

IALS JOURNAL

Volume IX, No.1



international
association of
laboratory
schools

IN THIS ISSUE

- Preparing Teacher Candidates to Assess Learning Profiles through
Field Experience at University-Affiliated Laboratory Schools
Jeongae Kang & Mary J. Shields 1
- University and Laboratory School Partnerships
Lisa Clayton, Jeff Cornelius, Chris James, and Katie Kinney 7
- Stakeholder Perceptions: Impact of a University-Based Laboratory
School on a Campus-Based Educator Preparation Program
Sandy H. Seipel 13
- Process Drama and Writing in the K-12 Classrooms:
A Review of the Literature
Gretchen Dodson 19
- That's Soooooo Funny! Using Humor to Promote
Young Children's Literacy Development
*Satomi Izumi-Taylor, Cathy D. Meredith,
Ariel Laws, Helen Perkins, and Sandra Brown Turner* 28
- Reading for Puerto Rico
Shannon Heckman 33
- A Gift of Inspiration and Generosity: IALS 2018 International Schools Tour
Sandy H. Seipel 35
- Roots and Wings: The IALS 2018 Annual Conference
in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Submitted by Jill Sarada 37



International Association of Laboratory Schools Officers and Standing Committees 2018-2019

The International Association of Laboratory and University Affiliated Schools Officers 2018-2019

Executive Director:
Patricia Diebold, Edinboro University of PA, Retired

President:
Marilyn Tolbert, Texas Christian University

President-Elect:
Wade Smith, Louisiana State University

Past-President:
Amani Reed, Columbia University

International Programming:
Elizabeth Morley, University of Toronto

Grants Chair:
Jill Sarada, University of Pittsburgh

Coordinator of Communication:
Sharon Carver, Carnegie Mellon University

Social Media Director:
Nicolas Ramos-Ortiz, University of Puerto Rico

Board Officer:
Konnie Serr, Shippensburg University of PA

Board Officer:
Jean Bird, Carnegie Mellon University

Board of Directors

Ceceile Minott, University of the West Indies

Sandra Brown-Turner, University of Memphis

Richard Messina, University of Toronto

Debra Belvin, Berry College

Committee Chairs

Development:
Wade Smith, Louisiana State University

Governance:
Marilyn Tolbert, Texas Christian University

Grants:
Jill Sarada, University of Pittsburgh

Membership:
Sandra Brown-Turner, University of Memphis

Finance/Audit:
Sharon Carver, Carnegie Mellon University

Outreach and Conference:
Nicolas Ramos-Ortiz, University of Puerto Rico

Members of Development Board

IALS General Membership, 3 year Term:
Diana Dimitrovski, University of Pittsburgh
Ruth Fitzpatrick, Bridgewater State College

Annual Appointment by Board:
Arnold Lindaman, Northwest Missouri State

JOURNAL EDITORS & REVIEW BOARD

Dr. Christopher Keyes, Shippensburg University of Pennsylvania earned his PhD in Language, Literacy and Culture from Vanderbilt University. His research focuses on multilingual students and on professional learning. He is presently an assistant professor of teacher education at Shippensburg University, where he teaches in the graduate reading program, the middle-level education program, and the ESL program. He has had three children attend the Grace B. Luhrs University Elementary Laboratory School at Shippensburg University.

Dr. Shannon Mortimore-Smith earned her PhD in English Education from Western Michigan University. She is currently an Assistant Professor of English at Shippensburg University in Pennsylvania, where she teaches adolescent literature and secondary certification courses. Her research interests include multimodal, 21st-century, and New Media literacies, including the role of comics, graphic novels, Japanese manga, and video games in the English classroom. Her daughter attends the Grace B. Luhrs University Elementary Laboratory School at Shippensburg University of Pennsylvania.

REVIEW BOARD

Jean Bird	Carnegie Mellon University
Sandra Turner	University of Memphis
Cheryl Slattery	Shippensburg University of Pennsylvania
Rebecca Blahus	Shippensburg University of Pennsylvania
Sharon Carnahan	Rollins College
Marilyn Tolbert	Texas Christian University
Cindy L. Rouner	Northwest Missouri State University
Elizabeth Morley	University of Toronto
Sandy Seipel	Northwest Missouri State University
Paige Shirk	Shippensburg University of Pennsylvania

EDITORIAL RESPONSIBILITY

The *IALS Journal* is published once a year and addresses key issues facing today's laboratory and university affiliated schools. Articles offer perspectives on educational trends and include topics such as the history and future of lab schools, innovations in curricula and programs, lab school administration, and teacher education. The journal includes articles grounded in evidence-based classroom practices, action research, and theoretically based quantitative and qualitative scholarship.

IALS Journal
Volume 9, Issue 1

CONTENTS

Editor's Comments / **iii**

Letter from the President / **iv**

Featured Articles:

Preparing Teacher Candidates to Assess Learning Profiles through Field Experience
at University-Affiliated Laboratory Schools

Submitted by Jeongae Kang & Mary J. Shields / 1

University and Laboratory School Partnerships

Submitted by Lisa Clayton, Jeff Cornelius, Chris James, and Katie Kinney / 7

Stakeholder Perceptions: Impact of a University-Based Laboratory School
on a Campus-Based Educator Preparation Program

Submitted by Sandra H. Seipel / 13

Process Drama and Writing in the K-12 Classrooms: A Review of the Literature

Submitted by Gretchen Dodson / 19

That's Soooooo Funny! Using Humor to Promote Young Children's Literacy Development

*Submitted by Satomi Izumi-Taylor, Cathy D. Meredith, Ariel Laws,
Helen Perkins, and Sandra Brown Turner / 28*

Reading for Puerto Rico

Submitted by Shannon Heckman / 33

A Gift of Inspiration and Generosity: IALS 2018 International Schools Tour

Submitted by Sandy Seipel / 35

Roots and Wings: The IALS 2018 Annual Conference in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

Submitted by Jill Sarada / 37

Information for Contributors, CFP / **40**

LETTER FROM THE EDITORS

With many thanks to the IALS Executive Board and to our current president, Dr. Marilyn Tolbert for her leadership, we are pleased to present the ninth volume of the *International Association of Laboratory Schools Journal*. It is without question that the valuable work of laboratory schools across the world and in the association have continued to positively impact the lives and the education of our children. In this volume and in all that follow, we aspire to provide a home for the myriad voices that are represented within our laboratory schools and to celebrate our collaborative achievements with even wider audiences.

This volume represents the combined efforts of a broad spectrum of IALS members. Laboratory school teachers, university professors, and graduate students from across the globe have contributed their academic work to this volume, and by doing so, they have asked us to consider our own stake in the greater mission of our schools. As such, we are proud to present the following contributions to this ninth volume of the *IALS Journal*.

This year we are pleased to present articles that take a qualitative approach to understanding the role of laboratory schools in university settings. In the featured article, “Preparing Teacher Candidates to Assess Learning Profiles through Field Experience at University-Affiliated Laboratory Schools,” contributors Jeongae Kang & Mary J. Shields, present research on how university affiliated laboratory schools provide clinical teaching and learning opportunities for pre-service teacher candidates. Further understanding the complex webs of stakeholders connected to laboratory schools is the subject of Sandy Siepel’s study, “Stakeholder Perceptions: Impact of a University-based Laboratory School on a Campus-based Educator Preparation Program.” This timely article recognizes that there are many voices that should be heard as laboratory schools navigate shifting roles and expectations. In “University and Laboratory School Partnerships,” authors Lisa Clayton, Jeff Cornelius, Chris James, and Katie Kinney interview teachers, university faculty, and laboratory school partners to better understand the impact of the laboratory school on stakeholders.

In “Process Drama and Writing in K-12 Classrooms: A Review of the Literature,” author Gretchen Dodson’s careful study reveals that Process Drama, i.e. improvised classroom drama specifically designed to help students

“gain a deeper understanding of literature, a historical event, a scientific concept, or to create empathy with others” is a successful teaching pedagogy that “ignites the imagination” of student writers and encourages multigenre approaches to composition and learning. As such, Dodson’s article offers valuable strategies for laboratory school instructors hoping to invigorate writing in their own classrooms.

Similarly, in “That’s Soooooo Funny! Using Humor to Promote Young Children’s Literacy Development,” University of Memphis scholars Izumi-Taylor, Meredith, Laws, Perkins, and Turner, argue that laughter is good medicine for young learners, contributing positively to young people’s receptiveness, attention, engagement, and interest in reading. The authors’ inclusion of “Five Helpful Ways to Include Humor in the Classroom,” and a list of humorous book recommendations make this a practical article for all teachers seeking to further ignite student learning.

Further celebrating the good work of our laboratory schools, we are also pleased to include “Reading for Puerto Rico” by Shannon Heckman, Reading Specialist at the Grace B. Luhrs Elementary School at Shippensburg University. To conclude this volume, Sandy Seipel offers a summary of the memorable events during the IALS 2018 International Schools Tour hosted by Elizabeth Morley, and 2018 Conference Organizer, Jill Sarada highlights the keynote speakers, conference sessions, and events from the “Roots and Wings” IALS Annual Conference in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

As contributing editors, we are honored to celebrate the work that you do in your laboratory schools, with your colleagues, and for your students each day. We hope you enjoy this edition and that you, too, will consider honoring your outstanding teachers and laboratory schools and submitting your academic research and writing in future volumes of the *IALS Journal*.

Dedicated to research, leadership, and educational excellence,

Dr. Shannon Mortimore-Smith

Dr. Christopher Keyes

Editors

LETTER FROM THE PRESIDENT

Happy Spring! I hope you all have had a wonderful winter and are now looking forward to warmer days, sunshine and fun! I hope you will enjoy this issue of our *IALS Journal* and I look forward to your comments regarding the contents.

IALS is here to help our membership connect, collaborate and contribute to the improvement of instructional practices and effective learning for all! Looking forward, we know we have much to do. We welcome your ideas and participation with *IALS*.

I encourage all in our membership and those who teach and learn in our laboratory schools to contribute to our *IALS Journal* by sharing your research, your successful teaching strategies and your classroom stories, the special events at your laboratory school, awards and anniversaries for your school and faculty, and other noteworthy happenings.

IALS is here for you! Please contact Patricia Diebold, our Executive Director, at ials.exec.director@gmail.com for more information about IALS and stay in touch by following the International Association of Laboratory Schools on Facebook and visit our website at laboratoryschools.org.

It is indeed an honor and pleasure to serve you, your staff and your schools. Thank you for your continued support of The International Association of Laboratory Schools.

Happy Reading!
Marilyn Tolbert, President of IALS

Preparing Teacher Candidates to Assess Learner Profiles Through Field Experience at University-Affiliated Laboratory Schools

Jeongae Kang, Ph.D.

ASSISTANT PROFESSOR, NORTHWEST MISSOURI STATE UNIVERSITY

Mary J. Shields, M.S.ED

RESOURCE TEACHER, NORTHWEST MISSOURI STATE UNIVERSITY HORACE MANN LABORATORY SCHOOL

Introduction

Since a series of educational laws (Every Student Succeeds Act [ESSA], 2015; No Child Left Behind [NCLB], 2001) have placed focus on maximizing student outcomes, student performance and growth rate has received full attention. The common premise of these two laws is to provide students quality instruction and monitor their progress. These emphases support a rationale of why classroom teachers need to have strong competency in collecting and documenting evidence of student achievement (Joseph et al., 2014). Indeed, assessment is believed to yield the most salient data to understand learners (Mandinach & Gummer, 2016).

According to the most recent data from the National Center for Educational Statistics, of the 95 percent of special education eligible students, 62.2% spent more than 80% of their time at school in the general education classroom. This figure reminds us that every educator is responsible for student learning. They need to know how to support their learning. To meet the needs of each student is critical to provide more individualized education. Providing each student with an individualized education amplifies the need of assessment. High leverage practices state that multiple data sources need to be used in examining student needs (McCray, Kamman, Brownell, & Robinson, 2017). However, researchers have found that early career teachers have difficulty monitoring student progress and assessing student needs (e.g., Otis-Wilborn, Winn, Griffin, & Kilgore, 2005; White & Mason, 2006). Although one required competency for special education teachers is assessing student needs by using multiple assessments, they did not feel prepared enough for their own classroom (Council for Exceptional Children, 2012). One reasonable question is whether those early career teachers had enough opportunities to practice assessing student needs during their teacher preparation.

Course knowledge learned through teacher preparation programs is critical to learn about new skills needed for teaching. Given that mastering a specific instruction skill requires more than 20 hours of field experience, lacking the opportunity to practice those skills interrupts the transfer of course knowledge into practice (Grossman et al., 1990; Brownell et al., 2011). Activity theory also explains how teachers adopt pedagogical tools in their classrooms. Brownell and colleagues (2011) stated that opportunities to apply course knowledge and tools enables teacher candidates to transfer the knowledge into practice. The close relationship between coursework and field experience in mastering skill sets indicate the importance of alignment between the two (Fang & Ashley, 2004; Wilson et al., 2001). In teaching methodological pedagogy, aligning coursework and field experience has been actively implemented.

However, our current practice of preparing teacher candidates to assess student needs shows limited evidence in this area (e.g., Campbell, 2013). Indirectly, the literature addresses that teacher candidates are not practicing direct and authentic interactions with students. One facet of teacher education programs, addressed as a teacher candidate concern through a study by Chesley and Jordan (2012), focused on analysis of student achievement data for the purpose of planning response-to-intervention type differentiated lessons. Therefore, it is important to find more opportunities to prepare teacher candidates to practice assessment skills with direct interaction with students.

The purpose of this article is to discuss how university affiliated laboratory schools provide clinical opportunities to teacher candidates in assessing full profiles of elementary students in multi-age classrooms.

The Role of the Lab School in Teacher Preparation

The history of university affiliated laboratory schools started with providing more clinical experiences for teacher candidates. Teacher candidates access students attending university-affiliated lab schools, observe classes, and practice their instruction within the classroom as well. The first laboratory school in the US was the Dewey School, founded at the University of Chicago in 1896. The school started with the philosophy of Dewey, which considered children to be part of a community for the purpose of social, emotional, and intellectual growth through the development of societal and individual identities (Durst, 2010; Knoll, 2014).

Horace Mann Laboratory School

Horace Mann Laboratory School (Horace Mann), affiliated with the School of Education at Northwest Missouri State University (NWMSU), plays two roles, preparing K-6 and collegiate students and giving teacher candidates a unique opportunity to participate at an onsite training facility (Northwest Missouri State University [NWMSU], 2013). The foundational philosophy of Horace Mann is individualized education. In particular, the school uses the Reggio Emilia philosophy that respects children's identity and views them as integral members of the community. Although it is difficult to give the exact number of schools patterning their teaching in the spirit of this philosophy, the North American Reggio Emilia Alliance (2018) reports being one of the founders of the Reggio Children International Network, a consortium of 34 countries. In a Reggio Emilia inspired, student centered, project-based approach, classroom teachers are given the autonomy to educate children in their charge through their own identified strengths and best practices while concurrently following the Missouri Learning Standards, as well as, the expectations of NWMSU.

Horace Mann and the School of Education enjoy a collaborative working relationship which sees teacher candidates working alongside Master teachers to provide engaging, best practice learning to students in Kindergarten through Grade Six. Recently, the School of Education completed a redesign of their teacher education program, implementing collaborative, co-taught courses across education and core content disciplines.

Collaboration

The School of Professional Education and Horace Mann has a strong partnership. A collaborative effort to redesign the education program at Northwest has resulted in increased communication and coordinated efforts to educate *all* students in the building. Along the same time Chesley and Jordan's (2012) article titled, "What's Missing from Teacher Prep" was published, Northwest began conversations regarding many of the same concerns. A qualitative study of teacher preparation programs was conducted by Chesley and Jordan (2012) through two focus groups of approximately 30 teachers in each group. One group consisted of teachers with "three months to three years of teaching experience" and a second group of trained teacher mentors; with study results indicating teacher candidates valued first-hand classroom teaching experience over university course lessons (Chesley & Jordan, 2012).

As part of the School of Education, master teachers at Horace Mann collaborate with their professorial level colleagues in a cohesive unit. The redesign of curriculum affords teacher candidates the opportunity to engage in more field experiences (Horace Mann, 2013). These efforts resulted in Northwest School of Education being recognized by the American Association of State Colleges and Universities with a 2018 Christa McAuliffe Excellence in Teacher Education Award. One such collaboration resulted in a partnership between a School of Education professor and a Horace Mann classroom teacher. Teacher candidates enrolled in the Assessment in Special Education course were randomly paired with students in the same multi-aged classroom, resulting in a 1:1 teacher candidate to student ratio.

Course Format

The 16-week course intends to prepare teacher candidates to administer and interpret formal and informal assessments in order to design appropriate interventions for students, including students at risk (NWMSU Undergraduate Catalogue, 2017). This course is required for teacher candidates majoring in special education or for the ones who are pursuing a reading endorsement in other states. Teacher candidates meet three times per week with each session lasting 50 minutes. This course consists of coursework and field experience (see Figure 1). In coursework sessions, teacher candidates gain knowledge of each given assessment through lecture and readings, practice how to administer

assessments through role-playing and hands-on activities. In addition, teacher candidates discuss how to accommodate each assessment as necessary based on the needs of students. Every week thirty to forty minutes is secured for their field experience in assessment at this lab school. In total, the teacher candidates participate in more than 450 minutes of direct implementation to master skills in assessing students. Mainly they utilize one day to collect student data from the assigned classroom at the lab school, and the other days they practice how to assess students and analyze data. After the data collection, teacher candidates bring the data back to the coursework sessions where the course instructor and teacher candidates analyze data and reflect on the assessment process altogether.

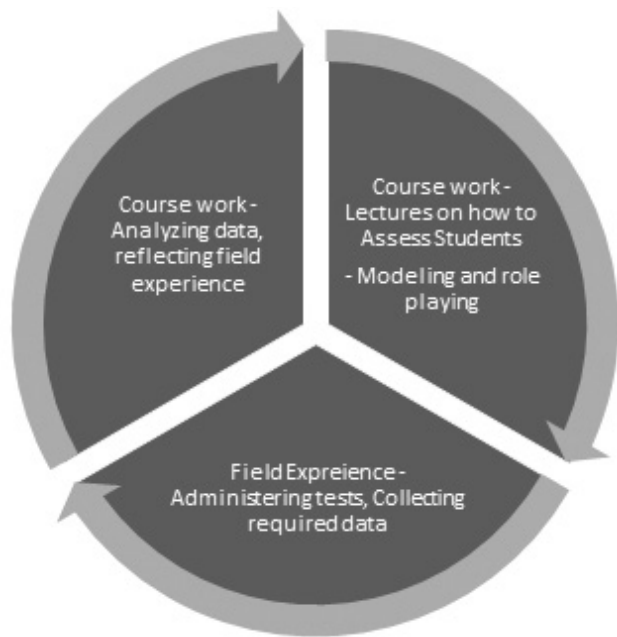


Figure 1. Overview of Course format

Course Scope

The purpose of this class is to prepare teacher candidates to assess the comprehensive needs of school-aged students. In assessing student profile, teachers need to improve multiple skills, including data collection and interpretation to maximize all students’ outcomes. Given its commitment to teacher preparation and its proximity to the university, laboratory schools seem to be a promising place for teacher candidates to practice these comprehensive assessment skills. This is particularly critical to Horace Mann Lab School because it values individualized education. This course adopted three different set of assessments: getting to know

about student assessment, classroom assessment, and achievement and/or diagnostic assessments. Teacher candidates taking this course needed to assess students by using those three different assessments. Table 1 includes detailed information on each assessment topic.

COURSE PRODUCTS	COURSE TOPICS	RELATED ASSESSMENTS
Student information statement Assessment planner	Getting to Know about Students Assessments	Observation Student interview Pre-test (e.g., AIMSweb, easy CBM)
CBM brochure	Classroom Assessments	Curriculum-based measurement
PVPT-IV protocol Test report Reflection	Achievement/ Diagnostic Assessments	Peabody vocabulary picture test-IV (PVPT-IV) AND Choice of an additional achievement or diagnostic assessments

Table 1. Alignments of Course Topics and Course Requirements

Getting to know about the student needs.

Understanding student needs is critical in providing supports to students and making better instructional decisions. In doing this, various teacher preparation standards or guidelines (e.g., Council for Exceptional Children Initial Standards, High-leverage Practices) suggest the use of multiple means of assessments. In addition, Horace Mann Lab School adopted this critical part of the Reggio Emilia philosophy; respecting children’s identity and viewing them as integral members of the community. In this course, teacher candidates collected student data in both formal and informal ways. Before collecting this student data, the course instructor explained the rationale of getting to know about student needs and shared possible related activities (e.g., interview, AIMSweb, games, observations). The teacher candidates drafted a list of interview questions and planned activities and tests. When they met their focus students, the teacher candidates interviewed and observed their behaviors in different settings. Reading, math, and writing tests were administered to examine the current performance level. The candidates asked questions to the classroom teacher. After coming back

to the classroom for course work, those prospective teachers reflected on their assessment experience individually and as small groups. Each candidate synthesized the information and made decisions of which areas of assessment would be beneficial to their own focus student. Teacher candidates shared the data in class and justified their choice of test areas. Each candidate participated in giving and taking advice to the small group members. Based on the data from the field experience, teacher candidates made further assessment plans. The products for this step are student information statement and assessment plan.

Classroom assessment. Classroom assessment is one type of informal assessment frequently used by teachers. This assessment helps monitor student progress to make appropriate instructional decisions. In this course, teacher candidates administer curriculum-based assessments (CBM) to their focus students for five weeks. The purpose of CBM is to monitor student progress in reading, mathematics, and writing. In reading, students have two one-minute fluency tests. These tests measure how fast students read words or passages in a minute. In addition, these tests examine the accuracy of each word. The maze test examines student comprehension by asking to select every seventh word from a field of three choices. Depending on the grade levels, two Math CBM is provided, either algebra and operations, or algebra and numbers and geometry or measurement. Those tests are not timed and each time 20 grade-level problems are given. For the writing test, students received one prompt provided by a teacher candidate. Each student was given one minute to brainstorm and three minutes to write. Student writing was graded in terms of three measures: total number of words written, correctly spelled words, and correctly sequenced words. Total number of words intends to examine how fast they can write in a three-minute span. Total number of correctly spelled words refer to the accuracy of spelling. Total number correctly sequenced words refer to both correct spelling and appropriate grammatical structure. Teacher candidates visualize those data, following the guideline from course instructor. The artifact for this stage is a CBM brochure (see figure 2. CBM Brochure).

Achievement and diagnostic assessments.

Achievement and diagnostic assessments are frequently used to investigate if students have severe academic needs. Most teacher candidates enrolled in this course majored in special education and one of their competency is to administer and interpret those tests. Since those tests required broad psychometric knowledge



Figure 2. CBM Brochure

and high fidelity implementation, the whole class received explicit instruction on how to administer and interpret achievement and diagnostic tests. For their practice, teacher candidates started with the Peabody Vocabulary Picture Test-IV (PPVT-IV). PPVT- IV is an oral language assessment and its administration and interpretation is relatively simple compared to the other tests. In class, teacher candidates explored information about PPVT-IV and test interpretation. The instructor also taught how to use test manual in administering and scoring the test and interpreting the test results. Those skills were explicitly taught and teacher candidates had opportunities to practice those skills as small groups. Such small group activities included role play, discussion, fidelity checks, how to give tests, and explicit teaching of recording student responses. When teacher candidates mastered those skills, they met their focus students again to administer PPVT-IV. While teacher candidates were administering the test, the instructor supervised to ensure fidelity, checking to ensure the assessment was scored correctly following the basal or ceiling rules.

After everyone had the opportunity to administer

PPVT-IV with their focus students, the teacher candidates selected one achievement or diagnostic tests based on the results of the getting to know student needs activity and classroom assessment. The selection of tests was made based on the major of teacher candidates. The available tests were the Kaufman Test of Educational Achievement—Editions (KTEA) 2 or 3, Woodcock Johnson Achievement Test—III (WJ-III), Woodcock Reading Mastery Test—II (WRMT-II), KeyMath-III, and the Test of Written Language—IV (TOWL-IV). It is important for teachers to read manuals, so every group read the manuals to the test and how to interpret the test. Based on the group activity, they did presentations. To encourage them to see the bigger picture and relations among assessments, they completed graphic organizers of each assignment. After teacher candidates completed presentation and passed fidelity check on implementation, they were able to administer their selection of assessment to their focus students. Teacher candidates were required to record their test administration. These teacher candidates submitted the test protocol and test report along with their reflection paper.

Discussion

The purpose of this article is to discuss ways of how university affiliated laboratory schools provide clinical opportunities to teacher candidates in assessing learner profiles in multi-age classrooms. As multiple teacher preparation standards and guidelines state, examining learner profiles by using multiple assessments is a critical competency for teachers who are working in inclusive classrooms. Despite such importance, early career teachers reported their perceived challenges in using assessment skills in their own classroom (e.g., Otis-Wilborn et al., 2005; White & Mason, 2006). This indicates the importance of preparing teacher candidates with enough field experience opportunities to transfer their course knowledge into practice.

The curriculum that was shared in this article provided evidence that teacher candidates were able to participate in approximately 450 minutes per semester to acquire the knowledge of three different areas of assessments. This is supported by the literature stating the importance of aligning coursework and field experience (Leko & Brownell, 2009). More importantly, teacher candidates in the assessment course had continuous communication during the field experience. In addition, the researchers emphasized the need for continuous coaching on how to transfer course

knowledge into practice via workshops, lectures, and ongoing teaching to gain knowledge and use it in practice (Joyce & Shower, 1982). Given that teacher candidates will continue to practice assessment skills from this class in their teaching practicums and student teaching, their transferring course knowledge into practice is promising.

Preparing how to select, administer, and interpret test data with teacher candidates contributes to providing more individualized education to each student at laboratory school. This aligns with the current philosophy of Horace Mann, Reggio Emilia practices. For in-depth understanding about the learner, teacher candidates practiced three different assessments: getting to know about student needs activities, classroom assessment, and achievement and diagnostic assessments. This results in supporting teacher candidates to consider how to make individualized instructional decisions based on the data.

Furthermore, the process of sharing course products (e.g., CBM brochure) supported the learning outcome of teacher candidates sharing student data with the cooperative teacher and parents. According to the research conducted by Erickson, Gray, Wesley, and Dunagan (2012), parents who are sending children to lab schools value academic achievement and teacher quality. This indicates that teacher candidate practice needs to be designed for meaningful learning, and parents need to know their children's outcome. The course curriculum supports this.

The most important focus for teacher preparation is ensuring that teacher candidates enrolled in this class are prepared to effectively assess diverse students, not only with students with disabilities. Teaching both general and special education majors how to collect and interpret the assessment data enables our lab school classrooms to be more inclusive.

References

- Campbell, C. (2013). Research on teacher competency in classroom assessment. *SAGE handbook of research on classroom assessment*, 71-84.
- Chesley, G. M., & Jordan, J. (2012). What's missing from teacher prep? *Educational Leadership*, 69(8), 41-45.
- Cross, J. R., Cross, T., & Frazier, A. D. (2013). Student and teacher attitudes toward giftedness in a two laboratory school environment: A case for conducting a need assessment. *International Association of Laboratory Schools*, 5(1), 1.
- Durst, A. (2010). *Women educators in the progressive era: The women behind Dewey's laboratory school*. New York, NY: Palgrave MacMillan.

- Fleer, M. (2016). The Vygotsky project in education—The theoretical foundations for analysing the relations between the personal, institutional and societal conditions for studying development. In D. S. P. Gedera & P. J. Williams (Eds.), *Activity theory in education: Research and practice* (pp. 1-15). Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publishers.
- Gresham, G. J., Dr. (2012). Financially sustaining university lab schools: One university's story. *International Association of Laboratory Schools*, 2(2), 4.
- Horace Mann. (2013). *About us*. Retrieved from <https://www.nwmissouri.edu/horacemann/About/index.htm>.
- Joseph, L. M., Kastein, L. A., Konrad, M., Chan, P. E., Peters, M. T., & Ressa, V. A. (2014). Collecting and documenting evidence: Methods for helping teachers improve instruction and promote academic success. (2014). *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 50(2), 86-95.
- Knoll, M. (2014). Laboratory school, University of Chicago. In *Encyclopedia of Educational Theory and Philosophy* (Vol. 2, pp. 455-458). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- McCray, E. D., Kamman, M., Brownell, M. T., & Robinson, S. (2017). High leverage practices and evidence-based practices: A promising pair. *High-leverage practices in special education*. Arlington, VA: Council for Exceptional Children & CEEDAR Center.
- National Center of Educational Statistics. (n.d.). Fast Facts. Retrieved from <https://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=59>
- North American Reggio Emilia Alliance. (2018). *International network*. Retrieved from <https://www.reggioalliance.org/reggio-emilia/international-network/>.
- Otis-Wilborn, A., Winn, J., Griffin, C., & Kilgore, K. (2005). Beginning special educators' forays into general education. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, 28, 143-152.
- White, M., & Mason, C. Y. (2006). Components of a successful mentoring program for Beginning special education teachers: Perspectives from new teachers and mentors. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, 29, 191-201.

Author's Biographies

Dr. Jeongae Kang is an assistant professor of special education at Northwest Missouri State University. She has a doctorate degree in special education from the University of North Carolina-Greensboro (UNCG). Dr. Kang earned a master's degree in special education from Purdue University, and a bachelor's degree in English literature and language from Catholic University of Korea, South Korea. Dr. Kang co-authored multiple articles and book chapters on teacher preparation and reading comprehension for students with disabilities. Her research interests are teaching reading for students with disabilities, students with ASD, teacher preparation, and formative assessment.

Mary Shields earned her undergraduate degree in Special Education at Fontbonne University and her Masters in Curriculum and Instruction with an emphasis in reading at Northwest Missouri State University. She has taught special education in public and private, elementary and secondary schools for 15 years. She is currently the resource teacher and librarian for Horace Mann Laboratory School, as well as, an adjunct instructor for the School of Education at Northwest Missouri State University. She is working toward her Doctorate of Education in Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis at the University of Missouri at Columbia.

University and Laboratory School Partnerships

Lisa Clayton, Jeff Cornelius, Chris James and Katie Kinney

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH ALABAMA

Introduction

Professional learning communities (Bullough & Baugh, 2008) remain one of the most salient topics in higher education today, yet the scholarly conversation overlooks the potential of one historic resource—the laboratory school. The original laboratory school concept, an innovative and exciting concept at the time, dates back to the late 1800s (Knoll, 2015). Over the past few decades, the number of laboratory schools has seen a decline (Olwell, 2006). In 1970, the International Association of Laboratory Schools (IALS) reported 197 schools with active memberships (Knoll, 2015). By 1981, the number had been reduced to 123 (Knoll, 2015). Research suggests that teaching programs at universities that have closed laboratory schools struggle to reconstruct relationships with local schools (Olwell, 2006). As a result, universities and laboratory schools need to be aware of issues that have arisen from past laboratory school closures. Based on past research, it is evident that building professional learning communities within a university through public school partnerships is an idea that needs to be recognized (Bullough & Baugh, 2008).

This study will explore cultural behaviors, beliefs, and language between Kilby Laboratory School and the University of North Alabama that help create a unique partnership that is beneficial to both elementary students and preservice teachers. Kilby Laboratory School, located on the campus of the University of North Alabama (UNA), consistently performs at the highest levels of academic achievement. Recently, the school was named as one of the top performing schools in the state of Alabama. In 2017, Kilby Laboratory School scored 99 out of a possible 100 points on the Alabama State Education Report Card in grades three through six, with only two percent of schools in the state scoring 99 or higher. This score was calculated based on student achievement, student growth, and student attendance (“The University,” 2018). A brief summary of the history of UNA and Kilby Laboratory School will be discussed first and then followed with the methodology, findings, and conclusion of the study.

A Brief History of the University of North Alabama and Kilby Laboratory School

The University of North Alabama has a long history of preparing preservice teachers to work in schools. Founded in 1830 as Lagrange College in Colbert County by the Methodist Church, the university was the first state-chartered college in Alabama. In 1855, the campus was moved to Florence, eventually named Florence Wesleyan University (“About Our School,” 2018). Struggling with declining enrollment and funding, the North Alabama Methodist Conference relinquished control of the school to the state under the condition that it become a training school for teachers. The state accepted the offer and the school was renamed Florence State Normal School in 1872, the first school of its kind in the South. Since the major purpose of the institution was to train teachers, a training school was opened with elementary and high school classes meeting in classrooms on the college campus (“University of North Alabama,” 2018). In 1922, during the tenure of Governor Thomas K. Kilby, Kilby Laboratory School was constructed to contain grades one through six, while the high school classes continued to meet in their original location. In 1929, the institution became known as Florence State Teachers College and adopted a four-year curriculum for students majoring in elementary education (“About Our School,” 2018). Over the decades, the college would take on three more name changes and ultimately become recognized as the University of North Alabama. Also, during this period, Kilby Laboratory School was moved to a new location on campus to accommodate the growth of the university and the eventual addition of a kindergarten and a preschool. The physical location of the school makes it easily accessible to university students and faculty. Students are able to walk to the school from most locations on campus.

About Kilby Laboratory School

Kilby Laboratory School is classified as a public school in the state of Alabama. The student population

is comprised of children of university faculty/staff and children of the local community. Currently, the school has approximately 190 students from preschool through the grade six. The school has one classroom in each grade with the exception of kindergarten containing two classrooms.

Each full-time faculty member is certified to teach in his or her subject area field in accordance with Alabama State Department of Education guidelines and has a minimum of three years of teaching experience. All full-time faculty members have advanced degrees and are highly qualified in their subject area field. Additionally, several faculty members teach undergraduate courses for preservice teachers as needed. Four teachers have been recognized with national board certification.

Study Design

The study was designed to capture the cultural behaviors, beliefs, and language between a university and laboratory school. This study utilized an ethnographic design. The particular ethnographic design was a realist ethnography. Creswell (2015) suggested that a realist ethnography may be used when studying cultural themes of a culture-sharing group. This realist ethnographic design was utilized to develop a deeper understanding of cultural themes present between selected stakeholder groups. The study explored the following:

What are the shared cultural behaviors, beliefs, and language of Kilby Laboratory School and the University of North Alabama? Additionally, what structures assist in the creation of this unique partnership that is mutually beneficial to both elementary students and preservice teachers?

Data Collection and Analysis

Qualitative data were collected in the form of structured interviews, observations, and casual conversations. Rich descriptions were analyzed from all three data sources. It was important to triangulate data from different groups (Kilby faculty/staff, preservice teachers, and university partners) and collect data from a variety of methods (structured interviews, observations, and casual conversations) so that interpretations could be supported from multiple data sources (Creswell, 2015). Analysis of these descriptions allowed the researchers to make interpretations and identify themes based on patterns of cultural behaviors, beliefs, and language between Kilby Laboratory School and the University of North Alabama.

Separate group interviews were conducted with

three stakeholder groups: Kilby faculty/staff, preservice teachers, and university partners. The stakeholders participation rates are displayed in Table 1.

Stakeholder Group Participation Rates

STAKEHOLDER GROUPS	MET PARTICIPATION REQUIREMENTS	NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS	PARTICIPATION %
Kilby Faculty	12	11	92
Preservice Teachers	4	4	100
University Partners	9	8	89

Table 1

Guiding questions for structured interviews of each group focused on describing specific roles related to Kilby Laboratory School, describing the culture and climate of Kilby Laboratory School, explaining how Kilby Laboratory School aligns with the mission of the university, identifying factors that play a role in the success of Kilby Laboratory School, and suggestions for future improvement. Observations included the observance of clinical planning sessions between Kilby Laboratory School faculty and university partners. The purpose of the observations was to observe the collaboration of both groups as they created authentic learning opportunities for Kilby Laboratory students and preservice teachers. Casual conversations included conversations with all three stakeholder groups. The purpose of these conversations were to collect additional data related to the study.

Findings

Key findings from this study include the presence of three pedagogical themes common to both partners. These themes include high expectations, a focus on collaboration that interconnects theory and practice, and authentic learning experiences. Summaries and quotes follow to support findings and place them in context with prior research. For the purposes of this section, the three groups of participants will be referred to as laboratory school teachers, preservice teachers, and university partners.

High Expectations: Duality of Mission and Administrative Support

High expectations, described by participants as “duality of mission” and “administrative support” for quality programs, emerged as a universal strength of the partnership. Regarding duality of mission, laboratory school teachers have a combined purpose as a classroom teacher and as a faculty member of the university that supports preservice teachers with broad impact. For example, when discussing the University of North Alabama’s mission statement, which includes a focus on teaching, research, and service, one laboratory teacher stated that she is committed to sharing what she has learned. “My primary role is teaching the students because if I don’t do that, there is nothing for preservice teachers to see. A close second is mentoring the preservice teachers. It is a dual mission. If I am not doing the first part to the best of my ability, I can’t fulfill the dual mission.” The same laboratory school teacher continued: “I have a wider reach because I get to impact future teachers.”

This dual mission finding was confirmed when a university partner reviewed the mission statement and stated: “We are providing educational opportunities for both sets of students. It is a two-way street. It is a win-win for the laboratory students and for the teacher candidates.” Another university partner stated, “We practice at Kilby what we are learning in the university classroom.” These findings suggest that the laboratory school teachers must model high expectations being set in the classroom for future teachers to implement in their own classrooms. The expectation that a partnership will exist and the laboratory school will perform with a dual mission is one reason Kilby Laboratory School is a model for laboratory school success. Prince and Buckley (1993) noted that a laboratory school has a dual nature. They noted that a laboratory school must provide high quality teaching and learning along with quality clinical experiences for prospective teachers.

In addition to duality of mission, participants identified administrative support for quality programs as an important criterion for meeting high expectations. Reflecting on the past, one university partner recalled a time in the University of North Alabama/Kilby Laboratory School’s history where laboratory school teachers were not regarded as highly as university faculty members. The university partner said, “I experienced a time when laboratory school teachers were told you did not belong at certain meetings at the university.” Similarly, several indicated that the level of support

was relatively new. As one laboratory school teacher explained: “The bottom line is the importance in having a relationship, and it was not always here.” This finding is not surprising, given the history of the field. In fact, an increasing number of laboratory schools have been closed, or discussed closing, due to increased pressure to produce research and downplaying of service functions (Olwell, 2006). Additionally, laboratory school operations have been undermined by financial costs at the expense of the university (Prince & Buckley, 1993).

To achieve this level of administrative support, The University of North Alabama and Kilby Laboratory School engaged in a transformation of culture and renewed behaviors and beliefs between the campus community and the laboratory school. Today, the laboratory school is an integral part of not only the College of Education and Human Sciences, but also claimed as a jewel on campus. It is an integral piece of the preparation process for future educators. Because of this transformation over the last few decades, one university partner stated, “We are creative because of the university’s efforts to have something unique to enrich the lives of students.” In addition, one laboratory school teacher stated, “One of the factors leading to Kilby Laboratory School’s success is the support from the university administration.” Hall, Peden, and Maurer (2017) affirm the importance of high-quality early childhood settings with well-trained teachers. Additionally, they suggest that laboratory school teachers are the coaches and mentors to undergraduate students.

Collaboration Between the University and The Laboratory School

Collaboration, described as the strength of the “inviting climate” and the reward of “purposefully planning lessons” for future teachers, was identified as another element integral to success. When exploring the components of an inviting environment, participants discussed the physical location of Kilby Laboratory School being located on the campus of the University of North Alabama as an asset. On a daily basis, laboratory school teachers and students are interacting with university faculty and preservice teachers. One university partner stated, “It’s a natural partnership” when discussing the laboratory schools’ open-door policy for preservice teachers and university faculty to engage in teaching, research, and service daily. The open-door policy at Kilby Laboratory School permits preservice teachers and university partners to enter the building without a scheduled appointment, sign in at the office and enter the

classrooms. The laboratory school classrooms are open for teaching, research, and service experiences. In an informal discussion, one preservice teacher explained the inviting culture by stating, “When I first came to college, I was not from here so I did not know any local schools. The laboratory school was very welcoming and invited me to come in as much as I wanted.” One laboratory school teacher described the setting as “providing elementary education majors the opportunity to actively participate at the laboratory school to gain valuable experience.” This finding is corroborated in the interview with preservice teachers. For example, preservice teachers stated, “This is a great place to practice in a positive environment with great role models.” University partners explained, “Kilby Laboratory School is welcoming and the partnership is genuine. Another university partner described the laboratory school as “a really happy place and very peaceful.” One university partner described the partnership as “each group contributes 50% to the partnership.” This explained the inherent rapport between the two groups when the university partner said, “We have so much trust for our Kilby Laboratory teachers. They are invaluable.” This finding also supports previous research function that suggests that the function of a laboratory school is to connect theory, observation, and practice (Jaggars, 1946).

Collaboration between Kilby Laboratory School and the university provides a foundation for purposeful planning, such as sharing research, pedagogy, expertise, and talents. One laboratory teacher explained, “Students have opportunities here because they have more people involved in their lives which builds their confidence.” In the observed collaborative planning meetings, laboratory school teachers adapted the traditional daily schedule to showcase research and instructional decision-making in the classroom. As one university partner stated, “The quality of the program is enhanced because we are both there.” Another university partner stated, “My teaching style has so much field-based experience to enhance the learning. It comes back to the value of the school.” This finding confirms prior literature, which supports the lab school being a place to support learning (Harms & Tracy, 2006).

Authentic Learning Experiences: Real-life Practice and Constructive Feedback

In the third key finding, participants report that the laboratory school-university partnership provides “authentic learning experiences” for future teachers.

As described in a landmark study by Jaggars (1946), authentic learning experiences mirror real-life and are personally relevant. Jaggars (1946) suggests that a person only learns by doing. Authentic learning experiences allow preservice teachers to observe, investigate, and engage in how theory actually impacts practice. In particular, participants cited “real-life practice” and “constructive feedback” as two types of experiences that made this learning central. For example, in one observed planning meeting, a laboratory school teacher expressed pleasure with knowing the objectives of the upcoming lesson, so she could prepare to feature the intended learning outcomes for preservice teachers. As she stated, “I am so excited to share things that work for me in my classroom.” The university partner further stated, “I would love my students to hear from you, instead of just our course textbook.” One laboratory teacher confirmed this belief by stating, “All learners learn better by doing. Kilby Laboratory School is an excellent place to learn by doing which can make or break a first-year teacher.” In an informal conversation, one preservice teacher stated, “I learn better when I am doing things. I don’t think you can learn how to be a teacher without doing it. I love to be hands-on.” In an informal conversation, one laboratory school teacher explained, “Preservice teachers get to see what is going on behind the scenes when they come to Kilby.” This behind the scenes look at the inner-workings of a school fosters the authenticity of their practice.

Finally, both university partners and laboratory school teachers agreed that the ability to provide and receive constructive feedback fosters everyone’s professional growth. In informal discussions with laboratory teachers, one teacher explained it this way: “preservice teachers are sharing new teaching strategies with us at the laboratory school based on what they are learning in the classroom.” This level of sharing provides not only constructive feedback for the preservice teacher on his or her implementation, but also constructive feedback in the form of job-embedded professional development. One partner described the follow-up feedback experience by describing the dual role the teachers play with both sets of students. The partner stated, “After a clinical at Kilby Laboratory School, many times the teacher will step back and talk to the preservice teachers.” Dweck (2014) suggests that reflecting on the authentic learning experiences and being willing to make changes is a “growth mindset.” The laboratory school helps shape preservice teachers’ growth mindset by providing feedback to help preservice teachers implement

metacognitive strategies to analyze their teaching. Preservice teacher interviews reveal a strong belief in academics with a reflective, student growth mindset.

Despite laboratory schools engaging in partnerships with universities to demonstrate theory to practice, some continue to question if the laboratory school model provides real-life experiences. A university partner challenged this critique by stating, “The laboratory school provides excellent experiential opportunities for students and allows us to maximize the goal and then we can accommodate in other situations.” Another university partner stated, “The culture and climate allow our students to take some risks. The Kilby Laboratory School teachers allow this. They allow them to make mistakes and then step in at the moment and help handle a situation.” The university partner continued, “It is a safe environment for a future teacher to learn beginner teaching skills.” When explaining the atmosphere at Kilby Laboratory School, one teacher stated, “The atmosphere at the laboratory school is academic oriented instead of controlling the masses.” Informal discussions with laboratory school teachers concluded that “Teaching is a practice. It is called a practice because it changes. We want to show them how we teach and then they can take it and tweak it for their future classroom.” This study aligns with existing research about how the perception of an individual’s learning culture may transfer knowledge to teaching (Banerjee, Gupta, & Bates, 2017).

Conclusion

This story of a historic laboratory school that wins statewide awards for top performance is based on a strategic laboratory school-university partnership. The data revealed three themes consistent with creating a mutually beneficial partnership for elementary students and preservice teachers. The themes identified include: (1) high expectation environment with strong administrative support, (2) collaborative culture, and (3) presence of authentic learning experiences comprising of real-life practices and constructive feedback. These findings have implications for both research and practice.

The generalizability of this study is limited due to the data collection being from a single laboratory school and a single university. Data will need to be collected from more laboratory schools affiliated with higher education institutions. Additionally, to identify more objective outcomes, future research would be beneficial exploring the relationship between a larger sample of laboratory schools and undergraduate teacher preparation programs.

Regarding practice, administrators should create conditions to replicate the three key themes in their respective educational settings. Additionally, administrators should concentrate on creating a culture that focuses on student learning. DuFour and Mattos (2013) stated, “The most powerful strategy for improving both teaching and learning is to create the collaborative culture and collective responsibility of a professional learning community” (p. 37).

Laboratory schools offer promise as both top performing schools and professional learning communities if they are viewed as strategic partners by university leaders. By creating learning opportunities for preservice teachers in a collaborative environment, with high expectations and authentic learning experiences, the opportunity exists to impact the field of education from both a regional and global perspective.

References

- About Our School | University of North Alabama. (2018). Retrieved October 8, 2018, from <https://www.una.edu/kilby/about-our-school.html>
- Banerjee, P., Gupta, R., & Bates, R. (2017). Influence of Organizational Learning Culture on Knowledge Worker’s Motivation to Transfer Training: Testing Moderating Effects of Learning Transfer Climate. *Current Psychology*, (3), 606.
- Bullough, R., & Baugh, S. (2008). Building Professional Learning Communities within a University-Public School Partnership. *Theory Into Practice*, (4), 286. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00405840802329169>
- Creswell, J. W. (2015). *Educational research : planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (Fifth). Pearson.
- DuFour, R., & Mattos, M. (2013). How Do Principals Really Improve Schools? *Educational Leadership*, 70(7), 34–40.
- Dweck, C. (2014). Teachers’ Mindsets: “EVERY STUDENT HAS SOMETHING TO TEACH ME.” *Educational Horizons*, 93(2), 10–14.
- Hall, A. H., Peden, J. G., & Maurer, T. W. (2017). Assessing Birth to Age 5 Teaching Methods at a University Laboratory School. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 31(2), 270.
- Harms, T., & Tracy, R. (2006). Linking Research to Best Practice: University Laboratory Schools in Early Childhood Education. *YC Young Children; Washington*, 61(4), 89–93.
- Jaggers, C., H. (1946). The Function of the Laboratory School. *Peabody Journal of Education*, (5), 276.
- Knoll, M. (2015). John Dewey as Administrator: The Inglorious End of the Laboratory School in Chicago. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 47(2), 203–252.

Olwell, R. B. (2006). The Closing of Laboratory Schools and the Changing Role of University Schools of Education. *American Educational History Journal*, 33(2), 1–6.

Prince, J., & Buckley, M. (1993). The laboratory school: Has its time come again? *Education*, 113(3), 473.

The University of North Alabama's Kilby Laboratory School Earns 99 Out of 100 Points on DOE Report Card. (2018). Retrieved October 8, 2018, from <https://www.una.edu/pressroom/detail.php?id=1308&date=2018-02-07>

University of North Alabama (UNA). (2018). Retrieved October 8, 2018, from <http://www.encyclopediaofalabama.org/article/h-3009>

Author's Biographies

Lisa Clayton, Ed.D. is a professor of Elementary Education at the University of North Alabama in the Department of Elementary Education. She has 18 years of experience in education. Currently, as a professor, she teaches undergraduate and graduate students and supervises interns. Before starting to work at the university, she was recognized as a National Board Certified Teacher in the area of Early Childhood Generalist.

Jeff Cornelius, Ed.D. is an associate professor of Instructional Leadership at the University of North Alabama. Prior to joining higher education, he was employed in a public school district for 15 years while serving as teacher, assistant principal, principal, and assistant superintendent. He has over 12 years of administrative experience.

Chris James, Ph.D. is currently completing his twenty-second year in education. During his career, he has served as a secondary mathematics teacher, assistant principal, principal and director of Kilby Laboratory School. Presently, he teaches graduate level coursework in the Instructional Leadership and Teacher Leader programs at the University of North Alabama.

Katie Kinney, Ph.D. is completing her twenty-first year in education. During her career, she has served as an elementary teacher, an instructional technology specialist for the Northwest region of Alabama, and a professor of elementary education. She currently serves as the Interim Dean of the College of Education and Human Sciences at the University of North Alabama.

Stakeholder Perceptions: Impact of a University-Based Laboratory School on a Campus-Based Educator Preparation Program

Sandy H. Seipel, Ed.D

“I think the main purpose of a laboratory school is to create opportunities for education majors and also create opportunities for children to have the best education they can with innovative, top-notch technology skills, curriculum methods, so it is a beautiful dichotomy,” Cheryl, School of Education faculty member. “I think as teachers in a laboratory school, you have to follow the latest research and trends, and talk as a team where you’re going and expose university students to the best educational experiences,” Joe, laboratory school instructor. “A laboratory school uses best practices to teach university students so they know what is best for children,” Kim, parent of laboratory school student.

These statements, from instructors, professors, and parents at Northwest Missouri State University and Horace Mann Laboratory School, signify the purpose of a laboratory school. The landscape of laboratory schools has changed significantly over the past 20 years, with many closing their doors. In concert with educational changes, a steady 35-year decline in federal and state funding and a decline in university enrollment created challenging times for universities impacting laboratory school programming and services (Barbour & McBride, 2017). Former U.S. Secretary of Education King expressed “as an educator, I know that one of the strongest in-school influences on students is the teacher in front of the classroom” (U.S. Department of Education, 2016, para 4). The words of King resonate the importance of practice within educator preparation programs to hone skills to be effective educators in an ever-changing world. The perceptions of a laboratory school’s stakeholders and how stakeholders are key factors in establishing program effectiveness reflects impacts of a program (Aksoydan & Mizikaci, 2015; Eden & Ackermann, 1998).

This qualitative case study examined stakeholder perceptions of the impact of one university-based laboratory school on a campus-based educator preparation program. A decrease in the number of university-based laboratory schools requires current laboratory school programs evaluate strengths and weaknesses to provide quality evaluative data to ensure continued viability.

According to an American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) (2013) report, programs that provide actual practice opportunities for teacher candidates produce higher quality teachers.

This study was launched from the realization that many years of research and changes in the higher education landscape, including the closing of many laboratory schools, have not taken into account the perceptions of stakeholders when making decisions about laboratory schools and educator preparation programs (Barbour & McBride, 2017). The researcher conducted an investigation to view stakeholder perceptions, working to extend research and inform future decision making by laboratory schools and educator preparation programs. As valuable components of educator preparation programs, laboratory schools support model teaching practices to extend curriculum development and research (Gresham, 2012; Barbour & McBride, 2017). The constructivist philosophy used in laboratory schools today was influenced by John Dewey (Gresham, 2012).

Research Question

The overarching research question that guided this study was, how do stakeholders view the impact of a university-based laboratory school on a campus-based educator preparation program at one midwest university?

Methods and Findings

Participants in this study were laboratory school and university stakeholders who provided varying perspectives about the impact of a university-based laboratory school and a campus-based educator preparation program. Stakeholders included educator preparation faculty, students, and administrators and laboratory school instructors and parents. Interviews, focus groups, and surveys included 75 participants providing necessary qualitative data (Field, 2013; Krueger & Casey, 2015; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Seidman, 2013). As an insider researcher (Drake & Heath, 2011; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016;

Unluer, 2012), the researcher was aware of biases and took steps to conduct error-free research (Aguilar, 1981) and frame research beyond friendships with colleagues (Drake & Heath, 2011) to report accurate data to inform practice.

Participants across stakeholder groups overwhelmingly supported the continuation of the laboratory school given the perceived benefits for students in the educator preparation program. Through interviews, focus groups, artifact collection, and surveys with faculty, administrators, laboratory-school teachers and parents, and university students, the researcher was able to collect relevant data to share the story of impact of one university-based laboratory school on one campus-based educator preparation program. Emergent themes were coded and the researcher examined themes and referred literature in support of themes (Creswell, 2014; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Four main themes emerged that connected the impact of the laboratory school to the educator preparation program: experimentation; importance of early practice and the ability to bridge theory to practice; expertise of faculty and laboratory school instructors; and safety of environment to practice new learning.

Experimentation

Participants recognized experimentation as a major impact of a laboratory school that separates the Northwest Missouri State University educator preparation program from other programs. Sam, laboratory school instructor commented, it is a place where you can do “instructional things you cannot do in other places.” Study participants described experimentation as trying new and different instructional practices, innovative learning, and the ability to see what happens when applying new strategies. Other participants described experimentation as project-based learning, staying current on research, being able to implement new research, and seeing learning from a fresh perspective.

Research evidence supports that every child learns differently, but federal and state standards and mandates restrict the level of experimentation that occurs in the classroom for fear of assessment repercussions (Norton, 2016), which further substantiates the need for experimentation. Emily, educator preparation student, stated that the laboratory school “provides a space for us to be able to see what happens when we apply a specific strategy or a specific theory in the classroom.” Albert, School of Education faculty member offered “the basic assumption is that we can teach children better if we learn from them. That’s a significant difference between a

lab school and a different setting.” Norton (2016) noted that the evolution of education from a revolutionary management concept was a supervisory role by teachers instead of instructional teaching. Teaching schools provided educator candidates with instructional learning techniques to influence the interactions in the classroom (Norton, 2016), substantiating the need for hands-on learning for educator preparation students.

Early Practice and Ability to Bridge Theory to Practice

Experiences starting as freshman were highlighted as making a large impact on learning. “In our lab school, theory to practice is seamless. It’s not even negotiable, it’s something that just occurs fluidly,” Carl, School of Education professor. Students referred to early interactions with children through observations and field experiences provided a better understanding and awareness of learning. Milli, educator preparation faculty member, confirmed the importance of early interaction with children when commenting,

We’re able to provide our teacher candidates with an experience that mirrors what they’re reading in their textbooks and to say it is possible. We also understand whenever you go into schools that are not this way that is not going to happen. Here, you see that it is attainable.

Many educator preparation students enter their final year of college believing they are well prepared for the classroom setting only to find they are not prepared when they enter into a first teaching position (Bowman & Herrelko, 2014). The struggle of educator preparation programs is to provide practice for education students that allows for implementation of theory to practice (Bowman & Herrelko, 2014). Study participants identified a seamless implementation from theory to practice and articulated the importance of laying a strong foundation of early hands-on practice in the lab school for learning that provides a paradigm shift.

A knowledge-based shift that involves actual interaction with children takes learning to the next level according to study participants, and provides immediate learning and feedback from faculty members. Bowman and Herrelko (2014) share the dilemma of education students resorting to intuitive teaching resulting in teaching how they were taught instead of what was learned in coursework. One survey participant highlighted this when stating, “to allow college students to implement current research-based practices in real settings with real children as they learn the content through coursework is what the laboratory school provides.”

Table 1

Stakeholder Perception Themes Of The Impact of One University-Based Laboratory School on One Educator preparation Program

THEME	RESPONSE FREQUENCY	CATEGORIES INCLUDED
Experimentation	51	Innovation Unique experiences Model practices Fresh perspective Learn new things Difference between lab and other schools Different experiences Research
Early practice and ability to bridge theory to practice	39	Early practice Practice as freshman Early opportunities Awareness early in program Learn to teach children Work with actual children Child development from children not books Attainable learning Knowledge-based shift Paradigm shift
Expertise of faculty and teachers	25	High expectations Collaboration of faculty and teacher Willingness to help students Prepare best qualified candidates Prepare students Produce superior educator
Safety and support of environment to practice new learning	18	Opportunity to practice Safe environment with feedback Time to figure it out with help

Expertise of Faculty and Teachers

Stakeholders addressed the expertise of faculty and teachers in terms of knowledge, skill, and willingness to work with and prepare the best teacher candidates in a laboratory school. Participants discussed high expectations, collaboration, data teams, School of Education course redesign efforts, highly qualified teachers in all classrooms, and a high level of engagement with university students as key factors in the expertise of faculty. Several laboratory school parents addressed the expertise and number of qualified instructors working with elementary students as making a large impact on the decision to have children in the laboratory school; the quality of the instructor is a significant variable that influences student success (William, 2014). According to Danielson (1996) students taught by a high rated

instructor will learn 30 percent more than students taught by a low rated instructor. One survey participant offered “I liked that my child would experience a wide array of experiences from pre-service teachers to content specialists to master teachers all in a single classroom.”

Safety and Support of Environment to Practice New Learning

The majority of participants opined that a safe environment allowed instructors and students to fail forward with support and guidance. A safe environment according to Kara, educator preparation student, means the environment is a safe place to “figure out how to do something,” is supportive, and allows for practice and failure. University students are allowed time to build relationships with students in laboratory school

classrooms and thus provide learning that meets the needs of the whole child, assisted by many professionals to provide a successful learning experience. As one survey participant stated, “the lab school provided me the opportunity to see what works best for my students and not worry about whether I will get in trouble for not sticking to a mandated schedule.” Thomas, educator preparation student resonated this sentiment, “the lab school helped me to learn more about myself as a person and it has also helped me to become a more patient person.” According to O’Malley et al (2014), relationships in the academic setting provide connectedness and a sense of belonging that contributes to the overall climate of instruction and learning.

Complex System

One overarching theme that was evident across all stakeholder groups was the complexity of the organization in relation to the laboratory school and educator preparation system. Nan, laboratory school instructor expressed the complexity, “it is one of the hardest jobs to explain to someone, you are working with little ones, but you are also working with university students, and how you are able to balance all of it.” When asked to explain the complexity, Steve, faculty member, stated that “it is hard to even explain until you are immersed in the environment that it is fast paced, always changing, and very rewarding to work with children and university students.” Taylor, educator preparation student, confirmed that “it is a lot more complex than anyone realizes and you feel like you are under a camera all the time.” As seen through multiple comments, teachers must prepare and instruct the children in their classrooms while also preparing and instructing university level students. The laboratory school teacher provides feedback to the students and helps them prepare lessons and activities to ensure they are meeting the needs of all children. A laboratory school instructor described the complexity as, “the laboratory school and educator preparation program is a different world kind of experience and one wouldn’t exist without the other.”

Implications

Based on 75 responses from ten interviews, five focus groups, and survey participants, the researcher found clear associations between perceived impacts of a laboratory school to an educator preparation program.

Existing literature is weak in the area of stakeholder perception pertaining to laboratory schools and suggests more research is needed (Gresham, 2012; Helton, 2008). Barbour and McBride (2017) provide relevant research pertaining to the purpose and function of laboratory schools. In times of dramatic budget cuts and program realignment, higher education institutions must share the work being done in laboratory schools with educators around the world.

Despite the limitations of the research being conducted at only one laboratory school and one university educator preparation program, the findings have general implications for further research. Analysis of narratives and survey results regarding negative responses were minimal and resulted in no themes being developed from stakeholder responses. The overwhelmingly supportive response across all stakeholder groups (university administration, faculty, students; and laboratory school instructors, parents, and administration), offers recommendations in the following areas:

1. Promoting relevancy of laboratory schools in the current educational and political environment through publication of research. The current educational environment is changing (Barbour & McBride, 2017), and higher education must examine the relevancy of research. Research studies provide relevancy to laboratory school programs while promoting the importance of laboratory schools within a university educator preparation setting. Researchers and educators associated with laboratory schools must share research findings to promote the significance of educator preparation when working with a laboratory school.
2. Provide educational value of the laboratory school through community outreach professional development to the schools in the university geographic region. Not only must a laboratory school promote relevancy to the larger educational system, but must also promote relevancy in the community through professional development opportunities. Study participants recognized the expertise of faculty and instructors in preparing educator preparation students for future success. This expertise should be shared with area school educators and through publication to promote a higher level of learning for all students.
3. External partnerships with organizations and businesses to develop research initiatives. As the educational landscape continues to change, laboratory

schools must redefine their role in higher education. External partnerships provide focus on areas of impact and changes in education, and may provide additional resources and funding. Higher education institutions collaborate with external partners, alumni, and community entities to provide high quality experiences for university students. Through these collaborations, higher education institutions and laboratory schools must stress the importance of educator preparation focused on student impact.

Conclusion

Laboratory schools continually face struggles and increased scrutiny as the educational landscape continues to change. Findings from this study suggest that stakeholders view the impact of a laboratory school on a campus-based educator preparation program as positive and shared stories related to successes and struggles. Considering the context of stakeholder perceptions of experimentation, early practice and ability to bridge theory to practice, expertise of faculty and teachers, and safety and support of environment to practice new learning, laboratory schools should consider a greater emphasis on promoting research, extending professional development, and cultivating external partnerships (Gresham, 2012; Barbour & McBride, 2017; O'Malley, et al., 2015). Evie, School of Education faculty member stated, "The lab school is the singular foundation of our entire profession-based learning program, that without it, we wouldn't have the institution that we have." Study participants shared great knowledge and insight about the experiences university students gain in a hands-on environment, where it is acceptable to have difficult conversations about curriculum and instructional strategies and learn from mistakes, all while preparing to be an effective instructor. Visibility and recognition of laboratory-school initiatives and programs is instrumental in continuing the work of laboratory schools located on the campuses of higher education institutions (Blakely, 2009). A university administrator stressing the importance of the laboratory school stated, "The laboratory school is a treasure, but I wish it wasn't a hidden gem."

References

- Aguilar, J. L. (1981). Insider research: An ethnography of a debate. In D. A. Messerschmidt (Ed.), *Anthropologists at home in North America*, (pp. 255–282). Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press
- Aksoydan, E., & Mizikaci, F. (2015). Evaluation of nutrition and dietetic programs in Turkey as perceived by stakeholders. *Nutrition and Dietetics*, 72, 176–182. Doi: 10.1111/1747.0080.12161
- American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. (2013). *The changing teacher preparation profession*. New York, NY: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.
- Barbour, N., & McBride, B. (2017). *The future of child development lab schools*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Bowman, C. L., & Herrelko, J. M. (2014). Bridging theory to practice with classroom rounds. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 14(4), 51-66. doi: 10.14434/josotl.v14i4.5185
- Coble, C., Edelfelt, R., & Kettlewell, J. (2004). *Who's in charge here? The changing landscape of teacher preparation in America*. Retrieved September 2, 2017 from <http://www.ecs.org/clearinghouse/54/36/5436/htm>
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Danielson, C. (1996). *Enhancing professional practice: A framework for teaching, 2nd edition*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Drake, P., & Heath, L. (2011). *Practitioner research at doctoral level*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Eden, C., & Ackermann, F. (1998). *Making strategy: The journey of strategic management*. London, England: Sage.
- Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics and sex and drugs and rock 'n' roll* (4th ed.). London, England: Sage.
- Green, J. A. (1905). *The educational ideas of Pestalozzi*. London: University Tutorial Press
- Gresham, G. (2012). *Educational lab schools & Stephen F. Austin State University*. Nacogdoches, TX: Stephen F. Austin State University Press.
- Helton, J. (2008). A historical analysis of teacher preparation program content beginning with teacher normal colleges in 1839 through school district alternative certification programs in 2007 (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3319245)
- King, J. A., Morris, L. L., & Fitz-Gibbon, C. T. (1987). *How to assess program implementation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Krueger, R. A., & Casey, M. A. (2015). *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Norton, M. S. (2016). *Guiding curriculum development: The need to return to local control*. Lanham, MD: Rowman.
- O'Malley, M., Voight, A., & Renshaw, T. (2015). School climate, family structure, and academic achievement: A study of moderation effects. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 30(10), 142-157.

- Seidman, I. (2013). *Interviewing as qualitative research*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- U.S. Department of Education. (2016). *Improving teacher preparation: Building on innovation*. Retrieved from <https://www.ed.gov/teacherprep>
- Unluer, S. (2012). Being an insider researcher while conducting case study research. *Qualitative Report, 17*, 1–14. Retrieved from <http://nsuworks.nova.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1752&context=tqr>
- Weih, T. G., & Ensworth, L. (2006). The impact of a teacher education course taught in a university laboratory setting. *National Association of Laboratory Schools Journal, 30*, 22–30.
- Wiliam, D. (2014). The formative evaluation of teaching performance. (Report No. 137). Center for Strategic Education. East Melbourne Victoria. Retrieved from <https://www.dylanwiliam.org>

Author Biography

Sandy H. Seipel, Ed.D is an assistant professor of early childhood education at Northwest Missouri State University in Maryville, Missouri. She spent four years as the principal of Horace Mann Laboratory School at Northwest Missouri State University. She is the past president of the Northwest District Missouri State Teachers Association. Her research interests include early childhood education, educator preparation, and multi-age education.

Process Drama and Writing in K-12 Classrooms: A Review of the Literature

Gretchen Dodson, Ph.D Candidate

THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH FLORIDA

In the summer of 2014, a grant from the Georgia Independent School Association allowed me to attend a one-week intensive workshop at the Second City Training Center in Chicago, IL. I spent my mornings studying improvisational acting and my afternoons studying comedy sketch writing. During the prior year, I used improv with middle school students in an after-school enrichment program at a K-8 laboratory school, and I wanted professional training. As a teacher of language arts, I was especially interested in the design of Second City's writers' workshop. I attended as a student of writing, but I paid close attention to the teaching methodology used in the class.

It quickly became evident that the improv class and the sketch writing class were closely linked. We used many of the same warm up activities in both classes. In the writing class, we often began with improv, and then wrote sketches based on improv scenes or characters we created. I learned this is the way the Second City Theater professional actors write their own shows; they begin with improv, and then elaborate their ideas into sketches.

I went back to my middle school students armed with this new learning. Out of 62 students in fifth through eighth grades, 22 of them participated in our after school "comedy troupe." The students quickly learned everything I had to offer, so the next summer I went back for two more weeks of training.

By the end of my third year working with the after-school group, I noticed some trends. Our school was small, and I taught language arts for all sixth and seventh grade students. I was able to see their writing development over a two-year period. The students in the comedy troupe wrote narratives with rich, interesting characters. I suspected that they were using the character-building skills they learned in improv as they created characters for their creative writing. At times, the characters they created during improv made appearances in their short stories. Other students made progress as well, but their characters were not as dynamic as the characters created by some of the improv students. The more dynamic characters had more than names and physical descriptions. They had motivations, back-stories, and quirks. These were all

things we worked on developing in improv.

At the end of eighth grade, our students create a play or short film to present to their parents as a final project. In 2016, our eighth graders had fallen in love with Shakespeare, and they wanted to find a way to present *Hamlet*, *Macbeth*, and *Romeo and Juliet*. All but one of the students spent at least one semester in the improv group. Working with another teacher, the eighth graders used their improv skills to create their own "Shakespeare in 30 minutes" show. They began by using improvisational techniques to brainstorm and pitch ideas. They never wrote a script, but worked and reworked their ideas into a presentation for their parents.

So, were the anecdotal gains I observed related to our drama work? Possibly. They could have simply been related to their growth as writers in general and a result of regular language arts instruction. It could also be argued that the students who participated in a voluntary after-school activity that included drama, storytelling, and writing would have a natural inclination and talent for writing. Or further, it could be that their work with me after school created a more relaxed classroom environment that allowed them to improve their writing. With this situation in mind, I looked to the literature to trace the relationship between improvisational acting and achievement in writing.

Improv and Process Drama

Short form improvisation, first developed in the 1950s by Paul Sills and Viola Spolin, takes the form of three to five minute games based on the rule "Yes, and" (DeMichele, 2015). The "Yes, and" rule means that the players will accept any offer given by another player and add to it in an effort to enhance the scene and keep it going. DeMichele (2015) argues that the "Yes, and" rule helps build collaboration and spontaneity in scene work. Long form improv, in which a scene or series of scenes may build from five minutes upwards, uses the same "Yes, and" rule but gives time for the actors to develop characters, emotions, and elaborate story lines. Long form improv is, in essence, an improvised play. It can be

one long scene, or a series of scenes connected by a theme and may last over an hour (Leep, 2008). Both types of improvisational acting are performance oriented.

Process drama, often called drama in education or creative drama, is improvised classroom drama (Wagner & Barnett, 1998). Process drama was pioneered by Dorothy Heathcote in the 1960s (O'Neill, 1995). The purpose of process drama is not to perform for an outside audience, but rather to gain a deeper understanding of literature, a historical event, a science concept, or to create empathy with others by engaging deeply with the text or content (Wagner and Barnett, 1998). Neelands, Booth and Ziegler (1993) characterize process drama as being focused on the group, rather than the individual, and having a goal of "making sense of new information and human experience" (p. 15). Heathcote (1984) states that drama is "living through, struggling through, and doing" (138). Process drama allows children to bend the rules of time and space, and to take up multiple perspectives and points of view in order to explore a world of their own creation (Heathcote, 1984).

Writing

Theoretically, writing requires many of the same perspective shifts that are necessary in dramatic engagement. The connection between drama and writing has roots in the theories of Lev Vygotsky in several ways. First, Vygotsky (1978) argues that play and social interaction are essential to development in young children because the world of "play creates a zone of proximal development" into which the child can grow (102). Process drama, which is both social and focused on imaginative play, creates this zone. Second, Vygotsky (1978) theorized that the beginning of writing for children occurs long before the child picks up a crayon or pencil; it begins with a gesture. This gesture is a first order symbol. Writing, however, is a second order symbol. (Vygotsky, 1978). This means that children must work through two layers of making meaning to go from sounds they make to form words, and then use symbols for those sounds on paper to create writing. Drama helps to connect the first and second order meaning systems. Third, Vygotsky (1978) found that when young children draw, they are not so much making symbols on paper as they are extending a gesture with a pencil. For example, a pointed finger in the air becomes a pointed arrow on a page. To take this idea further, consider that Vygotsky (1978) also discovered that in drawing, an integral part of early writing, children often switch back and forth

between writing and dramatizing what they are wishing to express. Therefore, drama, with its connection of thoughts, movement, and spoken text, creates a natural conduit from the spoken word to the written word.

The Common Core Anchor Standards for Writing (2010) offer guidance about goals for student writing. At all levels, students will write for three main purposes: to present and support an argument, to inform, and to develop a narrative. In addition to this, students are expected to attend to style, organization, audience, and purpose. Students use the writing process to plan, write, revise, and edit. They also use technology to assist with research, writing, and collaboration (Common Core, 2010).

Teachers often use some form of the writing process in their writing instruction that typically includes time for planning, composing, and revising (Sharp, 2016). After analyzing six different models of the writing process, Sharp (2016) reminds teachers that writing is a cyclical process, not linear, and that individuals all have unique writing processes. Good writing instruction should include time within the writing process for reflection, as this allows writers to tap into higher order thinking (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Sharp, 2016). In a meta-analysis of 29 studies conducted in grades 1-12, Graham and Sandmel (2011) found that using a process writing model of instruction demonstrated modest but measurable improvement in students' writing. However, Graham and Sandmel (2011) noted that even though gains were statistically significant, they were only marginally significant, and this significance was only seen in studies of average students. Struggling students did not show significant growth through the writing process model of instruction (Graham & Sandmel, 2011). This indicates that better writing instruction is needed.

What is good writing instruction? Graham, McKeown, Kihara, and Harris (2012) conducted a meta-analysis to pinpoint effectual writing instruction practices in the elementary grades. This study found that good writing instruction is comprehensive in nature. For example, Graham et al. (2012) reported that students need explicit instruction not just in a process for writing, but they also need strategies for planning and writing in different genres, support for engaging their minds creatively, instruction in text structures, and practice with handwriting or keyboarding. Along with explicit instruction, a comprehensive writing curriculum helps students set goals for their own writing, allows them to work both individually and collaboratively, and uses assessment as an instructional tool (Graham et al., 2012). Finally, a complete writing program gives

students a variety of ways in which to write, as in pencil and paper or with word processing, and gives students ample time to write (Graham et al., 2012).

What is good writing? In the Common Core Anchor Writing Standards (2010), teachers assess writing based on valid reasoning, organization, style, purpose, audience and conventions. Aull (2015) divides the Common Core writing goals into four categories: “structure/cohesion, critical thinking/evaluation, argument, and ...skillful use or mastery of language and mechanics” (p. 61). The Six Trait Model, a common writing assessment strategy developed by Vicki Spandel, evaluates writing by looking at idea development, organization, voice, word choice, sentence fluency, and conventions (Spandel & Stiggins, 1990). These two systems overlap, and several of the studies I analyzed in this literature review assessed writing with various combinations of these traits (e.g. Anderson, 2012; McNaughton, 1997; Roubicek, 1983).

Purpose

My original interest in improv led me to process drama, a powerful practice that pulls together creativity and imagination with active, discovery based learning. The purpose of this paper is to review the literature concerning the connection between process drama and writing. I seek to answer the following question: In what ways does process drama influence student writing when used as an instructional or compositional tool in the K-12 classroom?

Methods

Search Terms and Criteria

To collect relevant research on the topic, I used a three-phase search process using the key words: *process drama, writing, and literacy*. I looked for studies that focused on teachers using process drama, also identified as classroom drama or creative drama, as a tool or catalyst for writing in K-12 schools. I looked for articles dating to 1967, which is the earliest reference to an article written by Dorothy Heathcote, who is the founding mother of process drama.

I excluded practitioner articles because I wanted to report well-designed research rather than anecdotal evidence. I also excluded studies that used process drama but did not assess or discuss student writing outcomes or attitudes toward writing. As I was interested in K-12 classrooms, I excluded articles that reported only on pre-K or higher education outcomes.

Search Procedures and Results

I used three different search procedures to identify the literature: (1) A systematic combination of key terms and their derivations in five databases. (2) I conducted a search of nine key journals in the field of literacy and/or drama education. (3) I used the bibliographies of these 13 articles for the third part of my search.

Sixteen articles met the criteria for this review of literature. The articles range in publication date from 1983 to 2016. One article is a meta-analysis of articles from 1964-1984. Two are mixed methods articles combining both quantitative and qualitative research. Six studies are purely quantitative in nature. The remaining seven studies are qualitative, including four case studies.

Data Analysis Process

I analyzed the data in these 16 studies using an open coding process as described by Ryan and Bernard (2003). I used a color coding system as I read the articles on an electronic notebook platform. I looked for repetitions within articles, but I also looked for words or phrases that recurred throughout the body of the 16 texts. This method provided several key constructs that appeared in multiple studies: writing in role, motivation, imagination, language usage, writing with ease, purpose, genres, literacy skills, fluency, and making meaning.

I then turned my attention to the individual findings of each article. I listed the major findings in a chart. I used my color coding method again to determine which results appeared in multiple studies. I then looked for ways in which these ideas connected with each other. To do this, I listed key findings from each study and then color-coded the repetitions across the studies. For example, I highlighted the word “fluency” in purple and noted that fluency was discussed in four studies. As I continued this process with all the key constructs, I noticed that in 11 of the 16 studies, the researchers connected gains in motivation, language use, audience and purpose to the fact that students were writing in role or writing in context. (e.g. Anderson, 2012; Crumpler & Schneider, 2002). Writing in role was an overarching theme that influenced every other theme.

Results

All sixteen studies found that drama improves student writing or attitudes about writing in some way (e.g. Anderson, 2012; McKean & Sudol, 2002; Smith &

McKnight, 2009). Process drama helped students create higher quality writing (e.g. McKean & Sudol, 2002; Moore and Caldwell, 1993; Neelands, Booth & Ziegler, 1993; Rosler, 2005). These gains were possible because process drama created the opportunity for children to write in role, because writing in role gives context to writing, making it a more authentic task (Anderson, 2012; Crumpler & Schneider, 2002).

Writing in Role

Process drama connects student writing to a concrete experience and contextualizes that writing (Anderson, 2012; Crumpler & Schneider, 2002). In other words, when students write during a process drama, they are writing in role. This means that they are writing from the point of view they assumed during the drama.

In 11 of the studies under review, the authors used process drama to connect student writing to a concrete experience that contextualized that writing as the students were writing in role (e.g. Anderson, 2012; Crumpler & Schneider, 2002). For example, Anderson (2012) began her study with two weeks of writing instruction without the use of process drama. She then spent four weeks with students participating in process drama activities while they read an adaptation of a fairy tale. During the four weeks of drama, students took on the role of the protagonist of the story and wrote from that perspective. Thus the students were writing about something they were experiencing (Anderson, 2012).

Writing in role also provided opportunities for students to think and write from multiple perspectives (Neelands, Booth & Ziegler, 1993). In a six month Toronto study of four schools using classroom drama as a catalyst for writing, Neelands, Booth and Ziegler (1993) reported that students were often asked to take on multiple roles with opposing viewpoints, and then to write from two opposing perspectives. In one drama, tenth grade students pretended to be immigrant families applying to move to Canada. In interviews, the students reported a deep connection with their characters, and that they felt a “heightened sense of moral purpose” for their writing because they were invested in “getting the letter right” so their characters could immigrate (Neelands, Booth & Ziegler, 1993, p. 62). Students in this study also reported in interviews that they felt empathy for characters with different views and that the drama helped them look beyond previously held stereotypes (Neelands, Booth & Ziegler, 1993).

Similarly, in a pooled case comparison of five studies,

Crumpler and Schneider (2002) described writing in which primary school children were able to write from new perspectives. For example, Keven, a student in a second and third grade class, wrote about his “experiences” as an immigrant. This showed that “when he wrote in role, he could assume other viewpoints, even when his own beliefs or experiences did not support those of his role” (Crumpler & Schneider, 2002, p. 73). The experience of the drama was real even though it was imaginary, and writing in role gave context to the writing. As students take time to live in imagined worlds, they have new and multiple perspectives from which to write (Schneider, 2003).

Motivation

Writing in role during process drama creates motivation for writing as documented in a study by Moore and Caldwell (1990). In this study, a control group of 2nd and 3rd grade students received writing instruction focused on discussion while the treatment group began their writing time with creative drama. The teachers reported during interviews that the students in the drama group were able to begin writing in role without additional prompting and with enthusiasm. The discussion group, however, behaved as if “the writing task was a chore” (Moore & Caldwell, 1990, p. 18).

Smith and McKnight (2009) researched the impact of The Second City Educational Program in urban Chicago schools. In this program, teachers-in-residence from the Second City Training Center work with public school teachers to bring drama into the classroom. Smith and McKnight (2009) found that drama engaged students who the teachers identified as typically reluctant to participate in class. They observed students engaging in “secondary worlds and using them to create new texts. (Smith & McKnight, 2009, p. 11).” In this study, students who were typically reluctant to participate found their writing voices through drama.

Researchers found that students were motivated to write when that writing came naturally from within the drama and through the drama (e.g. Cremin, et al., 2006; Neelands, Booth, & Ziegler, 1993). Cremin et al. (2006), reported that process drama worked best when there was a buildup of tension in the drama which created an urgency to communicate. The tension created a desire for written communication that “appeared to fuel the dual process of imaginative thinking” as the children responded to the tension through their acting and their writing (Cremin et al., 2006, p. 282).

Imagination

Process drama ignites children's imaginations and allows them to connect with feelings and experiences that are not their own (Crumpler, 2003; Neelands, Booth and Ziegler, 1993; Schneider and Jackson, 2002). For example, Crumpler (2003) analyzed student writing samples produced during a drama. He described writing by a kindergarten student, Sherry. Sherry responded to a story and drama about a dragon by writing as if she were the dragon. She also drew and wrote about a boy who is using his imagination. Crumpler (2003) argued in his analysis that the process drama was "acting as a catalyst" for Sherry's imagination (p. 23).

Once the imagination has been awakened, students have new worlds to explore. Their explorations become topics for writing and they feel they have something important to say about their newly created worlds (Smith & McKnight, 2009). One group of boys, described as "energetic and kinetic" began by depicting hunters chasing an animal (Smith & McKnight, 2009, p. 11). Through their drama work and by engaging their imaginations, they moved from a vague notion of hunting to writing a fable about a group of Native American hunters chasing a magical, trickster fox. Based on their field notes, Smith and McKnight (2009) reported that it was the physical act of embodying the fox and the hunters that allowed the characters to grow in the boys' imaginations.

Language Usage

Multiple researchers noted that when writing in role, students used rich, expressive language (e.g. Anderson, 2012; Rosler, 2005; Roubicek, 1983). For example, Roubicek (1983) scored two groups of student writing using an Elaborative Writing Scale, designed to assess expressive language usage. The control group wrote about a short story after traditional classroom discussion. The treatment group wrote in role after participating in dramatizations of the same short stories. Roubicek reported that the story dramatization group's scores showed a statistically significant gain in comparison to the discussion group on the Elaborative Writing Scale (Roubicek, 1983).

Furthermore, writing in role gives an invitation to engage the senses. McNaughton (1997) also conducted lessons with two groups of students. One group received writing instruction based on discussion, while the other group used drama. After examining ten sets of writing from

each group, McNaughton (1997) reported that the writing from the drama group used wording that sounded more like natural language. The students used more dialogue in their writing, and used more language that showed emotions rather than telling about emotions (McNaughton, 1997). In describing her work with these two groups of students, McNaughton (1997) explained, "drama seems to have given this group something 'extra' to say in their writing and 'extra' language to say it with" (85).

Several researchers found that writing in role improved student writing by allowing them to write clearly and make precise word choices (e.g. Cremin, et al., 2006; McKean & Sudol, 2002). Process drama helps students use more complex language in their writing because students create more complex meaning systems during the drama (e.g., Crumpler & Schneider, 2002; Neelands, Booth, & Ziegler, 1993). For example, Anderson (2012) measured the number of literate language features present in contextualized writing produced in process drama versus decontextualized writing and found that students used twice the number of literate language features when they were writing in role. Rosler (2005) reported that students' emotional connections to the characters created in drama results in descriptive language and a strong sense of voice when writing in role about this history of the Holocaust. The research shows that the connections students make with their voices and bodies find their way into the words the students put on paper in the form of rich language.

Writing with Ease

Process drama seemed to make writing easier. For example, in a post-drama survey, a majority of students told Neelands, Booth, and Ziegler (1993) that the dramas helped them with ideas for their writing. The students also reported that the writing in role helped them express their feelings in their writing (Neelands, Booth, & Ziegler, 1993). The researchers in this study stated that writing in role "eased the burden of the blank page" because students were committed to the emotions and experiences of the characters they created (Neelands, Booth, & Ziegler, 1993, p. 35).

Smith and McKnight (2009) described student groups using drama to compose stories. They worked through plot, characterization, and dialogue by "acting out" their stories. They shared with other groups and received peer feedback. Then they revised their drama/stories before writing them individually (Smith & McKnight, 2009). Thus the students did the work of composing before they

had to worry about spelling and fine motor skills. This is significant because Schneider (2003) discovered in her case study that writing in role can be difficult for some students as they try to attend to so many tasks at once.

In a study using tableaux as a way for students to create scenes from biographies, students told McKean and Sudol (2002) that they felt more prepared to write during process drama. The series of tableaux helped them understand the sequence of events in the lives of the people they were writing about, and so the writing felt more attainable. McKean and Sudol (2002) noted that as the children wrote their biographies they often spoke aloud about the tableaux scenes as a way to remind themselves about the sequence of events.

Purpose

Cremin, et al. (2006) reported that process drama created a sense of purpose for writing. The researchers (Cremin, et al, 2006) gave the example of a drama with six and seven-year-olds based on the book *The Lonely Whale* by David Bennett (1991). In the drama, the students took on roles as shipwrecked sailors who were rescued by a whale. Later in the drama, the whale was the one in need of rescue. The students demonstrated that they experienced a purpose for their writing because they began writing messages (to send in a bottle) asking for help. In their messages, they asked both for help for themselves and the whale. Their messages showed a “sense of panic and tension” which gave voice to their purpose for writing (Cremin, et al., 2006, p. 235). Cremin, et al. (2006) reported that the purpose for writing gained from process drama was a direct result of allowing the writing to flow as a part of the drama rather than giving assignment to be completed after the drama was completed. That is, the children chose to write the messages as part of their dramatic world.

Likewise, Crumpler and Schneider (2002) stated that in their five pooled case studies, it was a given in each study that the writing was a part of the drama, and not separate from it. This means that the writing was not an assignment added after a drama was “finished.” Rather, the writing was encased within the drama and helped the students connect with the literature used as a pre-text (Crumpler & Schneider, 2002). Writing in role also helped students to “go beyond the text” as they responded to literature with their roles in the drama and writing from within those roles (Crumpler & Schneider, 2002, p. 64). Thus, process drama gives students a purpose to write beyond a teacher’s assignment.

Writing Genres

The Common Core ELA writing standards for all grades state that children will write in various genres (2010). Cremin et al. (2006) compared genre-based writing instruction with process drama based writing instruction and found that students actually wrote in more genres with process drama based writing instruction. Crumpler and Schneider (2002) also found that process drama resulted in the exploration of multiple genres. For example, in a two month “Immigrant Drama” in second and third grades, the students “wrote diary entries, photo essays, summaries, stories, and letters” (Crumpler & Schneider, 2002, p. 65).

Literacy Skills

Smith and McKnight (2009) found that dramatic literacy activities allowed students to practice all literacy skills, listening “speaking, listening, comprehension, visualization, representation, sequencing, synthesis of information, elaboration, understanding of literacy genre, and elements of story” (11). Smith and McKnight (2009) admit that their research in this study is exploratory, and that more research is needed to specifically measure literacy skills connected to drama. However, they point out that the practice of literacy skills students experience through drama is closely linked to the Illinois State Standards, and they argue that “their literacy skills can only be enhanced” (Smith & McKnight, 2009, p. 14). This is a bold claim to make, so hopefully Smith and McKnight will, in fact, extend their research.

Four of the quantitative studies I analyzed used tools for evaluation of writing that included voice, language usage, ideas, and organization (McKean and Sudol, 2002; Moore and Caldwell, 1990 and 1993; Roubicek, 1983), and found that writing in role as a part of process drama led to improvement of all these skills as measured by post-test or as measured against a control group. For example, in a well-designed study that analyzed 1,200 writing samples collected over a 15 week period, Moore and Caldwell (1993) reported a continuous increase in scores for student writing after drama. Along with an overall score, the writing samples were scored for ideas, organization, style, and context (Moore & Caldwell, 1993). This improvement was also significant because a control group showed much less progress over the 15 weeks of instruction (Moore & Caldwell, 1993).

Writing Fluency

Students were able to write more fluently when receiving writing instruction through the use of process drama. Anderson (2012) and DiMichele (2015) both found an increase in fluency associated with drama interventions. Anderson (2012) measured the number of total words and the number of different words in student writing after a decontextualized writing assignment as compared with writing in role. She used paired t-tests for analysis, and found that student productivity of writing was significantly higher when students were writing in role (Anderson, 2012). Even though more writing is not always better writing, in this case Anderson (2012) concurrently measured language specificity and found that when writing in role the students were not only more productive, but used more literate language features as well.

DiMichele (2015) argued that the use of the “Yes, and” rule to validate the ideas of [JS18] other people during improv games translated to students’ own work. In DiMichele’s (2015) study, the students participated in short form improv. They were guided to accept the premise of the scene, as offered by their scene partners, and to add to that premise. Accepting and adding are referred to as following the “yes, and” rule. DiMichele (2015) reinforced the “yes, and” construct by having students use the phrase aloud during oral collaborative storytelling. She then encouraged them to use the phrase internally to drive both collaborative and individual writing (DiMichele, 2015). In essence, while writing, students were able to say “Yes, and” to themselves. Rather than being critical of their own writing, they accepted their own ideas and then added to them in an attempt to keep their writing moving forward. This supported writing fluency.

Making Meaning

Crumpler (2003) states that during process drama, children use “multiple meaning systems” to create both text and pictures (26). They are making meaning from the original text that spawned the drama, combining it with the ideas and activities that emerged within the drama, and creating meaning with text and pictures on paper. This is heady work. In an analysis of writing samples produced during drama, Crumpler and Schneider (2002) found that writing in role required shifts in perspective. For example, one kindergarten student wrote about herself as both a character and an observer of the action (Crumpler & Schneider, 2002).

Another student, during a drama about immigration, wrote about his role as an immigration officer. He described his role as an officer, but also explained that he might rebel against the rules in order to help people. Therefore, he “wrote in the role of another person but he also revealed his own personal stance” (Crumpler & Schneider, 2002, p. 73). In process drama, the child must look at the world, both real and imagined, not only through his or her own eyes, but also through the eyes of characters within the drama. This creates the opportunity for deeper meaning making. Cremin et al. (2006) reported that drama offers support for ideas to grow over time because a drama can be revisited. Thus, Cremin et al. (2006) argue, there is room for children to allow ideas to “incubate” (282) over time.

The ability for children to enter a text and use multiple meaning systems has great potential for content area work. Rosler (2005) used process drama and trade books to help her unpack the difficult textbook language in her fifth grade social studies class as they studied World War II. She used the trade books to foster discussion about the Holocaust and life in Europe during the war. She then used process drama and allowed her classroom to “become” a classroom in Denmark in the early 1940s. One day, after Rosler (2005) worked in role with her students for about 45 minutes, then the students suggested that they write a book based on their drama that would be similar to Lois Lowry’s *Number the Stars*. Rosler (2005) compared the writing students did before the drama with writing students completed “in role.” She found that when students wrote about the Holocaust without the benefit of process drama, they wrote a list of facts and did not synthesize information. However, Rosler (2005) describes one student’s writing within the drama by stating, “The facts of the Holocaust are still present, but she has more to say and her writing is much more interesting” (8).

Process drama does not only open the world to social studies. Schneider and Jackson (2000) report that process drama allows for learning to occur in various content areas. For example, during a drama titled, “The Journey to Peace Valley,” the students studied “geography, geology, economy, and the environment” (Schneider & Jackson, 2000, p. 48). The students created maps, solved problems, worked together, wrote diaries, and created a newspaper (Schneider & Jackson, 2000). Once again, it is easy to see that process drama is a way of learning, not something to be learned. It is an effective and efficient tool for teaching, learning, and writing.

Discussion

Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) theorize that unlike oral discourse, written discourse is almost always closed. That is to say, one person is writing alone without the benefit of the immediate feedback and give-and-take that is present in conversation. Moving from open oral discourse to closed written discourse can be difficult for children, and children begin writing by attempting to “adapt their existing oral discourse schemata” to the function of writing (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987, p. 59). Unlike most writing prompts, process drama gives teachers the opportunity to bring writing into the realm of open discourse and to make it meaningful for students. With process drama and writing in role, children are given the opportunity to write for the reasons that people write in real life: to share ideas, to argue, to cajole, to offer sympathy, to remember, and to plan. Writing then becomes more than just a part of children’s educational development, it also becomes part of their cultural development (Vygotsky, 1978).

Process drama is a powerful educational practice. Since it allows teachers to simultaneously teach literacy skills and content area knowledge, it is an efficient practice. As a classroom teacher, I found it sometimes challenging to integrate the language arts and social studies curriculum. Process drama is an excellent vehicle for integration, resulting in more time spent with all subjects.

Beyond this, process drama as a channel for writing is an excellent educational tool. It is not something else that must be added in to an already full day. It is a way to learn and explore. It is a way to understand and make connections. It does not replace the curriculum; it becomes a vehicle to deliver the curriculum. The difference between process drama and many other delivery systems is that the students are involved in every part of the delivery. Therefore, they make meaning on deeper levels. They simply learn more.

References

- Anderson, A. (2012). The influence of process drama on elementary students’ written language. *Urban Education*, 47(5), 959-982. doi:10.1177/0042085912446165
- Aull, L. (2015). Connecting writing and language in assessment: Examining style, tone, and argument in the U.S. Common Core standards and in exemplary student writing. *Assessing Writing*, 24, 59-73. doi: 0.1016/j.asw.2015.03.002
- Bereiter, C. & Scardamalia, M. (1987) *The psychology of written composition*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Cremin, T., Gooch, K., Blakemore, L., Goff, E., & Macdonald, R. (2006). Connecting drama and writing: seizing the moment to write. *Research in Drama Education*, 11(3), 273-291. doi:10.1080/13569780600900636
- Crumpler, T. P. (2003) P. Becoming dragons and pirates: The possibilities of using process drama with literature to reimagine young children’s writing instruction. *New Advocate*, 16(1), 17-27.
- Crumpler, T., & Schneider, J. J. (2002). Writing with their whole being: A cross study analysis of children’s writing from five classrooms using process drama. *Research in Drama Education: The Journal of Applied Theatre and Performance*, 7(1), 61 doi:10.1080/13569780120113148
- DiMichele, M. (2015). Improv and ink: Increasing individual writing fluency with collaborative improv. *International Journal of Education & the Arts*, 16(10), 1-25.
- Graham, S., McKeown, D., Kihara, S., & Harris, K. R. (2012). A meta-analysis of writing instruction for students in the elementary grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 104(4), 879-896. DOI: 10.1037/a0029185
- Graham, S. & Sandmel, K. (2011). The process writing approach: A meta-analysis. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 104, 396-407. doi: 10.1080/00220671.2010.488703
- Heathcote, D. (1984). *Dorothy Heathcote: Collected writings on education and drama*. London: Hutchinson.
- Kardash, C.A.M., & Wright, L. (1987). Does creative drama benefit elementary school students: A meta-analysis. *Youth Theatre Journal*, 1(3), 11-18.
- Leep, J. (2008). *Theatrical improvisation: Short form, long form, and sketch-based improv*. New York, NY: Palgrave MacMillan. doi: 10.1057/9780230612556
- McKean, B., & Sudol, P. (2002). Drama and language arts: Will drama improve student writing? *Youth Theatre Journal*, 16(1), 28-37. doi: 10.1080/08929092.2002.10012538
- McNaughton, M. J. (1997). Drama and children’s writing: A study of the influence of drama on the imaginative writing of primary school children. *Research in Drama Education: The Journal of Applied Theatre and Performance*, 2(1), 55-86. doi:10.1080/1356978970020105
- Moore, B. H., & Caldwell, H. (1990). The art of planning: Drama as rehearsal for writing in the primary grades. *Youth Theatre Journal*, 4(3), 13-20.
- Moore, B. H., & Caldwell, H. (1993). Drama and drawing for narrative writing in primary grades. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 87(2), 100-110. doi:10.1080/00220671.1993.9941173
- National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, Council of Chief State School Officers, (2010). *Common Core State Standards: English Language Arts*. Washington, D.C.: National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, Council of Chief State School Officers.
- Neelands, J., Booth, D. W., & Ziegler, S. (1993). *Writing in imagined contexts: Research into drama-influenced writing*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 355 576).
- O’Neill, C. (1995). *Drama Worlds*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

- Rosler, B. (2005). Improving content area writing through process drama. (undetermined). *Ohio Reading Teacher*, 37(1), 49-58.
- Roubicek, H. L. (1983). An investigation of story dramatization as a pre-writing activity Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com.ezproxy.lib.usf.edu/docview/303276218>
- Ryan, C., & Bernard, H. R. (2003). Techniques to identify themes. *Field Methods*, 15(1), 85-109. doi:10.1177/1525822X02239569
- Schneider, J. (2003). Contexts, genres, and imagination: An examination of the idiosyncratic writing performances of three elementary children within multiple contexts of writing instruction. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 37(3), 329-379.
- Schneider, J. & Jackson, S. (2000). Process drama: A special space and place for writing. *The Reading Teacher*, 54(1), 38-51.
- Sharp, L. (2016). Acts of writing: A compilation of six models that define the processes of writing. *International Journal of Instruction*, 9(2), 77-90. doi: 10.12973/iji.2016.926a
- Smith, K., & McKnight, K. S. (2009). Remembering to laugh and explore: Improvisational activities for literacy teaching in urban classrooms. *International Journal of Education & the Arts*, 10(12), 1-18.
- Spandel, V., & Stiggins, R. J. (1990). *Creating writers: Linking assessment and writing instruction*. New York: Longman.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in Society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Wagner, B. J., & Barnett, L. A. (1998). *Educational drama and language arts: What research shows*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Author Biography

Gretchen Dodson is a former teacher at Berry College Elementary and Middle School, a laboratory school of Berry College in Rome, Georgia. She is currently a Ph.D student in the Department of Teaching and Learning at the University of South Florida with a specialization in Literacy Studies. Her research interests include collaborative multimodal composition, improvisation in the classroom, and qualitative research methods.

That's Soooooo Funny! Using Humor to Promote Young Children's Literacy Development

Satomi Izumi-Taylor, Ph.D

THE UNIVERSITY OF MEMPHIS

Cathy D. Meredith, Ed.D

CHRISTIAN BROTHERS UNIVERSITY

Ariel Laws

THE UNIVERSITY OF MEMPHIS

Helen Perkins, Ed.D

THE UNIVERSITY OF MEMPHIS

Sandra Brown Turner

THE UNIVERSITY OF MEMPHIS

At circle time at one laboratory school, a four-year-old pointed to Delacre's book entitled, *Rafi and Rosi* (2004) and said, "I like this book because it's silly and makes me laugh." After his teacher read the book, *What Kind of Baby-Sitter is This?* by Johnson (1991), a five-year-old cried, "That's sooooo funny! I want a baby sitter like her." Another preschool child loved her book, *Food Fight* by Shields (2002) so much that her mom had to read it to her every night. She laughed and laughed as it was read to her and brought it to school to share with her teachers and friends.

These comments are heard at childcare center and kindergarten classrooms when teachers read books with a sense of humor. When children read humorous books, they can learn to enjoy reading (DeStefano, 2017; Gartrell, 2006; Ivy, 2013; Jalongo, 2004; McVicker, 2007; Sawyer, 2004). Teachers can use not only children's picture books but also visual literacy such as comic strips, cartoons, photos, videos, and cartoons to promote children's literacy skills (Ivy, 2013; Serafini & Coles, 2015). Also, teachers can use jokes, riddles, and puns (Otto, 2018). However, others warn that teachers need to use humor responsibly (Destefano, 2017; Ivy, 2013). Because some children might not find others' humor as funny, cultural and individual differences need to be considered when using humor in the classroom (Ivy, 2013; Smidl, 2014). Preschoolers' humor is more than just substituting words, and they do not "laugh as readily at dishes running away with spoons" (Sawyer, 2004, p. 34).

Humor is related to children's healthy development, including the cognitive (Airenti, 2016; Ivy, 2013; Goel & Dolan, 2001; Otto, 2018), physical, emotional (Izumi-Taylor, Brinson, & Turner, 2005) and social (Brown, 1991; Ivy, 2013; Smidl, 2014). Humor is associated with communication (Berger, 2002; Wyer, & Collins, 1992) and can be defined as "the mental experience of discovering or appreciating ludicrous or absurdly incongruous ideas, events or situations" (McGhee, 1984, p. 6). Literature refers to "the imaginative shaping of life and thought into the forms and structures of language" (Huck, Hepler, Hickman, & Kiefer, 2000, p. 4). Picture books can be defined as "picture storybooks, books that have simple plots and contain, on average, about 200 words" (Jalongo, 2004, p. 11).

The purpose of this paper is to suggest using a sense of humor as a strategy that teachers might implement to develop children's literacy skills. We will present the benefits of humor in children's learning and some helpful ways to use humor in classrooms. Because we have read these books mentioned in the article at laboratory schools, childcare centers, and preschools, we will include some children's comments about the books. We will also include an annotated list of books that teachers can use. Teachers already use literature every day to promote children's learning and development, and this strategy does not require extensive training.

Benefits of Humor in Children's Learning

Humor can help children learn to read because it might increase their interests in books (Ivy, 2013; Shedd & Duke, 2008; Weimer, 2011). "Reading stories to children is an important activity that can be made amusing" (Elkind, 2000, p. 47). To meet children's needs in terms of literacy, nurturing and encouraging their sense of humor can lead to children's love of reading (Jalongo, 2004). Humorous books can support children's development of imagination. However, humor can be hard for some children to comprehend since it often requires "sophisticated element of satire, irony, and parody" (Serafini & Coles, 2015, p. 636). When kindergartners appreciate humor in books, riddles, comics, and jokes, it indicates that their semantic knowledge is developing (Otto, 2018). Knock-knock jokes are often enjoyed by these children but not all of them understand such jokes.

Humor and humorous materials can promote children's mental operations as well as cognitive development (Puche-Navarro, 2004). Tasks involving humor can help educators to examine children's representative abilities. Similarly, DeStefano (2017) found that first graders see vocabulary cartoons as funny and interesting. Such cartoons were related to stimulating students' curiosity, social interaction, and humor.

Humor can change students' perceptions of teacher/adult figures (Gartrell, 2006) and may reduce their stress or anxiety (Serafini & Coles, 2015). Thus, teachers can personally connect with children and promote positive relationships with children. According to Morreall (2014), promoting a sense of humor can help "anyone to deal more effectively with various kinds of people, and with situations good and bad" (p. 130). If we are to educate our children to prepare for their later lives, teachers need to know the importance of humor in classrooms (Elkind, 2000; Morreall, 2014).

Five Helpful Ways to Use Humor in Classrooms

As previously mentioned, teachers can use different types of literacy and visual literacy to present humor to children, including children's books, stories, jokes, riddles, puns, cartoons, videos, and photos. However, we will focus only on books in this paper.

To effectively use humor in classrooms, Hellman (2007) recommends the following seven steps: being yourself; picking your spots; being politically correct; knowing your audience; using oxymorons, alliteration, and acronyms; being quiet sometimes; and acknowledging others' humor.

Among Hellman's seven steps, we will focus on the following five steps that are developmentally appropriate for young children (Being yourself, picking your spots, knowing your audience, being quiet when needed, and acknowledging others' humor).

Being Yourself

It is important for early childhood teachers to be themselves. Young children tend to relate to teachers who are honest and trustworthy (Coppole & Bredekamp, 2009; Morrison, 2015). If teachers cannot use humor naturally, they need to practice. Hellman (2007) suggests teachers should be natural and smooth when using humor. If they cannot deliver jokes or use humor smoothly, they can use visual humor via the Internet. Teachers can also use audio humor as well.

At one preschool, as a teacher read the book, *There Was an Old Lady Who Swallowed a Fly*, (Colandro, 2014) and when she got to the part about swallowing a spider, a five-year-old boy said, "What? You can't swallow a spider because they got prickly legs." The teacher asked him, "How do you know? Have you ever swallowed a spider?" A hush fell over the classroom, and laughter followed. The child and teacher were being themselves in communicating with each other, and everyone ended up giggling.

Picking Your Spots

In early childhood classrooms, children enjoy being playful, but there is time for everything. The best way for teachers to use humor is when they integrate it into their learning activities through play. Humor or laughter should not distract children's learning and development (Ivy, 2013). Humor should be conducive to learning.

When reading books, teachers can anticipate students' reactions and prepare to use humor. To anticipate students' reactions, teachers need to observe and understand students' behavior (Coppole & Bredekamp, 2009). Whether reading books to children in the entire class or in a small group, teachers need to remember children's reactions to the books. Such observations can help teachers know when the best time for using humor.

The appropriate time to read humorous books is important. At one laboratory school, a teacher of five-year old children carefully selects and reads such books because he knows some of his students can get easily excited and distracted. The teacher takes the children outdoors where they can sit, relax on the grass, and listen to the book that he selects. Once, when he started reading the book by

Johnson (1991), *What Kind of Baby-sitter is This?* the children started giggling and talking to each other. The teacher asked the giggling children, “It is funny, isn’t it? Would you like to share why this is funny?” One child replied, “My babysitter is a teenager with an American Express card!” Another child asked, “What? Teenagers don’t have American Express cards! Besides, we need babysitters who know how to take care of us! Adults! Not teenagers!” The entire class ended up in a discussion about who can carry credit cards and who can be their babysitters. At the end of this lovely and playful conversation, the children agreed that people who are nice can be their babysitters and having older babysitters can be fun.

Knowing Your Audience

To know their students is one of the most important domains for early childhood teachers (Copples & Bredecamp, 2009; Morrison, 2015). Because young children might be uncomfortable being in the classroom for the first time, teachers can use humor to ease their fears in some situations (Ivy, 2013). Hellman gives one example of using humor as follows: When taking the attendance, ask those who are not present to raise their hands, and this might bring laughter and relieve some tension in classrooms (2007). However, teachers need to be careful using humor because some children might not find their humor to be funny (Destefano, 2017; Ivy, 2013).

At one laboratory school, a teacher read the book entitled, *Pete the Cat: I Love my White Shoes* by Litwin (2008) to the children at circle time because the teacher noticed that a group of the children read this book repeatedly. While reading the book, the children made comments, including, “I like white shoes but don’t like dirty shoes!” “Me, too, Pete should not step on strawberries,” and “But, if he doesn’t step on something, you can’t sing about your shoes!!” Finally, a child cried out, “It is okay; this is just a story!” The teacher and the children started singing about the shoes and laughing at the same time.

Being Quiet When Needed

Teachers need to listen to children. Hellman (2007) notes that by letting them talk and just listening to them give students opportunities to say something funny. Give them enough time to enjoy books being read to them in order to promote students’ learning and development. Laughing and talking during reading time may promote children’s sense of humor (Smidl, 2014).

At another laboratory school, a teacher read the book, *Lakas and the Manilatown Fish* by Robles (2003). The children were fascinated by this bilingual book written in English and Tagalog with colorful illustrations. She paused for a while after reading the book to see what the children might be thinking. One child said, “Look at me! I am a talking, jumping, playing, and running fish!” and started jumping around the room. The teacher replied, “Would everyone like to jump, play, and run like a fish?” The entire class started to jump around and enjoyed being a fish. When everyone stopped jumping around, a child with a smile on his face cried out, “If I find the fish like that, I am not eating it.”

Acknowledge Others’ Humor

Teachers do not have to be “the originator of the humor” (Hellman, 2007, p. 39). Teachers can use others’ humor successfully. Also, allowing children to have their moments in the classroom is fun and enjoyable. Letting them read books and present their comments might bring about laughter from others.

At one preschool, a teacher read the humorous book entitled, *Hug* by Alborough (2000) to a group of three-year-old children. This beautifully illustrated book has few words, and the children appeared to enjoy it. After reading the book, some children started hugging others saying “Hug.” One child pretended to be the baby monkey in the book and said to others who were not in the group “Look! I am a monkey child,” and hugged others around him. Soon, every child was hugging and smiling.

Conclusions

Discovering how to use humor when promoting children’s literacy skills is one way for teachers to strive to teach them to learn and enjoy reading. Elkind states that “humor is healthy for young children. Just as the playground provides release for the body, humor provides a release for the mind. Humor is the playground of the mind” (2000, p. 47).

Recommended List of Books

- Colandro, L. (2014). *There Was an Old Lady Who Swallowed a Fly*. New York: Scholastic.

The lady begins to swallow a variety of animals in this humorous book which includes rhyming text and hilarious illustrations. The author adds other books in her series where the Old Lady swallows other things.

- McKee, D. (1994). *Elmer and Wilbur*. New York: Lothrop, Lee, & Shepard Books.

This story is about an elephant named Elmer who enjoys jokes and his cousin named Wilbur. Playful Elmer's sense of humor and his positive attitude keep the community happy. The story with its colorful illustrations is fun to read with children.

- Numeroff, L. (1985). *If You Give a Mouse a Cookie*. New York: Harper Collins Publishers.

A circular tale in which if you give a mouse a cookie, he'll ask for a glass of milk. He then asks for a straw to drink the milk. The story continues until the mouse wants another cookie. This is first in the *If You Give* series by Numeroff with illustrations by Felicia Bond which children delight in and laugh at as they predict what will happen next.

- Shields, C. D. (2002). *Food Fight*. New York: Chronicle Books.

With all the energy of a suddenly opened, well-shaken can of soda, the poet Carol Diggory Shields imaginatively creates a universe of food with a mind of its own. The Claymation food by Doreen Gay-Kassel looks almost too fabulous to eat.

- Weiss, L. (1985). *My Teacher Sleeps in School*. New York: Picture Puffin Books.

The children in Mrs. Marsh's class search for clues to prove their teacher sleeps in school and enjoy their surprise when a mystery bus trip ends in front of a nice white house with a blue door—a house much like the ones they live in themselves.

References

- Airenti, G. (2016). Playing with expectations: A contextual view of humor development. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 7, 1-12. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2016.01392
- Alborough, J. (2000). *Hug*. New York: Scholastic INC.
- Berger, C. R. (2002). Goals and knowledge structures in social interaction. In M. L. Knapp & J. A. Daly (Eds.). *Handbook of interpersonal communication* (3rd ed.) (pp. 181-239). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Colandro, L. (2014). *There Was an Old Lady Who Swallowed a Fly*. New York: Scholastic.
- Copple, C., & Bredekamp, S. (2009). *Developmentally appropriate practice in early childhood programs serving children from birth through age 8* (3rd Ed.). Washington, DC: NAEYC.
- DeStefano, H. (2017). Supporting struggling readers using vocabulary during transition times. *Young Children*, 72(5), 64-72.

Elkind, D. (July/August 2000). What makes young children laugh? *Child Care Exchange*, 46-47.

Gartrell, D. (2006). A spoonful of laughter. *Young Children*, (61), 108-109.

Goel, V., & Dolan, R. (2001). The functional anatomy of humor: segregating cognitive and affective components. *Natural Neuroscience*, 237-238.

Hellman, S. (2007). Humor in the classroom: Stu's seven simple steps to success. *College Teaching*, 55(1), 37-39.

Huck, C., Hepler, S., Hickman, J., & Kiefer, B. (2000). *Children's literature in the elementary school* (7th ed.). NY: McGraw-Hill.

Litwin, E. (2008). *Pete the cat: I love my white shoes*. New York: Scholastic.

Ivy, L. L. (2013). Using humor in the classroom. *Journal of Adventist Education*, 75(3), 39-43.

Jalongo, M. (2004). *Young children and picture books* (2nd ed.). Washington, DC: NAEYC.

Johnson, D. (1991). *What kind of baby-sitter is this?* New York: MacMillan.

McGhee, P. E. (1984). Play, incongruity and humor. In T. D. Yawkey, & A. D. Pellegrini (Eds.), *Child's play: Developmental and applied* (pp. 219-236). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Morreall, J. (2014). Humor, philosophy and education. *Educational Philosophy and Therapy*, 46(2), 120-131.

Morrison, G. (2015). *Early childhood education today* (13th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Otto, B. (2018). *Language development in early childhood education* (5th ed.). NY: Pearson.

Puche-Navarro, R. (2004). Graphic jokes and children's mind: an unusual way to approach children's representational activity. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 45, 343-355.

Robles, A.D. (2003). *Lakas and the Manilatown fish/Si Lakas at and isdang Manilatown*. San Francisco, CA: Children's Book Press.

Serafini, F., & Coles, R. (2015). Humor in children's picture books. *The Reading Teacher*, 68(8), 636-635.

Shedd, M., & Duke, N. (2008). The power of planning and developing effective read-alouds. *Young Children*, 63(6), 22-27.

Shields, C. D. (2002). *Food Fight*. New York: Chronicle Books.

Smidle, S. (2014). My daddy wears plucky, ducky underwear: Discovering the meanings of laughter in a preschool classroom. *Voices of Practitioners*, 9(1), 1-16.

Weimer, M. (2011). Humor in the classroom: 40 years of research. *The Teaching Professor*, 25(10), 3.

Wyer, R., & Collins, J. (1992). A theory of humor elicitation. *Psychological Review*, 99(4), 663-688.

Author's Biographies

Satomi Izumi-Taylor, Ph.D. is professor with Department of Instruction and Curriculum Leadership at the University of Memphis, Tennessee. Her research interests include cross-cultural

studies of teacher education, play, constructivism, infant and toddler development, and science education.

Cathy D. Meredith, Ed. D. is an Associate Professor in the Education Department at Christian Brothers University. Dr. Meredith also works with in-service teachers in school systems across the state of Tennessee. She consistently shares with colleagues through presentations at local, state, regional, national and international conferences.

Ariel Laws is a doctoral student with the Department of Instruction and Curriculum Leadership at the University of Memphis and a preschool teacher. Her research interests include mindfulness, urban education, children in poverty, and literacy.

Helen Perkins, Ed. D. is professor of literacy with the Department of Instruction and Curriculum Leadership at the University of Memphis. Her research interests include literacy and early literacy development of children.

Sandra Brown Turner was a director of Lipman Laboratory School at the University of Memphis. She retired in May of 2018.

Reading for a Reason

Shannon Heckman

READING SPECIALIST, GRACE B. LUHRS ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AT SHIPPENSBURG UNIVERSITY, PA.

Approximately 130 students, grades K-5, attend Grace B. Luhrs University Elementary School (GBLUES) located on the campus of Shippensburg University in Shippensburg, Pennsylvania. The 2018-2019 school year marks the fourth year that the students' natural altruism has been cultivated through participation in service projects. Their daily reading efforts have been coupled with fundraising. The funds and goods raised have been donated to local as well as global service projects.

In 2015, GBLUES students participated in *Read to Feed* via Heifer International. *Read to Feed* is a "readathon"/service project. It both encourages students to read while also securing pledges. The pledged money is used to help struggling families around the world by providing livestock and other sustainable gifts. In 2016, the GBLUES Reading Intervention program and the PTO joined together for *Read to Can Hunger*, a food drive. Students secured sponsors who donated quantities of nonperishable food items in relation to the quantity of

children's reading. This food was then donated to King's Kettle, a local food bank.

In September of 2017, Hurricane Maria, a category 4 hurricane, destroyed much of the Island of Puerto Rico. GBLUES resolved to support Escuela Secundaria, a fellow lab school in San Juan, Puerto Rico, through this devastating natural disaster. The GBLUES students participated in a school-wide reading incentive program called *Reading for Puerto Rico*. During the program, children read both at home and at school, recording the minutes they spent reading. Students brought their logged reading minutes to school from which they earned *dólares* (dollars) to "buy" school items and educational games from the *tienda* (store). Impressively, GBLUES students purchased 382 items to send to Escuela Secundaria. Our generous students and families made this fun and significant program a success. As a result of *Reading for Puerto Rico*, students practiced their literacy skills through extra reading. At the same time



they helped students in Puerto Rico who had suffered a catastrophe. GBLUES students were able to see in a tangible, relatable way that their actions had a direct impact on others.

During the current school year, GBLUES students have again taken part in the *Read to Feed* initiative. It became a wonderful opportunity to highlight this year's school wide theme of sustainability. Our teachers have extended this experience by incorporating lessons and literature about environmentalism, community, geography, sustainability and understanding the connection between people and their actions. The donations collected from sponsors will be used to give sustainable gifts of livestock and training. Our gifts this year will be given in loving memory of our dear friend, mentor, teacher, and former director, Mary Jane Taylor.

Our yearly global and local outreach programs at GBLUES; *Read to Feed*, *Read to Can Hunger and*

Reading for Puerto Rico, have helped crystallize the importance of compassion and taking action to make the world a better place. Our projects may be small in comparison to other major relief efforts, and yet, the value derived from these outreach efforts has been immense indeed. The nurturing of students' altruism and kind heartedness has been a significant bonus to their development as young citizens of the world.

In the words of Barack Obama, "The best way to not feel hopeless is to get up and do something. Don't wait for good things to happen to you. If you go out and make some good things happen, you will fill the world with hope, you will fill yourself with hope."

Submitted by Shannon Heckman, Reading Specialist
Grace B. Luhrs University Elementary School



A Gift of Inspiration and Generosity: IALS 2018 International Schools Tour

Sandy H. Seipel, Ed.D.

Twenty IALS members from Canada, Germany, China, Japan, and the United States assembled in California on October 22 to engage in thoughtful, hopeful, and reflective conversations centered on the development of the whole child. Debbie Brown, Head of School, at Mills College Children's School in Oakland, California, welcomed participants to the school that was opened in 1926 and was the first campus laboratory school on the West Coast. Tours of classrooms provided participants an intimate view of constructivist pedagogy and integration of theory and practice within a progressive educational setting. Diane Kettle, Dean and Director of the Center for Urban Schools and Partnerships, and Carrie Wilson, Executive Director of Mills Teacher Scholars, shared information about programs and outreach. Priya Driscoll and Betty Lin informed participants of the seamless integration of theory and practice preparing students for future employment.



The second day of the tour began at Harold E. Jones Child Study Center in Berkeley. The Center was founded in 1927 and is a preschool and research facility for child development students. Led by Luvy Vanegas Grimaud, Early Development and Learning Science Research and Program Coordinator, participants visited the gallery observation areas to observe children in the free flowing indoor-outdoor environment designed by the late architect Joseph Esherick. Darrell Whitacre, Executive Director, and Moises Roman, Site Coordinator, shared the history and continued collaborations of the early childhood programs. Margaret Bridges, Senior Research Scientist, and colleagues shared research interests and information about the summer minor that was first

implemented in summer 2018 at Berkeley. Berkeley graduate students shared their perspective on the newly implemented minor.



After lunch, IALS members made their way to Rosa Parks Elementary School, where Principal Paco Furlan, shared the mission and vision of the school based on the school namesake Rosa Parks "To this day we are here on this planet to live, grow up, and do what we can to make this world a better place for all people to enjoy freedom." Rosa Parks Elementary School was designed around the African Proverb "It takes a village to raise a child" with grade level homes surrounding a large open space for play and gatherings. Rosa Parks teacher, Michelle Contreras, took time from her busy schedule to share her experience as a Mills Scholar and how the program impacted her and continues to influence professional development at Rosa Parks.



A four course meal at Terún hosted by faculty members of Stanford University and Bing Nursery transitioned participants to Palo Alto for the final days of the international tour. Bing Nursery School was founded in 1966 as a laboratory school with a grant from the National Science Foundation and a gift from the Bing family. Bing's mission was to provide a laboratory setting for faculty and graduate students to conduct research. Tour participants were introduced to the large indoor-outdoor classrooms where children are "honored guests" every day. Participants were introduced to the five basic materials of blocks, clay, paint, sand, and water. Marie Skłodowska-Curie Fellow Manuel Bohn presented research on pragmatic inference in young children. Tour participants enjoyed a storytelling workshop led by Joel Ben Izzy to discover why telling a story is one of the most powerful communication skills of educators.



The final day of the international tour began with a research presentation by Christian Timo Zenke on the participatory research in European laboratory schools. The IALS tour organizer Elizabeth Morley shared that our hosts "opened their world to us in the spirit of Lab schools: connection, contribution, and creative expression of the best in education. This cohort of IALS members and hosts shared experiences that will continue to connect us." The IALS International Schools Tour provided an experience that was felt deep in the souls of participants.



Laboratory schools opened their doors to share about programs and perspectives, build relationships with tour members, and share experiences that will impact IALS members for years to come. This year's tour was a great success and many thanks goes to the International Tour Committee for their work in organizing and implementing a well-planned and very intentional learning experience for all.

Roots and Wings: The IALS 2018 Annual Conference in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

Jill Sarada

2018 IALS CONFERENCE CHAIR

Roots and Wings

If I had two wishes, I know what they would be
I'd wish for Roots to cling to, and Wings to set me free;
Roots of inner values, like rings within a tree,
and Wings of independence to seek my destiny.

Roots to hold forever to keep me safe and strong,
To let me know you love me, when I've done something wrong;
To show me by example, and helps me learn to choose,
To take those actions every day to win instead of lose.

Just be there when I need you, to tell me it's all right,
To face my fear of falling when I test my wings in flight;
Don't make my life too easy, it's better if I try,
And fail and get back up myself, so I can learn to fly.

If I had two wishes, and two were all I had,
And they could just be granted, by my Mom and Dad;
I wouldn't ask for money or any store-bought things.
The greatest gifts I'd ask for are simply Roots and Wings.
By Denis Waitley

LearningStationMusic.com

Although this poem speaks directly to parents, it is not hard to imagine a child expressing it of his school as well. We see our schools as extensions of the family, as partners in helping children to develop the knowledge and skills that will serve them for a lifetime. And as schools who understand that education is life, these wishes express what we hope to give every learner who enters our doors, whatever their age.

This poem resonated with the conference in Pittsburgh as we explored the ways our schools provide strong roots to learners and support them as they try their wings. Presentations focused on diversity and social justice, pre-service education, early childhood education, administration, elementary and high school learners, science and the environment, technology, and geography.

Lab school colleagues from as far as Korea, Japan, Canada and the West Indies as well as friends from lab schools throughout the States, came together to share, learn, question, and connect during three days in early May. Our conference began with an opportunity for directors to come together and work with experts on issues pertinent to the running of our schools, and

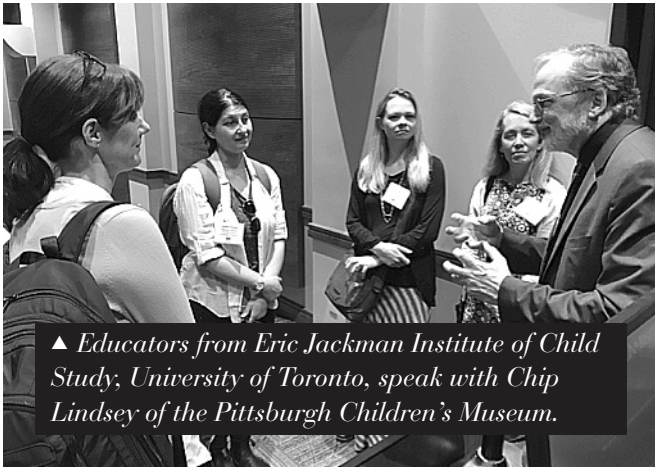
an opportunity for teachers to shadow other teachers. Our second day consisted of touring the five university affiliated lab schools in Pittsburgh: University Child Development Center and Falk Laboratory School both at the University of Pittsburgh, Carnegie Mellon University's Children's School and The Cyert Center, and The Campus School at Carlow University. Following our day of touring, Chip Lindsey, Director of Education at the Children's Museum of Pittsburgh, gave the keynote address. He talked about how Children's Museum experiences offer an abundance (of joy), relentless learning, and authentic materials and interactions.

Our final day together provided time for sharing. Over 30 workshops offered opportunities for us to learn from one another and celebrate the work our schools do every day. A comment heard year after year is "These are my people." Coming together feels like a reunion with a close family that is bonded together by our dedication to the mission of laboratory schools and commitment to progressive education. When the conference ended, we felt a little sad, but mostly we were inspired, connected, and rejuvenated. We look forward to the 2019 conference!

Jill Sarada, 2018 IALS Conference Chair
Falk Laboratory School



▲ Lori Wertz, Falk Laboratory School, and Ceceile Minott, University of the West Indies Open Campus Early Childhood Centres of Excellence.



▲ Educators from Eric Jackman Institute of Child Study, University of Toronto, speak with Chip Lindsey of the Pittsburgh Children’s Museum.



▲ Cindy Rouner, Leet Center, and Sandy Seipel, Horace Mann Laboratory School, present *Leading Change by Inspiring Authentic Experiential Learning through Leadership, Mentoring, and Intentional Professional Development*.



▲ Benoni Outerbridge, Falk Laboratory School, leading a workshop on Mapping.



▲ Eileen Coughlin, Falk Laboratory School, giving Konnie Serr, Grace B. Luhrs University Elementary School, a coleus plant that came from an original plant Konnie used in a presentation during the 2018 IALS conference in Pittsburgh.



▼ Chip Lindsey, Director of Education at the Pittsburgh Children’s Museum, Keynote Address.



▲ Patricia Diebold, Executive Director of IALS, awards the Travel Grant to Nicole Romany and Cathryn O’Sullivan, University of the West Indies Open Campus Early Childhood Centres of Excellence



▲ Chelsea Knittle and Daryl Godfrey, Falk Laboratory School, participate in Maria Sassani’s workshop on Vocal Health and Singing Technique for the Elementary Classroom Teacher.

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

Call for Papers—IALS Journal 2020

Information for Contributors

The *IALS Journal*, a refereed journal, publishes articles that contribute to the knowledge and understanding of laboratory and university affiliated schools and other significant educational issues. Most articles focus on research, innovation, or opinion. The subjects most often addressed are teaching techniques; administrative concerns; functions, history, and the future of laboratory schools; innovations in curriculum and program; teacher education; student growth and development; and philosophical topics. Rebuttals, responses, and book reviews are also considered for publication. We also welcome articles outlining innovative teaching practices in laboratory schools and columns celebrating exceptional laboratory schools or laboratory school educators. Unsolicited manuscripts are additionally encouraged for consideration, though preference is given to articles that link explicitly to laboratory schools. The Journal is published once a year.

Submission Requirements

Length

The maximum acceptance length is twenty-five pages, including all references and supplemental material.

Format

The *IALS Journal* uses the 6th edition of the American Psychological Association (APA) *Publications Manual*, for style format. It is vital that all manuscripts submitted for publication conform precisely to this APA style.

Submission

Send your submission electronically to the editor of the journal at smortimore@ship.edu. The electronic copy should be written in a **Google doc**. Submissions should **also include author's titles and affiliations, mailing addresses, and a 2-5 sentence author biography. For consideration in the 2020 volume of the journal, please submit by Oct. 25, 2019.**

Editing

The *IALS Journal* reserves the right to make editorial changes in all manuscripts to improve clarity, to conform to style, to correct grammar, and to meet space requirements. All submitted articles are reviewed by the Editors to determine acceptability for publication in the *IALS Journal*. During the revision phase, authors should include information concerning their title, position, laboratory school, university name, location, etc. A brief author biography and school overview will be included at the conclusion of each article.

For further information: Questions can be directed to the editors. The editors welcome suggestions from IALS members concerning ways in which the *IALS Journal* may be improved.

the fact that the *Chryseobacterium* strain was able to grow on a medium containing 10% glycerol. The *Chryseobacterium* strain was identified as *Chryseobacterium indologenum* by comparing the 16S rDNA sequence with those in GenBank.

DISCUSSION

The present study is the first to report the isolation of *Chryseobacterium* from a natural source in the Republic of Korea. The *Chryseobacterium* strain was isolated from a natural source, and its 16S rDNA sequence was compared with those in GenBank. The *Chryseobacterium* strain was identified as *Chryseobacterium indologenum*.

CONCLUSION

The present study is the first to report the isolation of *Chryseobacterium* from a natural source in the Republic of Korea.

REFERENCES

1. Kim, H. J., Kim, J. H., and Kim, S. H. (2005) Isolation and identification of *Chryseobacterium indologenum* from a natural source in the Republic of Korea. *J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 15: 102-103.
2. Kim, H. J., Kim, J. H., and Kim, S. H. (2006) Isolation and identification of *Chryseobacterium indologenum* from a natural source in the Republic of Korea. *J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 16: 102-103.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (grant number 30270001).

REFERENCES

1. Kim, H. J., Kim, J. H., and Kim, S. H. (2005) Isolation and identification of *Chryseobacterium indologenum* from a natural source in the Republic of Korea. *J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 15: 102-103.
2. Kim, H. J., Kim, J. H., and Kim, S. H. (2006) Isolation and identification of *Chryseobacterium indologenum* from a natural source in the Republic of Korea. *J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 16: 102-103.

REFERENCES

1. Kim, H. J., Kim, J. H., and Kim, S. H. (2005) Isolation and identification of *Chryseobacterium indologenum* from a natural source in the Republic of Korea. *J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 15: 102-103.
2. Kim, H. J., Kim, J. H., and Kim, S. H. (2006) Isolation and identification of *Chryseobacterium indologenum* from a natural source in the Republic of Korea. *J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 16: 102-103.