)	1(14)	0
(e)Peer-coaching	6(50)	2(28)	2(50)
2.Individually-guided	7(58)	3(42)	4(100)
3.Observation	9(75)	6(85)	4(100)
4.Curriculum Development	7(58)	6(85)	4(100)
5.Inquiry	6(50)	4(57)	3(75)
6.Professional Development School	3(25)	2(28)	2(50)

Note: Scores in parentheses indicate percent of principals in each sample group reporting that they offered the activities.

Table C.4 shows teachers' frequencies on staff development activities across the samples. The staff development activities that were widely reported by all teachers were: curriculum development, training, and observation. While workshops were the most commonly reported component of training, portfolios were the least commonly reported. Professional development schools as a staff development activity was seldom utilized by all teachers.

Table C.4 Teachers' Frequencies on Staff Development Activities Across the Samples

Staff Development Activities	Sample Types		
	Stratified (N=28)	Purposeful (N=15)	Purposeful Subdivision (N=4)
Training	18(64)	8(53)	4(100)
Workshop	22(78)	10(66)	4(100)
Onsite Visit by Trainer	10(35)	4(26)	3(75)
Visiting DAP Classroom	12(42)	6(40)	1(25)
Portfolio/Journal	2(7)	2(13)	0
Peer-coaching	19(67)	8(53)	1(25)
Individually-guided	11(39)	7(46)	2(50)
Observation	19(67)	8(53)	3(75)
Curriculum Development	23(82)	11(73)	3(75)
Inquiry	15(53)	8(53)	2(50)
Professional Development School	10(35)	5(33)	0

Note: Scores in parentheses indicate percent of principals in each sample group reporting that they offered the activities.

Principal and Teacher Knowledge Scale

Principals

Principals (N=14) who were chosen through stratified sampling procedures had a mean score of 4.44 on knowledge of DAP with a standard deviation of .41. Their mean score related to DIP knowledge was 1.90 with standard deviation of .43. The total mean score for DAP knowledge of purposefully chosen principals (N=8) was 4.58 with a standard deviation of .30. Their mean DIP knowledge score was 1.72 with a standard deviation of .51. The four principals in the purposeful subdivision sample had a mean score of 4.31 on DAP knowledge with a standard deviation of .55. Their DIP knowledge mean score was 1.56 with a standard deviation of .49.

Comparing purposeful subdivision sample (principals A's, B's, C's, and D's) total mean score on the knowledge questionnaire with the mean score of purposefully chosen principals (N=7):

The group mean on DAP-oriented knowledge for principals (N=8) who were chosen purposefully was 4.58 with a standard deviation of .30. This mean score and standard deviation score were compared with the mean and standard deviation scores of the purposefully subdivision sample. Principals' A (4.69) and C (4.88) were above the group mean of purposefully chosen principals while the mean scores of principals B (3.73) and D (3.96) were below this group mean on DAP oriented knowledge. This indicates that principal A and C seemed to possess more knowledge that is DAP oriented than the group average, while principal B and D seemed to have less knowledge related to DAP compared to the group average.

Principals in the purposeful sample (N=8) had a mean score of 1.72 on DIP oriented knowledge with a standard deviation score of .51. Principals' A (1.25), B (1.15) and C (1.60) scores were below while principal D's (2.25) scores were above the purposefully chosen group's mean. This indicates that principals A, B, and C seemed to possess less knowledge of DIP than the average score in the purposeful sample. Principal D had more of this type of knowledge than the group average.

The results of ANOVA indicated that there was not any statistically significant differences among three different samples (stratified, purposeful, and purposeful subdivision sample) on principals' knowledge on DAP ($F=.640$, $df = 2$, $p > .05$) and DIP ($F=.994$, $df = 2$, $p > .05$).

Teachers

Teachers (N=28) who were chosen through stratified sampling procedures had a mean score of 4.50 on knowledge of DAP with a standard deviation score of .42. Their mean score on DIP-oriented knowledge was 2.11 with a standard deviation score of .52. In the purposeful sample (N=15), teachers scored a mean of 4.35 on DAP knowledge with a standard deviation score of .34. Their mean score on DIP knowledge was 2.24 with a standard deviation score of .48. Teachers in purposeful subdivision sample (N=4) had a mean of 4.78 on DAP related knowledge with a standard deviation score of .30. Their mean score on DIP knowledge was 1.83 with a standard deviation score of .37.

Comparing purposeful subdivision sample's (teachers A's, B's, C's, and D's) mean scores on the knowledge questionnaire with the purposefully chosen teachers' (N=15) mean score:

The total mean score (4.35) of teachers who were purposefully chosen teachers was lower than the mean score (4.78) of the purposeful subdivision sample. This shows that as a group purposeful subdivision sample had more DAP-oriented knowledge than the purposefully chosen sample.

In the purposeful subdivision sample, teachers B's (4.94), C's (5.00), and D's (4.88) mean score were above while teacher A's (4.33) score was below the group average of the purposeful sample on DAP oriented knowledge. Teachers B, C, and D had more knowledge aligned with DAP, but teacher A seemed to have less DAP oriented knowledge as compared to the purposeful sample.

In the purposeful sample, the teachers' group mean score (2.24) on DIP oriented knowledge was higher than the mean score (1.83) of the purposeful subdivision sample. This indicates that the teachers of purposefully drawn sample had more DIP-related knowledge than the teachers in the purposeful subdivision sample.

Teachers B's (1.95), C's (1.35), and D's (1.80) scores on DIP related knowledge were below while teacher A's (2.25) score was above the purposeful sample's group mean on DIP oriented knowledge. The first three teachers seemed to have less of this type of knowledge, but teacher A seemed to possess more knowledge of that nature.

Teachers' Mean Scores on the Instructional Activities Scale

Teachers (N=26) who were chosen through stratified sampling procedures had a mean score of 3.63 on DAP related instructional activities with a standard deviation score of .34. Their mean score on DIP-oriented activities was 2.66 with a standard deviation score of .59.

In the purposeful sample (N=15), teachers scored a mean of 3.47 on DAP related activities with a standard deviation score of .61. Their mean score on DIP oriented activities was 2.92 with a standard deviation score of .31.

Teachers in purposeful subdivision sample (N=4) had a mean of 3.46 on DAP activities with a standard deviation score of .61. Their mean score on DIP related activities was 2.44 with a standard deviation score of .65.

Comparing purposeful subdivision sample's (teachers A's, B's, C's, and D's) total mean scores on instructional activities with the sample of purposefully chosen teachers' (N=15) mean scores:

The group mean (3.47) of purposefully chosen teachers on DAP related activities was similar to the group mean score (3.46) of the purposeful subdivision sample. This shows that as a group teachers in both of these samples included same amount of DAP oriented instructional activities in their classrooms.

When the purposeful subdivision sample's individual mean scores compared to the group mean (3.47) of the purposefully chosen teachers some differences were seen. Compared to this group's mean, teachers A (3.44), B (3.93), and C (3.90) scored above the mean, while teacher D (2.61) scored below the mean. This indicates that teachers A, B, and C seemed to incorporate more DAP oriented activities into their classrooms than the purposefully selected group; however, teacher D seemed to include less DAP related activities than the rest of the group.

The group mean (2.92) on DIP focused activities for the purposeful sample of teachers' was higher than the group mean (2.44) of the purposeful subdivision sample. This shows that teachers in the purposeful sample incorporated more DIP related activities than the teachers in the purposeful subdivision sample.

In the purposeful subdivision sample, teacher D (3.30) scored above, but teachers A (2.33), B (2.07), and C (1.98) had scores below the purposefully selected sample's group mean on DIP oriented activities. These scores demonstrate that activities that were DIP oriented were reported to take place more often in teacher D's classroom, while they

were reported to occur less frequently in teachers A's, B's, and C's classrooms compared to the purposeful sample.

With respect to results of ANOVA run for teachers, there was not any statistically significant differences among three samples on knowledge of DAP ($F=1.957$, $df = 2$, $p >.05$) and knowledge of DIP ($F = 1.07$, $df = 2$, $p >.05$). In addition, there was not any significant differences in their scores on DAP related instructional activities ($F=.634$, $df = 2$, $p >.05$) and DIP associated activities ($F=1.84$, $df = 2$, $p >.05$).

Results of the Supervisory Questionnaire

Here the principals' three most important purposes of supervision are presented. In this question, principals were asked to rank the three most important purposes of supervision. The average ranks were computed by using reverse scoring. The more point is given to a purpose, the more popular that purpose is. Also, the frequency of responses was calculated. Table C.5 indicates principals' weighted average rank (higher score indicates more popularity) and the frequencies of their responses.

Table C.5 Ranking Three Most Important Purposes of Supervision (N=4 Purposeful subdivision)

Purposes of supervision	1 st most important =3pt	2nd most important =2pt	3 rd most important =1pt	Not Ranked =0pt	Total points
Evaluate teachers' teaching	3(1)			0(3)	3(1)
Help teachers reflect upon the decisions they make regarding instructional actions	3(1)		1(1)	0(2)	4(2)
Improve supervisor-teacher relations				0(4)	0
Overcome teachers' psychological barriers to supervision				0(4)	0
Make sure teachers are teaching the curriculum as designed	3(1)	2(1)	1(1)	0(1)	6(3)
Make sure teachers modify their teaching as decided in conferences				0(4)	0
Eradicate teaching behaviors considered undesirable ineffective and/or undesirable				0(4)	0
Help teachers analyze their thinking processes as they plan and deliver instruction and evaluate their own teaching	3(1)		1(1)	0(2)	4(2)
Help teachers examine their teaching by collecting and analyzing data about their teaching				0(4)	0
Opportunities for supervisor and teachers to engage in collaborative problem-solving		2(1)		0(3)	2(1)
Help teachers learn how to self-supervise			1(1)	0(3)	1(1)
Reinforce teaching behaviors considered desirable and/or effective other (specify)		2(2)		0(3)	4(2)

Note: Numbers in parentheses refers to the frequency of responses.

Note: Higher points indicates more popularity

As is seen in table C.5, the commonly chosen most important purpose of supervision among principals of subdivision sample was to “make sure teachers are teaching the curriculum as designed.” The other most commonly reported purposes were to “help teachers reflect upon the decisions they make regarding instructional actions,” “help teachers analyze their thinking processes as they plan and deliver instruction and evaluate their own teaching”, and “reinforce teaching behaviors considered desirable and/or effective.”

Table C.6 indicates the three most important purposes of supervision as reported by the purposefully chosen principals.

Table C.6 Ranking Three Most Important Purposes of Supervision (N=8 Purposeful)

Purposes of supervision	1 st most important =3pt	2nd most important =2pt	3rd most important =1pt	Not Ranked =0pt	Total points
Evaluate teachers' teaching	3(2)		1(1)	0(5)	7(3)
Help teachers reflect upon the decisions they make regarding instructional actions	3(2)		1(1)	0(5)	7(3)
Improve supervisor-teacher relations			1(1)	0(7)	1(1)
Overcome teachers' psychological barriers to supervision				0(8)	0
Make sure teachers are teaching the curriculum as designed	3(1)	2(2)	1(1)	0(4)	8(4)
Make sure teachers modify their teaching as decided in conferences			1(1)	0(7)	1(1)
Eradicate teaching behaviors considered undesirable ineffective and/or undesirable			1(1)	0(7)	1(1)
Help teachers analyze their thinking processes as they plan and deliver instruction and evaluate their own teaching	3(1)	2(3)		0(4)	9(4)
Help teachers examine their teaching by collecting and analyzing data about their teaching	3(1)			0(7)	3(1)
Opportunities for supervisor and teachers to engage in collaborative problem-solving		2(1)	1(1)	0(6)	3(2)
Help teachers learn how to self-supervise				0(8)	0
Reinforce teaching behaviors considered desirable and/or effective other (specify)	3(1)	2(1)	1(2)	0(4)	6(4)

Note: Numbers in parentheses refers to the frequency of responses.

Note: Higher points indicates more popularity

As table C.6 shows, the first commonly chosen most important purpose of supervision that was reported by purposefully chosen principals was to “help teachers analyze their thinking processes as they plan and deliver instruction and evaluate their own teaching.” Another most frequently chosen purpose was to “make sure teachers are teaching the curriculum as designed.” The other most popular purposes of supervision were to “help teachers reflect upon the decisions they make regarding instructional actions,” “evaluate teachers’ teaching,” and “reinforce teaching behaviors considered desirable and/or effective other.”

There are several purposes of supervision that were less commonly considered. Among them were: “improve supervisor-teacher relations,” and “make sure teachers modify their teaching as decided in conferences,” “eradicate teaching behaviors considered undesirable ineffective and/or undesirable.”

Table C.7 shows the three most important purposes of supervision as reported by the principals who were chosen through stratified sampling.

Table C.7 Ranking Three Most Important Purposes of Supervision (N=13 Stratified)

Purposes of supervision	1 st most important =3pt	2nd most important =2pt	3rd most important =1pt	Not Ranked =0pt	Total points
Evaluate teachers' teaching		2(1)	1(3)	0(10)	5(4)
Help teachers reflect upon the decisions they make regarding instructional actions	3(6)	2(2)	1(2)	0(3)	24(10)
Improve supervisor-teacher relations		2(1)	1(1)	0(11)	3(2)
Overcome teachers' psychological barriers to supervision	3(1)			0(12)	3(1)
Make sure teachers are teaching the curriculum as designed	3(2)		1(1)	0(10)	7(3)
Make sure teachers modify their teaching as decided in conferences				0(13)	0
Eradicate teaching behaviors considered undesirable ineffective and/or undesirable	3(1)			0(12)	3(1)
Help teachers analyze their thinking processes as they plan and deliver instruction and evaluate their own teaching	3(1)	2(3)	1(3)	0(6)	10(7)
Help teachers examine their teaching by collecting and analyzing data about their teaching	3(1)	2(2)		0(10)	7(3)
Opportunities for supervisor and teachers to engage in collaborative problem-solving	3(1)	2(3)	1(3)	0(6)	10(7)
Help teachers learn how to self-supervise				0(13)	0
Reinforce teaching behaviors considered desirable and/or effective other (specify)		2(2)		0(11)	2(2)

Note: Numbers in parentheses refers to the frequency of responses.

Note: Higher points indicates more popularity

Table C.7 demonstrates that most commonly chosen supervisory purposes among principals who were selected through the stratified sampling procedures were to “help teachers reflect upon the decisions.” Two other commonly chosen purposes which follow this were to ‘help teachers analyze their thinking processes as they plan and deliver instruction”, and provide “opportunities for supervisor and teachers to engage in collaborative problem-solving.” The third most commonly chosen purpose was to “make sure teachers are teaching the curriculum as designed and help teachers examine their teaching by collecting and analyzing data about their teaching.”

APPENDIX D
SAMPLE INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Principal Interview One: Curriculum

1. A. What is a good kindergarten from your point of view? Why?
 - B. Do you feel that a child would answer that differently?
 - If so, how it would be different, and why it would be different?
 - C. Do you feel that one of your kindergarten teachers will answer that question differently? Why?
2. A. How do you view/perceive children?
 - B. Do you think that your teacher in this kindergarten would answer that differently? If so, how?
 - C. Do you think that the children in the kindergarten classroom would answer that differently? If so, how?
3. A. What are your long-term goals for the children in your kindergarten classroom?
 - B. What are your short-term goals for the children in your kindergarten classroom?
 - C. What kind of philosophy does that represent?
 - D. What kind of philosophy does your kindergarten teacher have?
4. What are the important qualities of early childhood teachers in your view?
5. What is the most positive quality about your kindergarten?
6. What is the most positive quality about your kindergarten teacher?
7. A. What is not perfect about your kindergarten?
 - B. Do you think that your teacher in this kindergarten would answer that differently? If so, how?
 - C. What is not perfect about the kindergarten teacher in your school?
 - D. Do you think that teachers in this kindergarten would answer that differently?

If so, how?

8. How would you define kindergarten curriculum?
9.
 - A. Who is involved in the process of making decisions about the kindergarten curriculum content (what to teach)?
 - B. Who is involved in the process of making decisions about the kindergarten instruction (how to teach)?
 - C. Who is involved in the process of making decisions about assessment in the kindergarten?
 - D. Who should be involved in this process in your opinion? Why?
10.
 - A. What sources are considered in deciding the content of the kindergarten curriculum?
 - B. What other sources should be considered in this process in your opinion? Why?
11.
 - A. What curriculum area(s) is more emphasized in your opinion?
 - B. What should be emphasized in your curriculum in your opinion?
12.
 - A. What do you think about the advantages and disadvantages of using projects?
 - B. What do you think about the advantages and disadvantages of using themes?
13.
 - A. What do you think about assessment methods that are used in your kindergarten classroom?
 - B. What method(s) should be added or removed from the assessment of kindergarten children? Why?

Principal Interview Two: Teaching

1. If the principal used DAP to define curriculum and teaching then, ask the following: Is it enough to have DAP in teaching kindergarten to define good kindergarten?
(OR is there something needed to define best kindergarten that you can imagine? What is your vision?)
2. Are you concerned with curriculum in reflecting values for individuals, group, and community?
(If he/she says , yes we consider parents' values...)
3. To what extent are you committed to get input from parents?
4. What does multicultural curriculum mean?
5. What are you doing about multicultural curriculum?
6. A. How does multicultural curriculum present in your kindergarten classroom?
B. To what extent does multicultural curriculum present in your kindergarten classroom?
C. How committed are you in carrying out multicultural curriculum?
7. A. Do you have written statement about discriminative behavior?
B. Can I see it?
8. How do you support your kindergarten teacher(s)' use of DAP and anti-bias curriculum?

Principal Interview Three: Supervision

1. What professional development is provided for kindergarten teachers?
2. A. What is the nature of the supervisory practices that you provide?
B. What is the nature of the relationship between you and your kindergarten teacher in the area of anti-bias curriculum?
3. How would you describe your most recent interactions with the kindergarten teacher(s)?
4. What are the activities that you engage in supervising kindergarten teachers?
5. A. What do you encourage in kindergarten teacher(s)?
B. How do you encourage it?
6. What is the most important element(s) of your supervision of kindergarten teachers?
Why?
7. A. What is the area that you want to influence?
B. Why?
C. How would you plan to reach your goal in influencing the teacher?
8. What criteria do you use when determining your style of supervision? (e.g. teachers' stage in career and/or teachers' needs)
9. How do you change the way you support and supervise as you see teachers change?
10. What kinds of problems that you see with current supervisory practices?
11. What are some problems and difficulties that you face in supervising kindergarten teachers?

Teacher Interview One: Curriculum

1. How would you define your curriculum?
 2. A. What are your long-term goals for the children in your kindergarten classroom?
 - B. What are your short-term goals for the children in your kindergarten classroom?
 - C. What kind of philosophy does that represent?
 - D. What kind of philosophy does the principal have?
3. How do you develop and plan developmentally appropriate curriculum?
4. A. Who is involved in the process of making decisions about your curriculum content (what to teach), instruction (how to teach), and assessment?
 - B. Who should be involved in this process in your opinion? Why?
5. A. What sources are considered in deciding the content of your curriculum?
 - B. What other sources should be considered in this process in your opinion? Why?
6. A. What curriculum area(s) is more emphasized in your opinion?
 - B. What should be emphasized in your curriculum in your opinion?
 - C. How do you work on the differences between your district's ideas and your own opinion?
7. How do you implement this curriculum? (How is your curriculum carried out? (projects, units with integrated subjects...))
 - A. Tell me about a project that you did before? (choosing project topics, phases of project.)
 - B. What do you think about the advantages and disadvantages of using projects?
 - C. If units with integrated subjects:
 - Tell me about a unit that was carried out?

- D. What do you think about the advantages and disadvantages of using units?
8. A. How do you assess the children's progress in your classroom?
- B. How do you evaluate your own planning and implementing of these practices?
 - C. Does the information gathered from the assessment affect your planning/implementing? (If yes, how?)
9. A. What is not perfect about in your kindergarten?
- B. Do think that the principal would answer that differently? If so, how?
10. What is the best way for you help me to learn more about your curriculum structure?
(materials, written notes...)
13. Could you walk me through the areas of your classroom?

Teacher Interview Two: Teaching

1. If the teacher used DAP to define curriculum and teaching then, ask the following: Is it enough to have DAP in teaching kindergarten to define good kindergarten?

(OR is there something needed to define best kindergarten that you can imagine? What is your vision?)

2. Are you concerned with curriculum in reflecting values for individuals, group, and community?

(If he/she says, yes we consider parents' values...

3. To what extent are you committed to get input from parents?

4. What does multicultural curriculum mean?

5. What are you doing about multicultural curriculum?

6.A. How does multicultural curriculum present in your classroom?

B. To what extent does multicultural curriculum present in your classroom?

C. How committed are you in carrying out multicultural curriculum?

Teacher Interview Three: Supervision

1. What professional development is provided for you in improving your practices?
2. A. What is the nature of the supervisory practices that you receive?
 B. What is the nature of the relationship between you and your principal?
3. What is the most supporting factor that you receive from your principal with respect to curriculum and teaching?
4. How would you describe your most recent interactions with the principal?
 (How they interact, their goals, and purposes for having influence on each other)
- 5.A. What is the area that you want to improve and change?
 B. Why?
 C. How would you planning to reach your goal in improving and changing?
6. What prevents you from being a teacher that you want to be?
7. Are there any internal reasons that prevent you from being a teacher that you want to be? (e.g. number of children in your classroom, no teacher aid, not enough material, and/or children's behavioral problems).
8. What are the limits that the principal have in influencing your practice?
9. What kinds of problems that you see with current supervisory practices?
10. What are some problems and difficulties that you face in teaching?
11. What would be the one thing that you do not receive right now, but you wish to receive it because you think it will help you most?

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EDUCATION

- B.A. 1993 Marmara University
Major: Preschool Teaching
- M.S. 1997 Old Dominion University
Major: Early Childhood Education
- Ph.D. 2004 The Pennsylvania State University
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- 2002-2003 Early Childhood Education Course
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- 1994-Present Research Assistant at Pamukkale University

PUBLICATIONS

Ivrendi, A. & Johnson, J. E. (2002). Kindergarten teachers certification status and participation in staff development activities in relation to their knowledge and perceived use of developmentally appropriate practices(DAP). *Journal of Early Childhood Teacher Education*, 23(2), pp.115-124.

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