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From the Editor

The articles in this issue of ***GATEways*** address diverse issues of practice in public school and college classrooms. Cosgrove describes how the use of distance learning technology enhances instruction in both elementary and college classrooms, VanZile-Tamsen describes preservice teacher perceptions with implications for educational psychology classes, and Manthei et al. examine the student and teacher perceptions of the implementation of the new moment of quiet reflection law in middle and high school classrooms in Georgia. I hope you will find these articles valuable for dialog about teaching and teacher education.

The Journal is a resource and representation of our organization. I invite you to contribute to its health and well-being by submitting articles, by sharing the publication with colleagues and encouraging them to submit material, and by offering feedback and suggestions for improvement. Thanks for your support.

Diane Willey
Editor

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Table of Contents

Using Distance Learning Technology in the Teacher Education Program

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When you hear the word "telecommunications," visions of CEOs meeting in a luxurious board room via a satellite connection may come to mind. When you hear the words "distance education" visions of students watching and listening to a teacher on a monitor may come to mind. Both are correct because distance learning (DL) technology allows "geographically disparate parties to see and hear one another across the campus or around the globe" (Fetterman, 1996, p. 23). But our teacher education program takes the traditional uses several steps further to utilize DL as a means to extend campus-based courses into clinical field-based sites and to expand the student teaching experience into a variety of settings. Imagine this scene describing a day in the life of an education professor using DL technology.

You enter your campus office and notice a faxed lesson plan from Sally, a student teacher in a fifth grade class, lying on your desk. Since you have been concerned that her lessons are weak in student interaction, you e-mail a message that you want to see her immediately. Minutes later you are conferencing with Sally and her supervising teacher on the distance learning monitor. After leading Sally to discover that she needs to use cooperative grouping, another student teacher, Dick, enters the distance learning room in the same professional development school.

As Dick prepares to teach a math lesson to his first grade class, you invite a colleague from the math department in the College of Arts and Sciences to observe the lesson. When Dick begins to struggle, your colleague grabs the privacy device and softly whispers in Dick's ear--coaching him to teach an effective lesson.

Now it is time for your reading methods course. As you model a process-writing workshop, many students express concern about the

management of the lesson when taught with "real" children. So you turn on the monitor just as Mr. King, a twenty-year veteran teacher, guides his students through a peer writing conference. While his students are conversing with their partners, your students interview Mr. King about his classroom management techniques.

After a brief lunch break, it is time to observe Sally teach from her revised lesson plan. She's prepared to team-teach a science experiment with Jane, who is a student teacher in another school. You are so impressed with the student interaction and involvement, that you ask Sally and Jane for their permission to use the video of their lesson to share with your evening class.

This scenario may seem like a day in the future, but it is happening now in the College of Education at Armstrong Atlantic State University (AASU) in Savannah, GA. AASU is a participant in the Georgia Statewide Academic and Medical System (GSAMS) which is the largest interactive distance learning network in the world (Walsh & Reese, 1995).

Thanks to funding from the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education and Philip Morris Companies, the AASU GSAMS network has been expanded to include a collaborative partnership with Brewton-Parker College (BPC), a private college approximately 100 miles from Savannah in Mt. Vernon, GA, and our elementary professional development schools (PDS). This partnership has created and implemented a project expanding the concept of delivering instruction via distance learning to one of actively learning about distance teaching for the college instructors, public school educators, and preservice teachers. The goal of this DL partnership has been to provide direct experience in the uses of distance learning technology to our preservice teachers: first, through interactive observations during methods courses, and second, through hands-on experiences during student teaching.

The recipients of this project - the children - also benefit by establishing friendships with youngsters they may never meet in person. The AASU PDS, White Bluff Elementary School, is located in the port city of Savannah, GA which is an industrialized, urban center in Chatham County. The BPC PDS, J. D. Dickerson Primary School, is located in Vidalia, GA, the county seat of rural Toombs County,

"famous" for its Vidalia onions and other agricultural products such as peanuts and cotton. The city and country children have opportunities to discuss, create, and learn from each other via DL, expanding their understanding and respect for people living in other areas of the state.

DL in the Schools of the Future

Preservice teachers today will be novice teachers tomorrow and will probably still be educating students well into the next century. However, according to LeBaron and Bragg (1994), "preservice teacher education is not keeping pace with (technology) changes. By the year 2000 the majority of an aging teacher workforce will have retired or resigned, creating a window of opportunity to technology leadership in teacher education" (p. 5). Riedl and Carroll (1993) continue to note that students who use technology in their preparation programs will have direct models to follow when they step into their own classrooms. "A curriculum reflecting the applications of technology will provide an excellent basis for graduates to compete within the information societies of our time" (Schure, 1994, p. 32).

Since contemporary children are raised on MTV, video games, and the Internet, traditional teaching methods rooted in chalkboards and textbooks no longer meet their needs. Their acceptance of technology will become even more engrained in the future, thus it is time to break free from the inherited mold of yesterday's classroom of physical isolation into the world beyond the actual school building (Jefferson & Moore, 1993). According to Twyman (1993), "in the future the classsroom will become a laboratory with access to the world and all that is in it" (p. 41). Teachers in the future will no longer be the primary source of information, but instead facilitate, coordinate, and design relevant activities to meet their students' needs and interests within the "real" world. "Distance learning is an instructional option that throws open the doors to education across the nation and to other countries as well . . . (bringing) the instructor and the learner together in classrooms without walls to form a new kind of learning environment" (Ball & Crook, 1994, p. 68). Also, "this flexible classroom differs from the traditional fixed classroom because students are not limited by time or age or role. . . ." (Newman, 1993, p. 23).

And, consistent with Vygotsky's (1978) theories, students' learning is enhanced by engaging in social interactions with others of mixed abilities and backgrounds. Since "the classroom of the future needs to prepare our children to live productive, enjoyable lives in a complex, rapidly changing world" (Lund, 1993, p. 7), we need to equip our preservice teachers with experiences so that they will make DL technology an integral part of their teaching (Sexton, 1996).

DL in Methods Courses and Field Experiences

A major focus in the reform of teacher education programs is the expansion of the clinical experiences into varied and authentic settings. Goodlad (1990) refers to this phenomenon as a disjuncture between theory and practice. Therefore, DL technology affords the methods course instructor the opportunity to immediately bridge the gap between theory and practice. As McDevitt (1996) notes

> Teacher educators and education reformers have questioned the lack of school teacher involvement in university methods courses and communication between teacher educators and teachers in the schools. . . . Telecommunication networks can link colleges of education to schools and reduce the isolation physical distance causes. (p. 191)

Since observational opportunities in "real" classrooms usually create scheduling problems, disrupt the visited classes, and fail to focus on the important details of effective teaching, the utilization of DL technology assists future teachers in becoming competent observers of learning during their methods courses without disturbing the children. Preservice teachers in our programs are able to participate in numerous observations of authentic teaching along with their college instructors who instantly highlight important and effective teaching strategies while they are occurring. Furthermore, these experiences are arranged so that the preservice teachers interview the teacher without disrupting the class. Therefore, the observation becomes meaningful and relevant to the preservice teachers. It also gives them and their instructors a common experience to analyze and discuss during subsequent class meetings.

The field experiences, including student teaching, have traditionally been considered an important component in the preparation of future teachers, thus frequent and on-going supervision with specific, constructive feedback is essential. However, practitioners question the disconnection in the traditional model.

> Placed in a school, student teachers are largely isolated from university faculty and coursework. . . . Supervising faculty are seldom those who taught earlier methods courses, so connections that might be made among ideas, methods, and practices learned on campus occur haphazardly, if at all. (Schlagal, Trathen, & Blanton,1996, p. 175)

They continue that the preservice teachers often abandon what they have learned in their methods courses in as little as two weeks. Rather than apply what they have learned, they adapt and replicate the practices of their cooperating teachers. Thus, traditional field experiences often occur in disconnection from campus-based learning.

Furthermore, the preservice teachers and their college supervisors are usually separated by many miles which makes observations on a regular basis difficult and time-consuming. This limited time can ultimately hinder the college supervisor's efforts to build a trusting mentorship. Clawson (1993) concludes that more frequent contact among the college and classroom supervisors and the preservice teachers results in a more collaborative effort which ultimately improves field experiences.

Many college supervisors attempt to bridge this gap by providing seminars on a regular basis to address the challenges the preservice teachers face; however, even "site visits from university personnel and student-teaching seminars seem insufficient to bridge the gulf between the islands of university training and public school teaching" (Schlagal, Trathen & Blanton, 1996, p. 175). Thus the utilization of distance learning technology in our programs supplements the weekly face-to-face visits with frequent distance observations by the college supervisors as well as methods course instructors with simultaneous input from the field site supervisors.

DL and Team Teaching

Southworth (1993) writes that "the teacher is no longer solely dependent upon his or her personal knowledge of the world, but is increasingly more of a guide leading students through an incredible wealth of knowledge" (p. 35). "The learning environment is no longer narrowly defined as one instructor lecturing to a single classroom. Instead, outstanding teachers or experts can reach out to multiple learning sites, allowing more students access to the best education" (Ball & Crook, 1994, p. 64). However Schlagal, Trathen, and Blanton (1996) argue that

> student teachers are disconnected from other classrooms. Once in a classroom, students find that room becomes a world unto itself. They seldom visit other grades, other schools, or other cooperating teachers. Student teachers are (also) disconnected from their peers. (p. 175)

Besides having the opportunity to plan and teach lessons with other preservice teachers, thus taking their students on field trips to a variety of locations and meeting other children, the use of DL becomes a vehicle to improve all teaching strategies, not just those lessons transmitted via DL technology. According to Sexton (1996)

> the technology becomes a means whereby the students come to a better understanding of the concept. . . . They are reminded that more student and less teacher talk should be taking place during a lesson. . . . The student teachers are expected to think about how they will present the lesson so that the children are communicating their understanding, rather than simply telling the children what they know. (p. 65)

DL Training and Effective Teaching Strategies

To be effective, distance teaching requires training and practice. In general, special technical expertise is not required (technical assistants are usually available to manuever cameras, adjust sound levels, and operate videotape equipment through the touchpads).

However, teachers need to be comfortable working in the distance learning environment and must be prepared to adjust their teaching styles.

In the team-teaching component of this project, student teachers initially meet each other face-to-face during an overview presentation of the uses of DL. Within a week, they meet again - via DL - to observe an actual teaching demonstration of students at multiple sites. They also critique the lesson and interview the instructor as well as "play" with the equipment. The student teacher teams usually meet at least one more time—either in person or via DL—prior to teaching. Finally the teams teach a lesson to their students from their own site and to their partners' students at the distant site. A follow-up debriefing session to discuss effective teaching strategies brings closure to this hands-on experience.

As a result of this project, the student teachers have discovered that effective teaching strategies are an essential must for DL teaching! We have identified six strategies that particularly contribute to successful DL teaching:

1. Be prepared! Planning of materials, aids, and strategies needs to be carefully considered for activities within and among the sites. Determine that necessary handouts and materials are readily available because a lull in a lesson while the teacher searches for materials will create student unattentiveness.
2. Establish a bond immediately among all the students and teachers. Require that the children introduce themselves and share some pertinent information to aid in remembering their names by association. Elliott (1995) recommends that teachers refer to the children by name and not by location in order to achieve a more cohesive class environment. Build rapport by getting to know all the children by involving them in the lesson from the beginning.
3. Use variety in the lesson. Respond to teaching styles by using a balance of print and visual aids with short, concise verbal messages. Learn to "cut the fat out of lessons" (Boone, 1996, p. 61) so as to keep the students focused and on-task.
4. Provide interactive opportunities not just with the instructor but with the other students at all sites. Rutherford and Grana (1994) recommend using cooperative learning techniques so that groups of students at both sites work together to accomplish a common goal. Buzz groups can be an effective strategy by encouraging the students within their sites to talk and participate with each other and then share their findings with the students at the remote site.
5. Feedback is important. It motivates the students, corrects misunderstandings, and monitors the lesson. Continuously check the students at the remote sites by asking them to repeat concepts or answer questions. Direct questions to specific students, redirected questions so that students respond to each other's questions, and follow-up questions to provide additional input are all effective. Remember to increase wait- time for responses to compensate for the lag in voice transmission from each site as well as for the rearrangement of microphones.
6. Use both summarization and closure techniques to continuously review the key points of the lesson. By using the graphics camera, student responses can be listed, edited, and reviewed.

Consequently, the team-teaching experience via DL has reinforced the value of effective teaching practices for our student teachers. Truly, "video instruction forces a teacher to re-think and fine-tune his methodology. . . ." (Whitaker, 1995, p. 68).

Conclusion

In keeping with the Holmes Group (1990) recommendations, the Armstrong Atlantic State University-Brewton Parker College distance learning partnership has prepared hundreds of preservice teachers to expand their technological horizons through the involvement of other students and colleagues in the teaching/learning continuum. And, in the process, they have celebrated the diversity, talents, and knowledge of their students!

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Enhancing Educational Psychology Courses for Pre-Service Teachers

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Abstract

The present research project was designed to qualitatively assess the perceived needs of pre-service teachers for various content areas in the field of educational psychology. It was believed that data collected from pre-service teachers after their student teaching experience would assist in identifying topic areas that are most useful for practice since pre-service teachers will have a clearer idea about which topics are useful after they have done student teaching.

The participants were 21 pre-service teachers enrolled in the investigator's graduate-level educational psychology class. This course was part of the senior block in which students met in classes on campus for five weeks and, then, student taught for five weeks. Before student teaching began, the participants were asked to respond to two open-ended questions. After student teaching ended, the participants were again asked to respond to these two questions. The investigator prepared a comparison of before and after responses. This comparison was presented on the final day of class, and students were asked to respond to the accuracy of the categorization of their responses and to provide any additional comments based on experiences from the second cycle.

Theme analysis of the data suggests that, prior to student teaching, pre-service teachers are interested in learning about characteristics of students and traits of effective teachers. After student teaching, they become more interested in managing interactions with students (i.e., motivation techniques and classroom management). These findings support recent statements of educational psychologists calling for classes with more "authentic" activities.

As an instructor of educational psychology in a College of Education, I have been concerned about the effectiveness of my educational psychology courses for preparing pre-service teachers for actual teaching. How much of what I was teaching was translating into effective practice in the classroom? The present research project was designed to qualitatively assess the degree to which particular topics in educational psychology were found to be useful for pre-service teachers before and after their first student teaching experience. I was expecting that the data collected from these students would enable me to rethink my courses and design them in ways that would meet the needs of my students, who will be future practitioners.

It was believed for several reasons that qualitative information from pre-service teachers would be more informative than a rating scale for each topic or data from test scores. First, qualitative data would provide richer descriptions of pre-service teachers' perceptions and experiences, thus making it easier to translate findings to specific changes in the educational psychology course (Kvale, 1994). In addition, open-ended responses would allow respondents to indicate the topics/issues most important to them. An investigator-constructed likert-type scale would likely unduly influence their responses since they would see the topics chosen for the scale as those that are important for the instructor and might be encouraged to rate statements according to their perception of how the instructor wanted them to rank items.

The qualitative information collected in the present study consisted of pre-service teachers' written responses to two open-ended questions before and after student teaching. They also responded in writing to the investigator's summary tables of the data with any additional comments and concerns.

Method

Participants

The participants in the study were 21 master's-level students in Secondary Education at a mid-size Southeastern regional university. These were all individuals with a four-year degree in a specific content area who had enrolled in the master's program in order to obtain a teaching certificate. There were 16 females and 5 males involved in the

data collection process. In terms of ethnicity, two of the participants were black (both females), and the remaining 19 participants were white.

All of the students were enrolled in the investigator's educational psychology class, but the final grade in no way depended upon participation in the study. This class was part of the senior block, and students were concurrently enrolled in Curriculum and Media in the Secondary School and the appropriate methods course (math, science, English, business, and art.) For the first five weeks of the quarter, the students met on campus in these three classes for approximately 18 hours per week. After the first five weeks ended, students spent two weeks student teaching in a middle grades classroom. After this two week period, they met on campus again for one day, attending each of the block classes for a short time. The following day, they began three weeks of student teaching in area high schools. At the end of the three week period, they again met back on campus for one day, attending each of the three block classes for approximately two hours.

The educational psychology course covered such topics as behavioral learning, classroom management and discipline, cognitive theories of learning, theories of motivation, and educational assessment and evaluation. Class presentations were primarily lecture format, but involved open discussions of material at any time that students had questions or concerns. Class concepts were illustrated with multiple real-world classroom examples. Assignments included the analysis of a "rich" case study in which students were to apply educational psychology principles to the class and particular students described in the case in a way that would most effectively promote the learning environment of the hypothetical class. In addition, the students were to maintain a reflective journal of their experiences in both cycles of student teaching. The journal was to include a description of the class and daily activities, as well as an attempt to apply the principles learned in educational psychology to the field experience.

The anonymity of the participants was ensured by having participants put a personal identifier on each sheet of data that was turned in. This personal identifier was to be a word or a series of numbers and/or letters which only the individual could identify. This

method allowed the investigator to match up Time 1, Time 2, and Time 3 responses without knowing which students had constructed which responses.

Data Collection

The data collection took place at three points during the quarter: the last class day before the first cycle of student teaching, the class period after the middle cycle ended and before the secondary cycle began, and the last day of class for the quarter. At the first data collection point, participants responded in writing to two questions:

1. Describe two ways that educational psychologists can assist teachers in their daily practice.
2. What one topic that has been covered in this class do you think will have the greatest impact on your teaching?

The participants responded to the same two questions at the second data collection point, after the middle school cycle had been completed but before the secondary cycle began. At the third data collection point, the participants were to respond in writing to the taxonomy that had been completed by the investigator based on data from both collection points. They were to add any new comments based on their experiences in the second cycle of student teaching, and they were to indicate whether or not the taxonomy corresponded to their "reality" as student teachers. Asking them to evaluate the taxonomy was a way to "member check," which allows the qualitative researcher to make sure that she has gotten it right (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Data Analysis

The initial analysis of Time 1 and Time 2 data was done by categorizing each participant's responses to the two questions into "themes" or topic areas covered in the educational psychology course (LeCompte & Preissle, 1994). For example, "helping teachers to analyze student behaviors that are being portrayed and helping teachers analyze the way students think and why they think that way—how can they learn," was categorized into "causes of behavior" and "understanding cognitive learning." Once each participant's responses had been categorized in this way, a case-ordered meta-matrix was

developed for each question (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In the matrix for each question; the rows corresponded to the students in the class, and the columns were Time 1 and Time 2 responses.

These meta-matrices were further condensed into the taxonomies shown in Tables 1 and 2. Identified themes or topics were further condensed into broad categories, and the frequencies of each as they appeared in the responses of participants were tabulated. The final two taxonomies provide a clear picture of the contrast in student responses before and after student teaching.

Results

The Perceived Contribution of Educational Psychologists to the Daily Practice of Teachers

The before and after data for the first question are shown in Table 1. It is possible to see that there was a definite change in responses about what educational psychologists can contribute to classroom teachers before and after student teaching. Before the first cycle of student teaching, there was a great deal of emphasis on understanding students (12 responses) and understanding teachers and teaching strategies (9 responses). The number of responses concerning understanding students and teachers dropped by 50% after the first cycle of student teaching ended (from 12 to 6 and from 9 to 4, respectively). These findings suggest that the contribution educational psychologists can make to teachers concerning knowledge about students and teachers is perceived as much less important after the pre-service teachers had experienced two weeks in a middle grades classroom.

Responses relating to the contribution that educational psychologists can make to teachers in terms of teacher/student interactions (i.e., classroom management, motivating students, discipline) were made about as frequently before student teaching as after (17 before, 23 after). These findings suggest that pre-service teachers are interested in the information educational psychologists can provide about daily interactions with students both before and after student teaching.

Before student teaching, pre-service teachers see very little that

educational psychologists can contribute directly from scholarly activities or consulting roles (3 responses). After student teaching, however, the pre-service teachers perceive this contribution to be more

Table 1.
Ways That Educational Psychologists Can Assist Teachers in Their Daily Practice

Before Cycle 1 (Middle School)	After Cycle 1 (Middle School)
Students (12):	**Students (6):**
Understanding Student Needs (4)	Understanding Student Needs (2)
Understanding Student Learning (4)	Understanding Student Learning (1)
Understanding Causes of Behavior (4)	Understanding Causes of Behavior (3)
Teachers (9):	**Teachers (4):**
Effective Teaching Strategies (7)	Effective Teaching Strategies (2)
Understanding Teacher Abilities (1)	Preventing Teacher Burnout (1)
Preventing Teacher Burnout (1)	Curriculum Development (1)
Teacher/Student Interactions (17):	**Teacher/Student Interactions (21):**
Motivation (8)	Motivation (7)
Classroom Management (5)	Classroom Management (6)
Behavior Management/ Modification (2)	Behavior Management/ Modification (4)
Discipline (1)	Discipline (1)
Punishment (1)	Positive Reinforcement (3)
Educational Psychologists (3):	**Educational Psychologists (8):**
Valid/Reliable Assessment (1)	Assessment Methods (1)
Report Findings from Research (1)	Not Generalizing (1)
Counseling, Listening, Talking (1)	Test Construction (1)
	Tests for Special Students (1)
	Assessment of Students who are Failing (1)
	Report Findings from Research (1)
	Communicating Special Needs of Students (1)
	Effective Mainstreaming (1)

important, as reflected by the slight increase in responses in this area (8 responses). There is a greater interest in what educational psychologists can share about test construction, as well as ways of assessing and modifying instruction for students with special needs. This finding is probably related to the fact that many of these pre-service teachers encountered children with special needs in their classrooms. They were forced to deal with inclusion issues and had very little prior training to help them do so.

Overall, these findings suggest that before student teaching, pre-service teachers are interested in what educational psychologists can tell them about what students and teachers are like. They are also interested in interacting effectively with students. After student teaching, however, they become more interested in the student/teacher interactions and in the direct contribution of educational psychologists to student assessment and inclusion issues.

The Perceived Importance of Specific Educational Psychology Topics for Teaching

The before and after data for the second question are shown in Table 2. Before the first cycle of student teaching, the main topics that had been covered in class which were seen as most important were those dealing with understanding characteristics of students (i.e., behavior, cognitive learning, and attention), understanding the interactions of teachers and students in classrooms (i.e., classroom management and enhancing motivation), and assessment and grading issues. After the first cycle of student teaching, the most useful topics were primarily those relating to student/teacher interactions in the classroom. However, there were two responses related to teachers which were mentioned after student teaching that had not been mentioned at all before student teaching: understanding teacher thinking skills and reflective practice.

These findings suggest that after pre-service teachers gain classroom experience, they are much more likely to see the need for information and/or practice dealing with real students in real classrooms. The data collected after the second cycle of student teaching add support to these findings. All of the participants agreed that the tables adequately represented their reality and perceptions. In

addition, of the seven participants who made additional comments at the third data collection point, five indicated that classroom management and motivation techniques were still perceived as the most important topics, and that they would find course information about these areas useful for future teaching.

Table 2.
Topic That Will Have the Greatest Impact on Teaching

Before Cycle 1 (Middle School)	After Cycle 1 (Middle School)
Students (7):	**Students (0):**
Conditioned/Behavioral Learning (3) Cognitive Learning (3) Attention (1)	
Teachers (0):	**Teachers (2):**
	Teacher Thinking Skills (1) Reflective Practice (1)
Teacher/Student Interactions (14):	**Teacher/Student Interactions (18):**
Motivation (3) Learned Helplessness (2) Classroom Management (7) Punishment (1) Restitution (1)	Motivation (5) Learned Helplessness (1) Classroom Management (9) Behavior Management/ Modification (2) Positive Reinforcement (1)
Educational Psychologists (2):	**Educational Psychologists (0):**
Assessment Test Construction (1) Grading (1)	

Discussion

The findings of the present study with pre-service teachers is consistent with findings of a study by Shannon, Swetman, Barry, and vonEschenbach (1996) which found that the topics which were

perceived by pre-service teachers, teachers, principals, and college faculty to be the most essential topics for pre-service teachers to learn in teacher education programs are those topics related to instruction and communication. These topics include motivation, classroom management, and classroom organization and environment. Classroom management and motivation techniques were perceived as important for the pre-service teachers in the present study at all three data collection points.

These findings are not only pertinent for the structure and design of my own educational psychology classes, but they have implications for how educational psychology can be more effectively taught for all pre-service teachers. The pre-service teachers in the present study suggest that the most important thing for them to learn is how to deal with real students in real classrooms. Once these pre-service teachers had classroom experience, they saw less importance in learning "about" students and teachers. Fundamentally, these findings relate to the difference between declarative and procedural knowledge as delineated by Brown, Collins, and Duguid (1988). The main idea behind their work is that if we, as teachers, want students to learn how to do a task, then we need to provide experiences that allow practice of the task, not just information about the task. These experiences (called authentic activities by Brown et al.) allow students to develop procedural knowledge by encouraging practice of the skills that are required in real-world settings. In addition to the important practice these activities provide, authentic activities also foster the transfer of course concepts to applied settings. Authentic activities that have been proposed for pre-service teachers in educational psychology courses have included the development of lesson plans which incorporate findings from recent cognitive research (Shuell, 1996) and the analysis of "rich" cases that allow pre-service teachers to "practice" effective classroom management techniques (Anderson, et al., 1995).

The findings of the present research project also offer support for the educational psychologists who have question the usefulness of educational psychology courses as "foundations" courses for pre-service teachers (Anderson, et al., 1995; Glaser, 1991; Shuell, 1996). The foundation metaphor has been used for almost one hundred years by educational psychologists in course planning (Thorndike, 1910).

This metaphor suggests that the knowledge provided by educational psychology is a foundation upon which teachers can build effective practice. The typical educational psychology class has provided the knowledge, and pre-service teachers have been expected to take this knowledge and effectively apply it in the classroom to create a successful learning environment. However, research in educational psychology has shown that such transfer of knowledge from one setting to another is not an automatic process (Shuell, 1988).

Recent research suggests that knowledge is situated (Brown, et al., 1988). Knowledge gained in one setting is not readily applied to other settings. In addition, as mentioned above, procedural knowledge is not automatically developed from declarative knowledge. If educational psychologists are interested in helping their students become effective teachers, then these educational psychologists must put into practice what is known about effective teaching and learning. For the training of pre-service teachers, this means providing authentic activities which will allow the pre-service teachers to practice the skills they will need in the classroom. From a personal standpoint, I have already begun to change the way I teach educational psychology; I have more changes in mind for the future. My goal is to make educational psychology as authentic an experience as possible, thus increasing the likelihood that pre-service teachers will find the course useful and will more easily be able to transfer learned skills to real teaching. In the process of changing my course to better meet the needs of my students, I hope that these same students will come to understand that they must be as authentic in their own teaching to better promote the learning of the students in their classrooms.

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Georgia's Moment of Quiet Reflection Law: Teacher and Student Perceptions

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Abstract

The issue of religion and public schools is primarily studied as a constitutional issue. This research project, however, collected and examined the perceptions of a sample of public school teachers and students who were experiencing the new Moment of Quiet Reflection mandate in Georgia. Instruments were developed to measure the implementation of the law, personal responses to the law, perceptions of how others respond to the law, and if participants believed their religious freedom was compromised. Findings indicate the original intent of the law and the actual outcomes of its practice in schools are different from one another.

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, nor prohibiting the free exercise thereof. . .
Amendment I of the Constitution of the
United States of America

The importance of the role of religion in American public education is undeniable. It is impossible to ignore, from an historical perspective, the impact religion played as the primary impetus for the founding and early support by the public and government for a system of free, taxpayer supported public education. The first public education law, commonly called the "Old Deluder Satan" Act was passed in 1647 in the Massachusetts Bay Colony. It required all towns of 50 or more inhabitants to establish free schools to instruct the children of the town in reading. The purpose of the legislation was to insure that the

citizenry, bereft of ordained clergy, would be able to read the Bible and thus would be able to minister to themselves. In this way the population could keep themselves godly and keep the "Old Deluder" at bay (Cremin, 1970).

Religion continued its role in the shaping of public education through the frontier and metropolitan eras of the development of American education. The pervasiveness of religion in education can be seen in the so-called "Cincinnati Bible Wars" of 1869 in which opponents argued not whether the Bible should be a part of school curriculum but which Bible should be used. This confrontation of opposing views culminated in the deaths of several people (Cremin, 1980).

The issues of preparing immigrants for democratic citizenry and the need for literate factory workers and military personnel expanded the earlier religious and moral purposes that were the basis for establishing public schools. Daily prayers, devotionals, and Bible readings, however, continued to be a common feature in many public schools across the nation and religion was intertwined with education. The "Gary Plan," for example, was started in Gary, Indiana, to allow students release time from public schools for specified periods of time to attend places of worship. In 1940, a similar plan was introduced in Illinois to allow the religious instruction in the schools themselves. This plan was struck down by the Supreme Court as being violative of the establishment clause of the First Amendment, although the Court did later uphold the right of release time for religious instruction (Cremin, 1988).

1962 and 1963 were the watershed years for the continued viability of state mandated, state sponsored religious activities in the public schools. In 1962, the Supreme Court found the New York Board of Regent's prayer unconstitutional, even though it was nondenominational. The prayer had been composed by the Regents and was used to begin the school day in the New York public schools. In 1963, in deciding two companion cases, the Supreme Court in Abington Township School District v. Schempp and Murray v. Currlett held that prayers written by the states for school use and the compulsory recitation of the Lord's Prayer and Bible reading violated the Establishment Clause of the First Amendment (School District of

Abington Township v. Schempp, 1963).

These three cases produced a firestorm of indignation among certain segments of the population. A constitutional amendment was introduced that declared the United States should legally be a Christian nation. The bill did not receive favorable support in the Congress. The decisions did, however, produce some creative legislation. Numerous states passed laws providing for "moments of silence," or "silent prayer" in the public schools.

Alabama passed legislation that permitted students to participate in a minute of silence for meditation or voluntary prayer. In holding the law to be unconstitutional, the Supreme Court found that the law represented an endorsement of religion by the state. This case reiterated the doctrine consistently stated by the Court: prayer in the schools does not offend the First Amendment; rather, it is the role of the state in requiring or sanctioning the religious activity that is contrary to the Constitution (Wallace v. Jaffree, 1985).

State legislatures continued their attempts to reintroduce state sanctioned prayer into the public schools by the use of so-called "Moment of Silence" or "Moment of Quiet Reflection" bills. These laws mandate a moment of quiet reflection or meditation in the classroom, supervised by the teacher or another school official. Students need not pray but are required to remain silent during the allotted time period.

An example of such a mandate is the Moment of Quiet Reflection law enacted in Georgia in the fall of 1994 (O.C.G.A. 20-2-1050). Originally introduced as a "prayer" bill, it was quickly amended to a "quiet reflection" or "silent reflection" bill when its sponsors were informed of the unconstitutionality of their initial proposal. Georgia Senate Bill 396 requires, *inter alia*, that students are required to participate in a brief period, not more than 60 seconds, of quiet reflection, conducted by the teacher in charge of the classroom. The bill states that it "is not intended to be and shall not be conducted as a religious service or exercise," but neither is it intended to "prevent student initiated voluntary school prayers" (O.C.G.A. 20-2-1050). A copy of the state statute appears in Appendix A.

The text for the new law states

> The General Assembly finds that in today's hectic society, all too few of our citizens are able to experience even a moment of quiet reflection before plunging headlong into the day's activities. Our young citizens are particularly affected by this absence of an opportunity for a moment of quiet reflection. The General Assembly finds that our young, and society as a whole, would be well served if students were afforded a moment of quiet reflection at the beginning of each day in the public schools (O.C.G.A. 20-2-1050).

The rhetoric during the debate over the new bill elaborated on the hope that a reflective moment would help students think about their behavior and their schoolwork before "plunging headlong into the day's activities."

The law also states that

> In each public school classroom, the teacher in charge shall, at the opening of school upon every school day, conduct a brief period of quiet reflection for not more than 60 seconds with the participation of all the pupils therein assembled (O.C.G.A. 20-2-1050).

At least one teacher in Georgia has objected to being forced to participate in what he perceived as a state mandated religious activity. Mr. Brian Bown, a Gwinnett County social studies teacher, refused to conduct the moment of quiet reflection and was dismissed by the school board on grounds of insubordination and willful neglect of duty (Rankin, 1995). His appeal was denied by the United Stated District Court for the Northern District of Georgia because the court found no First Amendment infringement in the law. Mr. Bown has appealed his dismissal to the 11th Circuit Court of Appeals. The eventual outcome of the case will be important to educators not only in Georgia, but also to the educators in other states that are proposing to enact similar legislation.

Purpose of the Study

The issue of religion and public schools is primarily studied as a constitutional issue. The purpose of this research project, however, was to find out whether or not schools were complying with the law and to examine the perceptions of a sample of Georgia public school teachers and students who were actually experiencing the new moment of quiet reflection mandate. The data were collected in two ways: 1) 172 teachers filled out a questionnaire about their perceptions of the new mandate at the end of the first year of implementation, and 2) 339 secondary students were surveyed about their perceptions of the new mandate at the beginning of the second year of implementation.

The Teacher Survey

Sample

The sample consisted of 172 full-time public school classroom teachers from grades K-12. The teachers were from school systems within 21 different counties of Georgia, including the Atlanta area. Thus, they represented rural, suburban, small town, and urban areas from a broad geographical area within the state. The sample is representative, but it is not random in that all of the teachers were part-time graduate students at the State University of West Georgia. Some were taking a course to maintain their teaching certificate; others were earning an EdM or EdS degree on a part-time basis. The questionnaires were distributed in eight different classes from five different departments and voluntarily completed by the teachers.

Instrument

A 12-question survey was created for the purposes of this study. The questions were designed to elicit the teachers' perceptions of the implementation of the new mandate, their perceptions of the students' responses to the mandate, and their own personal response to the mandate. The questions required a yes or no response with space provided for comments. Straight percentages of yes or no responses were compiled to gather overall information that could be examined and, in turn, provide direction for designing the student phase of the research.

Results

The first issue was the teachers' perceptions of the implementation of the new mandate. Over 97% of the teachers indicated that they were complying with the new directive to conduct a moment of silence in their classrooms, but only 40% of them actually conducted the exercise themselves. Their comments indicated that for the remaining 60%, the administrators usually conducted the exercise over the public address system. Ninety-five percent of the teachers reported that their students practiced a daily moment of quiet reflection

Table 1.
Teacher Questionnaire

Yes	No	Question
95.9%	4.1%	1. Do the students practice a daily moment of silence in your classroom?
40.0%	60.0%	2. Do you conduct the moment? If no, who does?
63.0%	36.9%	3. Were you given any directive for how to explain the moment of silence to your students? If no, what did you tell the students? If yes, who gave the directive? What were you told?
97.0%	2.9%	4. Did you comply with the directive? If not, what did you tell the students?
44.0%	55.9%	5. Do you think most of your students appreciate having the moment of silence?
27.5%	72.5%	6. Do most students appear to "reflect or pray" during the moment of silence?
91.6%	8.3%	7. Are most students quiet on most days during the moment of silence?
42.8%	57.1%	8. Do you need to act as disciplinarian to keep students quiet during the moment of silence?
32.7%	67.2%	9. Do you feel the moment of silence is a religious exercise?
11.1%	88.8%	10. Do you feel your right to religious freedom has been infringed upon?
76.8%	23.1%	11. Do you want to continue a compulsory moment of silence in your classroom?
46.2%	53.7%	12. Do you want to see state-mandated prayer in the public schools?

in their classrooms.

The second issue was the teachers' perceptions of the students' responses to the mandate. Slightly over 91% of the teachers reported that their students were quiet during the moment on most days. Slightly over 42% stated that they needed to act as disciplinarians to keep students quiet. Forty-four percent of the teachers reported that they believed the students appreciated having the moment, but only 27.5% believed that their students reflected or prayed during the moment of quiet reflection.

The third issue was the teachers' own perceptions. The data indicated that nearly one-third (32.7%) believed the moment of quiet reflection was a religious exercise. Only 11.1% believed the moment was an infringement on their religious freedom. Over 76% wanted to continue the compulsory moment in their classrooms, but over half of the teachers (53.7%) indicated they did not want to see state-mandated prayer in the public schools.

The Student Survey

Sample

The sample consisted of 339 secondary students in five schools in northwest Georgia. Two of the schools were high schools, two of the schools were middle schools, and one school was a magnet school serving grades 8 through 12. Data describing the schools are presented in Table 2. Of the 339 students surveyed, 202 were girls and 137 were boys. Each teacher was provided a set of standardized instructions and had students complete the questionnaire during class.

The purpose of the questionnaire was to survey a sample of Georgia middle and high school students to determine their perceptions of the moment of quiet reflection. Specifically, students' opinions and attitudes about four critical issues were sought: 1) how students believed the moment was being implemented in their schools, 2) whether or not students participated in the moment, 3) if students thought the moment was accomplishing the goals set forth by the state legislature, and 4) whether or not the students felt the moment was an infringement on their religious freedom.

Table 2.
Demographic Information for the Five Schools

School	Setting	Grade	Enroll	Students Surveyed	Percent Minority	SES Indicator
One	Urban	8-12	1553	52	93	44
Two	Urban	7- 9	1155	61	44	72
Three	Rural	7- 8	763	61	60	43
Four	Rural	9-12	750	74	46	60
Five	Rural	9-12	895	91	33	75

Note: The SES Indicator was estimated by 1 minus the percent of students eligible for free or reduced lunch.

Instrument: The Student Perception Scale (SPS)

The questionnaire, created and field tested for purposes of this study, contained 29 Likert-scaled items. The questionnaire was created to learn students' perceptions concerning the four critical issues stated above. With one exception (item 29), items were written so that high scores represented favorable attitudes toward the state law. The SPS is presented in Appendix B.

The SPS was developed from a larger set of original items. The scale was refined through the assessment of inter-item correlations and the application of factor analysis. For the first issue (implementation), it was not possible to determine a single factor. Students' responses, therefore, are reported by item.

For the second and third issues (participation and effectiveness), a set of valid items was identified. For participation, 10 items (# 4-13) were identified with an internal reliability (coefficient œ) of .87. For the effectiveness of the moment, 13 items (# 13-25) were identified with an internal reliability (coefficient œ) of .97. Students' responses to individual items in these sections were scored, and their subscale scores were calculated by summing across the related items.

Students' attitudes regarding the moment of quiet reflection and religious freedom were assessed by 4 items (items 26-29). Because of the nature of these statements, it was not possible to define a single factor. Consequently, students, responses are reported by item.

Results

The 339 students surveyed had a wide range of perceptions

about the implementation of the moment of quiet reflection, their level of participation in the moment, their sense of its effectiveness, and beliefs regarding any possible infringement of their religious freedom. Students' perceptions of who they believe is implementing the moment of quiet reflection are reported in Table 3. Contrary to the requirements

Table 3.
Students' Responses to Who Leads the Moment of Quiet Reflection

Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD
In my school, the principal announces the moment of quiet reflection for all classes at the same time.	178	66	46	15	34
In my school, teachers conduct the moment of quiet reflection.	74	97	67	44	58

of the law, students tended to perceive principals rather than teachers as the ones responsible for carrying out the moment of quiet reflection.

Students also had widely differing views about their levels of participation. Students' mean levels of participation in the moment are reported in Table 4 by gender and in Table 5 by school. For the 10 participation items, high levels of participation were defined by a mean item score of 4 or greater and low levels of participation were defined by a mean item score of 2 or less. Of the 339 students, 81, or 24%, indicated high levels of participation; 38 or 11% indicated low levels of participation. Generally, girls tended to participate in the moment to a greater degree than boys. Students from rural schools tended to

Table 4.
Descriptive Statistics for Participation in the Moment and Perception of the Moment as Effective by Gender

Variable		n	M	SD	peritem M	t
Participation						
	Girls	202	33.60	8.06	3.36	3.59*
	Boys	137	30.23	9.07	3.02	
Effectiveness						
	Girls	202	33.17	13.89	2.55	1.94
	Boys	137	30.20	13.76	2.32	

*p<.0005.

Table 5.
Descriptive Statistics for Participation in the Moment and Perception of the Moment as Effective by School

Variable		n	M	SD	peritem M
Participation					
	School One	52	29.51	7.60	2.95
	School Two	61	28.67	8.97	2.87
	School Three	61	33.69	8.07	3.37
	School Four	74	36.99	6.97	3.69
	School Five	91	31.47	8.76	3.15
Effectiveness					
	School One	52	32.25	14.34	2.48
	School Two	61	27.15	12.26	2.09
	School Three	61	34.49	12.80	2.65
	School Four	74	36.84	13.85	2.83
	School Five	91	29.62	14.04	2.28

participate in the moment to a greater degree than students from urban schools.

Students' perceptions about the effectiveness of the moment of quiet reflection are reported in Table 4 by gender and in Table 5 by school. Students did not feel that the moment of quiet reflection was effectively accomplishing the goals expressed by state legislators who sponsored the bill. Generally, they did not see the moment helping them with academic, social, or behavioral matters. Although students often stated that they participated in the moment, they did not see it having any effect on their school work or ability to get along with peers, teachers, and parents; nor did it provide a reprieve from their hectic schedules. Girls and boys did not differ significantly in their perception of its effectiveness. Likewise, urban and rural students did not differ in their perceptions of its effectiveness.

Table 6 reports students' responses to four significant questions related to the moment of quiet reflection. On the issue of whether students use the moment to pray, a wide range of opinions was expressed. Adding the students who agreed or strongly agreed to this question, approximately 38% of the students were found to pray during the moment. In spite of this finding, only 20% would like to see some sort of mandatory prayer.

Table 6.
Student Responses to Statements Dealing with Prayer and Pressure to Pray

Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD
I use the moment of quiet reflection to pray.	76	52	82	39	90
I want to have mandated prayer instead of the moment of quiet reflection.	38	29	95	59	118
I feel pressured from peers to pray during the moment of quiet reflection.	14	12	45	66	202
I feel pressured from teachers to pray during the moment of quiet reflection.	22	15	40	71	191

Students did not appear to feel pressured either from teachers or peers to pray during the moment of quiet reflection. However, as reported in Table 7, 33% of the students believed the moment was an infringement upon their religious freedom. High school students particularly believed that the law violated their religious freedom. While only 18% of middle school students viewed the moment as an infringement upon their religious freedom, 48% of high school students believed it was an infringement on their religious freedom.

Conclusions and Discussion

Although the teachers and students surveyed in this project were not selected in a random fashion and therefore the generalizability of these findings can be questioned, their responses provided insight into the application and success of the Georgia law. Issues related to prayer in school and mandatory quiet reflection time are debated frequently in the public arena; however, rarely are the views and perspectives of teachers and students considered. This research project fills that void.

Teachers and students tended to agree on most issues related to the mandatory moment of quiet reflection. Both agreed that the principal was the primary implementor of the daily moment of quiet reflection. Thus, instead of a teacher within the classroom conducting

Table 7.
Responses to the Statement "The moment of quiet reflection infringes on my religious freedom," by Middle and High School Students

School	SA	A	N	D	SD
Middle School	32	18	32	30	63
High School	81	30	38	8	9
Total	113	48	70	38	72

Note: Chi-Square=77.816, p<.0001

the moment, as required by the law, it was done via the public address system. Therefore, although schools are enforcing the moment, they are not following the specifics of the statute requiring teachers to conduct the moment with their students.

The fact that administrators are the primary implementors of the moment may be related to the fact that the attorney for The Professional Association of Georgia Educators advised teachers "not to get into a discussion with students as to whether they may pray silently during this moment of quiet reflection" (Boyd, 1994). Given the sensitivity to the prayer in school issue, and the fact that a teacher was quickly engaged in a legal dispute, many teachers indicated a reticence to take a leadership role in conducting the exercise. They preferred to enforce the quiet aspect of the mandate within the classroom and have an administrator announce and explain the purpose of the exercise.

The majority of teachers and students supported having a daily moment of quiet reflection and wanted it to continue. In terms of how students use the moment, however, both teachers and students indicated that a majority of students did not appear to pray or reflect. Of the teachers, 72.5% stated that they did not believe their students prayed or reflected. Individually, only 38% of the students declared that they prayed during the moment of quiet reflection. These are strong complimentary findings. Consequently, it was not surprising that neither teachers nor students supported mandatory school prayer.

In spite of positive teacher and student attitudes toward having the moment of quiet reflection, it appeared not to be achieving the

goals identified by its proponents in the state legislature. Generally, students did not attribute the moment with helping them with their school work, peer relationships, teacher or parent relationships, or providing a moment of relief from their hectic schedules. Likewise, teachers, in the space for comments about the effect of the moment, made no comments about noticing any change in behaviors or performance as a result of the new mandate. These findings are not surprising given the nature of personal reflection and the Georgia law requiring it on a daily basis.

Although educators and policy makers recognize the vital importance of reflective thought in the educational process, one minute of daily reflection is hardly adequate to accomplish the lofty goals set forth in the legislative debate. A moment of reflection is but one instance of a process of reflective thinking. Further, because reflective thought is a highly personal and individualized phenomenon, often done in a spontaneous manner, it is doubtful that it can be compelled by a teacher or other authority figure.

Teachers and students generally agreed that the moment of quiet reflection did not accomplish its mandated purpose, but they still endorsed its presence in the school day. This paradox raises the question of why both teachers and students endorse it. Perhaps experiencing a quiet moment at the beginning of the day is calming even if it is not used to pray or reflect. Or, perhaps they endorse it because they want to obey the law. Inquiry into the rationale for their endorsement is an area for subsequent research.

As a related issue, nationwide the public seems to favor a return to a formal time allotment for prayer during the school day. A 1995 Phi Delta Kappa poll indicated that 71% of those polled favored a constitutional amendment that would permit prayer in schools (Elam & Rose, 1995). The Georgia teachers and students surveyed, however, indicated that the moment was not usually used for prayer and that they do not favor mandated prayer. Thus, perhaps public perceptions, like legislators' goals, are not consistent with the reality of what teachers and students believe is useful in schools. This inconsistency may indicate the need for policy makers to include teachers and students in discussions about mandates that will impact their lives.

Appendix A
Georgia's Moment of Quiet Reflection Law

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Georgia:

Section 1. The General Assembly finds that in today's hectic society, all too few of our citizens are able to experience even a moment of quiet reflection before plunging headlong into the day's activities. Our young citizens are particularly affected by this absence of an opportunity for a moment of quiet reflection. The General Assembly finds that our young, and society as a whole, would be well served if students were afforded a moment of quiet reflection at the beginning of each day in public schools.

Section 2.
(a) In each public school classroom, the teacher in charge shall, at the opening of school upon every school day, conduct a brief period of quiet reflection for not more than 60 seconds with the participation of all the pupils therein assembled.
(b) The moment of quiet reflection authorized by subsection (a) of this Code section is not intended to be and shall not be conducted as a religious service or exercise but shall be considered as an opportunity for a moment of silent reflection on the anticipated activities of the day.
(c) The provisions of subsection (a) and (b) of this Code section shall not prevent student-initiated voluntary school prayers at schools or school related events which are nonsectarian and nonproselytizing in nature.

Appendix B
The Student Perception Scale
Georgia's Moment of Quiet Reflection Questionnaire

Directions: The following items refer to your opinions concerning the daily moment of quiet reflection. Using the scale below, circle the number that best represents your opinion.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Statements:

1. In my school, the principal announces the moment of quiet reflection for all classrooms at the same time.
2. In my school, teachers conduct the moment of quiet reflection.
3. Most students in my classroom appear to practice the moment of quiet reflection.
4. I comply with the moment of quiet reflection.
5. I am quiet during the moment of quiet reflection.
6. I use the moment of quiet reflection to think about my day's activities.
7. I use the moment of quiet reflection to pray.
8. I want to continue the mandatory moment of quiet reflection.
9. It is important to me to have the moment of quiet reflection.
10. The moment of quiet reflection enables me to prepare for the day's events.
11. The moment of quiet reflection enables me to pause during my hectic daily activities.
12. The moment of quiet reflection enables me to reflect on how I lead my life.
13. The moment of quiet reflection has helped to improve my behavior in school.
14. The moment of quiet reflection has helped to give me a more positive attitude toward school.
15. The moment of quiet reflection has helped me to learn more in

school.

16. The moment of quiet reflection has helped to improve my relationships with teachers.
17. The moment of quiet reflection has helped to improve my relationships with peers.
18. The moment of quiet reflection has helped me to reflect on my behavior in school.
19. The moment of quiet reflection has helped me to reflect on my interactions with family members.
20. The moment of quiet reflection has helped me to reflect on my interactions with other students.
21. The moment of quiet reflection has helped me to reflect on my interactions with teachers.
22. The moment of quiet reflection has helped me to reflect on my school work.
23. The moment of quiet reflection has helped me to get along with others better at school.
24. The moment of quiet reflection has helped me to achieve more academically in school.
25. The moment of quiet reflection has helped me to become more considerate of others.
26. I want to have mandated prayer instead of the moment of quiet reflection.
27. I feel pressured from peers to pray during the moment of quiet reflection.
28. I feel pressured from teachers to pray during the moment of quiet reflection.
29. I feel that the moment of quiet reflection infringes on my religious freedom.

[Editor's note: The numbers to circle have been removed in order to save space.]

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