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Teacher Education Quarterly

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Volume 42
Number 2
Spring 2015

Contents

Introduction	3
<i>Kip Tellez</i>	
Nobility, Competence, and Disruption: Challenges to Teacher Education	5
<i>Gary D Fenstermacher</i>	
Examining the Extremes: High and Low Performance on a Teaching Performance Assessment for Licensure	17
<i>Judith Haymore Sandholtez & Lauren M. Shea</i>	
“We Do More Than Discuss Good Ideas”: A Close Look at the Development of Professional Capital in an Elementary Education Liaison Group	43
<i>Jennifer L. Snow, Susan D. Martin, & Sherry Dismuke</i>	
Using Torey Hayden’s Teacher Stories to Teach Relationship Skills in Special Education Teacher Preparation	65
<i>Elin Meyers Hoffman, Michael J. Marlowe, Kate Hoffman Scharf, Gayle H. Disney, Alison Macer, Daniel Poling, & Amber Queen</i>	
Learning to Teach Mindfully: Examining the Self in the Context of Multicultural Education	87
<i>Tom Griggs & Deborah Tidwell</i>	

Contents

**CAEP Advanced Standards
and the Future of Graduate Programs:**
The False Sense of *Techne* 105
Gretchen E. Schwarz

Teacher Education Quarterly Information for Authors..... 16

California Council on Teacher Education 64

Membership in California Council on Teacher Education..... 86

Officers of the California Council on Teacher Education 118

Call for Proposals
for California Council on Teacher Education Conferences 119

Teacher Education Quarterly Subscription Information and Form..... 120

Teacher Education Quarterly Editors and Editorial Boardsinside front cover

Teacher Education Quarterly Panel of Readersinside back cover



Editor's Introduction

Dear *TEQ* Readers,

As I mentioned in a previous issue, past editor Chris Faltis, the Editorial Board, and I made the decision a year or so ago to move away from themed issues and thus the need for an editorial explanation of why the articles in any given issue of the journal were included. However, I did not give up an Editor's right to lead a volume with my own musings, and a remarkable scene at our last California Council on Teacher Education (CCTE) conference in San José reminded me of exactly why I wanted to retain the opportunity to address *Teacher Education Quarterly* readers. The scene? Nearly 20 past CCTE presidents assembled on the dais to celebrate the organization's 70th anniversary and to hear Professor Gary Fenstermacher deliver a paper (the lead article in this issue, in fact).

As you may know, Gary is a longtime, dear friend to CCTE and his remarks which comprise this wonderful paper reminded us why we stay involved in the organization. As Gary's heartfelt comments revealed, CCTE is a place of unique belongingness. He mentioned his first CCTE meeting roughly five decades ago when he had a revelatory moment: "Everybody was nice and welcomed me." Like many others, I experienced the exact same sentiment at my first CCTE meeting nearly three decades ago. Unlike the gargantuan education conferences today with programs the size of a phone book (for those of you who remember phone books) or the stuffy administrator-led gatherings where it seems few attendees actually work in teacher education, CCTE conferences are relevant, personal, and yes, "nice." Much of this has to do with the amazing past presidents who we honored this spring.

I personally want to thank Deborah Hamm and Mona Thompson, who assembled a set of historical CCTE documents as part of the 70th anniversary. I stood in the registration room until my feet hurt and read a report on the state of

Introduction

teacher education from the early 1960s, and thought about how different conditions were back then. California was experiencing explosive population growth and the universities were gearing up to meet the demand for thousands of new teachers. There was no National Council for Teacher Quality, Arne Duncan, or Teach for America (although Teacher Corps was just around the corner), and I couldn't help thinking it was a time when niceness prevailed. I know better. Of course there were political battles at the time and it only seems through the fuzzy lens of history that things were simpler. But I can promise you that CCTE was nice back then and it has remained so.

This issue of *Teacher Education Quarterly* is, like all issues, filled with compelling and varied ideas, each of which informs teacher education in its own way. The articles' topics span from two teacher educators' consideration of how mindfulness influenced their courses on multicultural education, to a quantitative work on performance assessment, to Gary's speech on nobility, competence, and disruption. Will these works, and the others in this issue, remain relevant when CCTE celebrates its 140th year anniversary? I doubt many of us will be around to find out, but, for me, for now, I'm going to follow Gary's advice and work on disrupting while trying to stay noble.

Note: For those new to *Teacher Education Quarterly*, the California Council on Teacher Education (www.ccte.org) sponsors *TEQ* and its sister journal, *Issues in Teacher Education*.

Saludos/Best regards,

Kip Téllez

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and

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Nobility, Competence, and Disruption: Challenges to Teacher Education

By Gary D Fenstermacher

Nobility, competence and disruption—an odd union of three words. Hardly alliterative and seemingly unrelated to one another. Just how these three words might be connected, and their pertinence to teacher education, is what I propose to explore with you in the next 40 minutes.

So you know precisely where I'm headed, here's what I'm going to assert. First, competence consumes far too much of the rhetoric of education and nobility far too little. Second, even though nobility is nearly absent from the rhetoric of education, it is alive but not altogether well in American schools. Third, teacher educators exhibit a regard for both competence and nobility but their preparation programs typically stress competence and ignore nobility. Fourth, and finally, disruption in teacher education may be the best hope for the earnest and simultaneous pursuit of competence and nobility. There. That's the speech. I hope you'll stay here to see how well I do in defense of these assertions.

Many critics of schooling in America seem to believe there is only one feature of teaching that trumps all others. That feature is competence. I believe there is a second feature with similar trump value: Nobility. Sadly almost no one talks about this second feature—except teachers and teachers of teachers. When teachers and

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Nobility, Competence, and Disruption

teacher educators talk about nobility, they often use different words—caring, helping, empowering, doing good, making the world better. These notions are often the reason young adults become teachers. Once they become teachers, demands for competence—unaccompanied by nobility—become a reason for leaving teaching. I cannot pursue this line of argument any further without defining terms.

Competence is a term in common use in our profession. It is called upon to do a great deal of work in our field. So much so that one is reminded of Humpty Dumpty's response to Alice when she commented on his expansive use of words. "When I make a word do a lot of work like that," said Humpty Dumpty, "I always pay it extra." We educators are seriously out-of-pocket for all the work we make the word 'competence' do. In general, the word refers to the ability to do something well, to having the requisite knowledge and skill to reach a reasonable standard of excellence in one's performance. For our purposes, 'competence' refers to the practical skill of a teacher. In most instances that skill is manifest in fostering mastery of subject matter. As such, competence is situated within the domain of pedagogy, where it often connotes a proficient, perhaps even worthy performance. Defined in this way, competence is frequently accepted as the proper objective of teacher education. That is, the point of teacher education is to prepare candidates for competent performance as teachers of children and youth.

Nobility is different from competence. It is more a trait or disposition than a skill. If you were to look up the word, you would find among its several definitions the following: "having or showing qualities of high moral character, such as courage, generosity, or honor" (*American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*, 4th edition). I'm going to expand a bit on that definition and use the word 'nobility' as shorthand for morality and courage, as well as three other traits that are related though not typically associated with the term. They are discernment, sacrifice, and passion. Were Humpty Dumpty to see what I'm doing here, he would certainly insist that I, too, pay extra. In this case, I am happy to do so.

Morality, in the sense of being a moral person, refers to doing good, to doing the right thing under the circumstances. It encompasses such virtues as justice, fairness, honesty, respect, and compassion. Courage, though often included as part of morality, is here given a separate identity because it figures so prominently in teaching with moral integrity. For example, courage is often called for when a teacher must choose between the evidence of science and the biases of ideology, or take a stand for neutrality against favoritism, or when rising to the challenge of helping students who arrive at the schoolhouse door unready to learn. Discernment is the third element of nobility. It is a variant of thoughtfulness or mindfulness, and comes into play when the teacher draws distinctions and grasps nuances that play a critical role in learning. Sacrifice, the fourth element in this conception of nobility, is the willingness to relinquish a benefit for oneself in order that others may gain benefit. Sacrifice is often a powerful motivator sustaining teachers over time. Finally, the fifth element, passion—it pretty much speaks for itself. It is love for one's work, commitment to doing it well, joy when success is achieved, and perseverance when it is not.

The First Assertion

With these brief definitions in mind, let's turn to the first assertion: that competence captures far too much of the rhetoric of education and nobility far too little. I doubt you find this claim exceptional so I'll not spend much time with it. The rhetorical flourishes around the notion of competence primarily involve student achievement, wherein teachers are considered primary influences on student achievement—even primary producers of student achievement. Other features in this rhetorical constellation are standardized tests, global competitiveness, common curriculum, readiness for college or career, and accountability. Notions of equity and social justice are also often included in the discourse about teacher competence.

Nobility, on the other hand, is a word barely heard in educational policy circles or from such entities as the U.S. Department of Education, state legislatures, and, yes, even many professional education associations. One might argue that this absence is not due to having anything against nobility, but rather to the fact that nobility, particularly as I'm using it here, is such a morally loaded concept. As such, it should not be a goal of educational policy nor a formal expectation for teaching practice.

Were such an explanation offered by policy makers and educators, it would do more to show ignorance than understanding. Such a position blurs the line between religion or ideology, on the one hand, and moral qualities essential to personhood, on the other. This difference between ideology and morality has been explored in scores of philosophical works, so allow me to develop it by cutting right to the classroom context. Consider how challenging classroom teaching would be if teachers did not invoke such moral traits as kindness, fairness, honesty, and respect, or tried to manage a classroom without turn-taking, sharing, and other forms of reciprocity among persons.

In a three-year study Richardson and I did on how teachers foster or inhibit the moral development of their students, we found that many teachers do not see themselves as engaged in moral education even though they daily remind their students to be honest, to avoid cheating, to take turns, to help other students, to show respect, and to value work done well. When these features of their practice are pointed out to them, many of the teachers in our study were—at first—surprised to find themselves engaged in moral education. I recall one of the teachers saying, “I had no idea how much of my Catholic upbringing has become so much a part of the way I teach.”

Spending any time at all in classrooms with an eye open to its moral features deals a great blow to those who would argue that nobility is absent from educational discourse because of its inherently moral properties. Put this realization together with the fact that virtually every philosopher of education from Aristotle to Dewey would not even consider defining the word ‘education’ absent what I am here calling nobility and you are left to wonder why its features are among the unmentionables of contemporary schooling.

The Second Assertion

This insight leads us to the second assertion that even though nobility is nearly

Nobility, Competence, and Disruption

absent from the rhetoric of education, it is alive but not altogether well in American schools. I've already mentioned how nobility is alive in the classroom, but only hinted at its state of wellness. It is to this state of wellness that I want to turn. In saying nobility is not well, I mean that its manifestations in practice are frequently naïve or addressed by morphing into just another school subject, as when it becomes a curriculum for character education or civic education.

To say that the moral aspects of teaching are naïve is to say that they are employed with too little understanding of what one is doing. I've already spoken of the teachers in our study who responded with surprise (and in many cases, delight) on learning to recognize the moral dimensions of their practice. Although many of the teachers had what might be considered a subliminal or preconscious sense of how their work called for morality, courage, discernment, and sacrifice, they had not given these features much consideration as key elements of their pedagogy. I suppose that, given the absence of nobility in educational discourse, it should not surprise us that the moral dimensions of teaching are only vaguely understood and little attended to. Yet it also gives cause to wonder whether the teachers of these teachers might also be naïve about nobility. Before moving on to explore that possibility, consider another reason why nobility is not well in American classrooms.

Character education has so many variations that Humpty Dumpty would go broke paying for the extra work. It has been used to refer to moral education, civic education, life skills development, anti-bullying, and even religious education. I treat these programs with some skepticism because they too easily become a substitute for nobility as an essential feature of pedagogy. That is, the ideals and values featured in these programs become something teachers talk about to students rather than incorporate as part of their practice and their expectations for their students' conduct. As an example, consider the difference between the teacher who shows courage and calls for courage on the part of his students, and the teacher who engages his students in the study of courage. While there is certainly value in the study of courage, as it appears in biography, novels, or character education materials, it is an activity quite different from acting courageously and encouraging others to act courageously. This difference between having the idea of courage and possessing courage as a trait of one's behavior has been made many times by ethicists.

I wonder if you might be asking yourself at this moment why I'm going on so much about courage, given that it does not seem to be all that critical to the educative endeavor. I believe it has a central place in education, but we miss that place because the word is so often associated with how we respond to personal threat and danger. In contrast, when a teacher asks a student to try a new learning task or grapple with an unfamiliar problem, that teacher is asking the student to be courageous. By understanding that courage is in play when the teacher asks for new or unfamiliar engagement, the teacher responds differently to the student than is the case when the request to engage rests solely on authority. When a teacher addresses a student's fear for algebra, public speaking, or solo performance with the understanding that a call for courage has been made, it leads not only to a different pedagogical response but also to moral enhancement for the student,

Character as a subject of study can support the teacher in this endeavor, but it is not a substitute for the teacher's own attention to and encouragement of traits of

character. Character education programs—the good ones—can serve as a means for giving permission to teachers to address matters of nobility, and they can alert students to the place that nobility has in the life of the school, but character education programs are not a substitute for a teacher’s nourishing the development of character in the course of normal, everyday instruction.

In exploring the second assertion, that nobility is alive but unwell in the classroom, I’ve argued that acts of nobility occur all the time in classrooms—indeed it is difficult to imagine teaching taking place without elements of nobility—but that these acts are poorly understood and inadequately pursued by teachers. It leaves one wondering if the teachers of these teachers understand the place of nobility in the pedagogical development of their students. That query is the segue to the third assertion, that teacher educators, in general, exhibit a regard for nobility but their preparation programs typically aim for competence and ignore nobility.

The Third Assertion

I would like to approach this claim obliquely, with a bit of autobiography. In the early 1960s, several professors in the School of Education at Cornell University sought funding from the federal government under legislation known as the National Defense Education Act. The presumptive purpose of that Act was to increase the technological sophistication and power of the United States. One section of the Act included generous fellowships for doctoral study. To compete for this fellowship support, these Cornell faculty members submitted a proposal that was heavily biased toward study of the liberal arts, with limited consideration for education courses. Their proposal for advanced study in the history and philosophy of education was funded, and I was among the fortunate recipients of that fellowship.

The adviser assigned to me on entering the program was a philosopher of education who was devoted to the work of John Dewey. He told me it was important for me to be qualified in the discipline of philosophy and that I should enroll in graduate courses in that department and return to the school of education after completing at least a year and a half of study there. Obedient novice that I was, I followed his instructions. I’m afraid I went overboard. When I sat for my doctoral examinations, I had completed just two courses and two seminars in Education; all the rest was in philosophy, with a few in psychology. My adviser seemed delighted with my studies, but I would soon learn that employers had a different perspective.

Upon accepting my first faculty position at the University of California, Los Angeles, it did not take long to discover that I was well-prepared in a discipline of little interest to most of my colleagues and ill-prepared in the field that was providing my paycheck. I floundered for two years and finally mustered the courage to see the dean to confess that I was a disaster at what I had been hired to do. He listened to my lamentation, asked a few questions, then offered the following comment:

I don’t see a great problem here, Gary. After all John Dewey was trained in philosophy. Perhaps you might turn out to be the next Dewey. If that’s going to happen you need to know what teaching and schooling are all about, and you need to have a deeper understanding of teacher education. To take care of the first, I can arrange for you to join a teaching team at the University Elementary

Nobility, Competence, and Disruption

School. But if I do that, you must agree to stick with the work for at least a year. To handle the second, gaining an understanding of teacher education, I'll appoint you as assistant to the director for the Laboratory in Teacher Education, but not until you've finished at least a full year at the elementary school. The other thing I'll do, starting right now, is appoint you as one of our representatives to CCET [California Council for the Education of Teachers, the predecessor to CCTE].

The dean was John Goodlad. I'm paraphrasing his words because I was too stunned at the time to recall them with any precision. Me, the next John Dewey? Nice try; I hardly knew who John Dewey was, as the name and the work were entirely ignored in Cornell's department of philosophy. Me, a teacher in an elementary school classroom? Ha! What an embarrassment it would be, to be a professor of education showing up in an elementary school unable to differentiate wait time from seat time, or phonics from whole language. And what the hell was CCET? I was but five months away from finding out, when I arrived at the Miramar in Santa Barbara for the 1971 spring conference.

I left that meeting with three impressions—all easy to recall because that meeting was a turning point in my career. The first is that these people are about the most gracious, most considerate professionals I had ever encountered, as a client or a colleague. So very different from the impersonal, Vulcan mind-meld colleagues I encountered at meetings of the American Philosophical Association or the Philosophy of Education Society. CCET members clearly cared, not simply about the topics under discussion but about including me in them. My second impression is that these people had fun; they laughed a lot and took pleasure in one another's company. This impression of teacher educators was later validated at Virginia Tech, the University of Arizona, the University of Michigan, and scores of other teacher education programs I visited as part of research projects or as a member of accreditation teams. I admit, though, that my warmest memories of professionals good and true, as well as the most fun I've ever had in any professional association, was with CCET.

So, warmth, graciousness, laughter, and commitment were part of the first two impressions. The third impression was that the discourse did not push very far into the theory or research in teacher education. Much of it appeared focused on state regulations, accreditation, and what was happening at other teacher preparation programs. In subsequent years, after I became more conversant with the field, I would find this discourse valuable. But neither then nor now is it a discourse that interrogates dominant paradigms, pushes at the epistemic and moral foundations of teacher education, or reframes notions of pedagogy and its articulations in American schooling. I know that such explorations are a lot to ask of any association or conference, but these are the explorations that should be logically prior to such topics as regulation, accreditation, and program development.

Wait! That's way too glib. Of course deep and critical inquiry should be logically prior to the institutional and administrative features of what we do. Everybody knows that. But our capacity to do it is limited by the fact that we are, to use the much-worn airplane analogy, always in flight, and almost never parked at the hanger where major overhaul occurs. That makes it very difficult for us to perform as pilots, aerodynamic engineers, and theoretical physicists at the same time. I'm

sympathetic to this predicament, but there is a steep price to be paid for this deflection of fundamental questions. Consider the rather bold claim Lee Shulman made several years ago in a brief essay entitled “Teacher Education Does Not Exist.” Because Shulman is always worthy of quoting at some length, I’m going to do just that. He states:

We must rapidly converge on a small set of “signature pedagogies” that characterize all teacher education. These approaches must combine very deep preparation in the content areas teachers are responsible to teach (and tough assessments to ensure that deep knowledge of content has been achieved), systematic preparation in the practice of teaching using powerful technological tools and a growing body of multimedia cases of teaching and learning, seriously supervised clinical practice that does not depend on the vagaries of student teaching assignments, and far more emphasis on rigorous assessments of teaching that will lead to almost universal attainment of board certification by career teachers. The teacher education profession must come to this consensus; only then can accreditation enforce it. Commitment to social justice is insufficient; love is not enough. If we do not converge on a common approach to educating teachers, the professional preparation of teachers will soon become like the professional education of actors. There are superb MFA programs in universities, but few believe they are necessary for a successful acting career.

What I understand Shulman to be asserting here is that if teacher educators do not coalesce around a small set of signature pedagogies, their programs will be thoroughly marginalized. His reference to signature pedagogies derives, I believe, from preparation programs for lawyers, physicians, and the clergy, where there is a good deal more agreement on the necessary procedures, experiences, materials and assessments for effective preparation. Moreover, it is clear, given the title Shulman gave to his commentary (“teacher education does not exist”) that he believes there are currently no signature pedagogies in teacher education.

Though Shulman often razzes me that I’ve gained far too much success from critiquing his work, this is an occasion to praise his advocacy for signature pedagogies. The formulation of such pedagogies is critically important work for teacher education. I do want to add, however, that what makes a pedagogy “signature” is more than its being adopted as a much-used and honored means of preparing professionals. It is also the aims of that pedagogy and the ideals that undergird it. A pedagogy for the preparation of lawyers that failed to achieve justice and fairness would not be a candidate for signature status. A pedagogy for the preparation of physicians that failed to address standards of care and well-being would not be a candidate for signature status. A pedagogy for the preparation of teachers that fails to address and sustain nobility has no claim to signature status.

In search of a signature pedagogy for teacher education, consider what the simultaneous pursuit of competence and nobility might look like. In the course of the work Richardson and I did on the moral aspects of teachers’ work, we drew a distinction between the methods teachers used to convey subject matter and the manner they expressed as they went about this work. For example, instructional activities like explaining, describing, appraising, assigning, and grouping can be undertaken with kindness, fairness, and integrity—or, in contrast, with meanness,

Nobility, Competence, and Disruption

authoritarianism, or unfair advantage for a subset of students. In actual practice, method and manner are interconnected and seamless. Richardson and I separated one from the other as an analytical device, as a way, if you will, to gain access to the moral aspects of teaching. It also permitted us to better understand how competence, in this case in the form of methods, and nobility, in the form of manner, can be complementary to one another and simultaneously pursued.

The teachers we studied were typically unaware of the moral dimensions of their practice and hence unable to reflect on and perfect these aspects of their practice. Our separation of manner from method gave the teachers a way to see and ponder the moral dimensions of their work. Unaware of these dimensions, they cannot reflect on the integration of method and manner and how that integration might enhance their effectiveness and their satisfaction with their work. Yet another cost of blindness to the moral work of teaching is the loss of opportunities for a teacher to explore his or her own moral conduct—both in the persona of teacher and as a member of the human community.

Our research is but one approach teacher educators might employ to engender nobility along with competence. There are quite a number of other approaches, to be found, for example, in the work of Elizabeth Campbell, William Damon, David Hansen, Nel Noddings, Hugh Sockett, and the volume edited by John Goodlad, Roger Soder, and Ken Sirotnik (*The Moral Dimensions of Teaching*). A recent work by Matthew Sanger and Richard Osguthorpe, entitled *The Moral Work of Teaching and Teacher Education*, does a splendid job of pointing teacher educators to the construction of pedagogies that integrate competence and nobility.

We have reached the point of being able to raise the question that takes us to the fourth and final portion of this address: How might teacher educators coalesce around a limited number of signature pedagogies whose aim is competence and nobility?

The Fourth Assertion

There are three key words in the title of this address: Nobility, competence, and disruption. So far we have dealt with just the first two. It's time to consider disruption. The meaning most often associated with this term is "to throw into confusion or disorder" (*The American Heritage Dictionary*, fourth edition). This is certainly the sense of disruption in use when describing the impact of the Internet on brick-and-mortar retail business. It is what Amazon did to Barnes and Noble, Borders, and Circuit City; what the iPod and MP3 players did to record and CD stores; what Internet streaming is doing to broadcast and cable television. Disruption of this kind was, at first, seen as destructive and hurtful. Today it is among the desiderata of American business, something that professors of business praise and corporate CEOs chase.

Teacher education, as practiced in institutions of higher education, has experienced a modest degree of disruption from the likes of alternative certification, Teach For America, Internet course providers, and occasional efforts at fundamental reform, such as the Holmes Group. The response to these modest disruptions, as I see it, has been to go on the defense, often redoubling our efforts to do better what

we've been doing all along. You will not be surprised to learn that this course did not work for Borders or CD stores.

Teacher education is not entirely blameworthy for its response to disruption. The colleges and universities where so many teacher prep programs are situated share a significant portion of responsibility. Too often teacher education is an incidental feature of their mission and they do little to close the gap between academic research and professional practice. The K-12 system also shares a measure of blame for its relative lack of consideration for initial and continuing teacher education and its frequent unwillingness to allocate resources to collaboration with higher education. The educational policy environment is blameworthy, too, as has become so concentrated at state and federal levels where the abiding interest is in outcomes more grossly economic than grandly educative.

This is not an easy arena for teacher education. Caught between the competing demands of higher and K-12 education, situated in a policy environment that runs counter to many of the core values of educators, while bereft of signature pedagogies that validate the field, significant disruption to teacher preparation as we know it is not a matter of if, but when. The question, as always, is whether we are the disrupters or the disrupted. The historical record indicates that the disrupted are highly unlikely to be the disrupters. But history is yesterday and possibility is tomorrow. Consider how we might embrace the possibilities.

One way already well known to you is the now quite large body of research on effective teaching. This research needs to be translated for practice, as William James pointed out so powerfully in his *Talks to Teachers*. This translation is a key task for the construction and adoption of signature pedagogies that foster competence. Another resource is the previously mentioned studies of the moral work of teaching, which provide much of the groundwork for fostering nobility. This commitment to nobility is further enhanced with the work on democracy and education, as developed by John Dewey and such contemporary scholars as Amy Gutmann, Diane Ravitch, Eamonn Callan, Benjamin Barber, and John Goodlad and his colleagues at the Institute for Educational Inquiry. A third line of development is the work by philosophers and educational theorists on the practical—on how the pursuit of the practical, properly conceived, is as intellectually demanding and enriching of life as the pursuit of the theoretical. Thanks to the work of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching—where Ernest Boyer and Lee Shulman and his colleagues have done so much to advance the scholarship of teaching and learning—teacher educators have a trove of resources for building signature pedagogies. Finally, there is an extensive body of work on the formation of networks and partnerships to encourage renewal of both teacher education programs and school-university relationships.

In short there is a large and powerful body of knowledge and understanding with which to design and adopt a limited number of signature pedagogies, and with these pedagogies, to lay claim to a different, richer, far more robust concept of best practice than the one in common use today.

Even with these signature pedagogies in hand, teacher educators may not be able to control the disruptive forces that surround their work. For, in addition to how we do teacher education, there are matters of where and when it is done. In the

Nobility, Competence, and Disruption

case of where, the geography of teacher education may act as a limit on forming and deploying signature pedagogies. That is, where teacher education occurs—in universities, in teachers colleges, in school districts, in the spaces between—interacts powerfully with how it occurs.

The question of when initial teacher preparation should occur opens a reconsideration of how internships, observations, course work and student teaching are sequenced across the program. Most of us are accustomed to thinking of teacher education occurring before a teacher teaches. What might happen if that sequence is turned on its head, where teacher education occurred after the candidate has taught? It sounds counter-intuitive at first, yet consider the higher levels of satisfaction reported by many teacher educators when their students have had experience as teachers. Perhaps a well-mentored student teaching course should precede rather than follow other coursework in teacher education?

The development and successful implementation of signature pedagogies depends not only on our answers to how, but also to our decisions about when and where. Indeed, if teacher educators are to be disrupters rather than the disrupted, they must articulate and advocate for all three. Whatever the shape and substance of this articulation, it will be incomplete if it lacks nobility. Without nobility, teacher education is far less a calling and far more a chore. Without nobility, teacher education may serve competence but it does not serve what Aristotle called the greatest good, *eudaimonia*—often translated as happiness but far better translated as human flourishing.

Conclusion

Nobility, competence and disruption—an odd union of three words. Hardly alliterative and seemingly unrelated to one another. Just how these three words might be connected is what I hope I have succeeded in showing. I confess to a bit of sleight of hand here, as I could have said that true competence includes morality, courage, discernment, sacrifice, and passion. But separating nobility from competence, like the separation of manner from method, is a way of insisting that we do not lose sight of nobility while engaged in the pursuit of competence. With such a rich distinction in hand, Humpty-Dumpty would not need to pay anything extra. Indeed, I believe it would result in a tidy credit to his account.

Enough. It is time to close. Before I do so, I want to wish a heartfelt happy 70th anniversary to CTE. It is an organization that has meant much to me over the years and brought so many good things to my career as an academic and teacher educator. So, allow me to end with this wish for you: May you experience the delight and the privilege of being asked to address this remarkable group some ten years after your retirement. It is a high honor for me—an honor clearly made possible by your graciousness, your passion, and your courage ... in short, your nobility.

Thank you.

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Gary D Fenstermacher

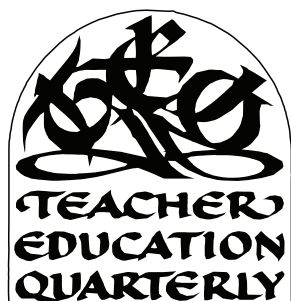
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Examining the Extremes: High and Low Performance on a Teaching Performance Assessment for Licensure

By Judith Haymore Sandholtz & Lauren M. Shea

In all types of performances, ranging from athletic competitions to theatrical events, even casual observers typically recognize the particularly stellar or poor performers. For trained observers, such as athletic scouts or theater critics, identifying the exceptional performers at both ends of the continuum tends to be the easiest part of the job. Similarly, in assessing the teaching practice of preservice teacher candidates, we expect that observers, particularly trained observers, will readily identify those who are exceptionally effective or ineffective. We anticipate that university supervisors and mentor teachers will agree on who demonstrates extraordinary performance for a preservice candidate and who needs additional preparation before taking on solo classroom teaching responsibilities. We assume that candidates who exhibit outstanding skills in student teaching will excel on a teaching performance assessment and that those who fail the assessment will be those who struggle in student teaching.

Given that both teaching performance assessments and university supervisors' observations include direct evaluation of teaching practice, we anticipate agreement in identifying high and low performers. Identifying weak candidates is particularly critical to ensuring that beginning teachers do not earn licenses until they are com-

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Examining the Extremes

petent and ready to teach full time. Both university supervisors' observations and teaching performance assessments aim to evaluate the competency of preservice teacher candidates, and both approaches prompt concerns among teacher educators about their use for licensing decisions. Given the importance of summative judgments about teacher candidates, concerns about the reliability and validity of both approaches are paramount. Researchers find that summative judgments based on student teaching observations fail to differentiate among levels of effectiveness (Arends, 2006a). Similarly, concerns about the reliability and predictive validity of teaching performance assessments need to be resolved (Pecheone & Chung, 2006) before moving to widespread adoption. In addition, both approaches require substantial financial and human resources. In times of funding shortages, questions arise about the need to conduct both performance assessments and supervisor evaluations, particularly if both approaches reach the same conclusion about a candidate's readiness for licensure.

In an earlier study, we explored the extent to which university supervisors' perspectives about candidates' performance corresponded with outcomes from a summative performance assessment (Sandholtz & Shea, 2012). We specifically examined the relationship between supervisors' predictions and teacher candidates' performance on a summative assessment based on a capstone teaching event, part of the Performance Assessment for California Teachers (PACT). We opted to compare predictions and performance for three reasons. First, all of the supervisors were trained scorers of PACT. Because the training, calibrating, predicting, and scoring took place within a 2-week period, the supervisors were in a mind-set that aligned with the PACT ratings of effective teaching. Using the PACT scoring as a basis for determining readiness to teach was fitting for that time period and appropriate for making predictions of performance. Second, supervisors did not use a standard instrument during classroom observations, and they did not all complete observations during the same week. Consequently, using predictions and scores allowed us to make comparisons for a large number of candidates with a single instrument from the same point in time. Third, the process of making predictions did not significantly impose on the supervisors' workloads yet provided supervisors' judgments about candidates' readiness for licensure at that point in the year.

In contrast to expectations, we found that university supervisors' predictions of their candidates' performance did not closely match the PACT scores and that inaccurate predictions were split between over- and underpredictions (for complete findings, see Sandholtz & Shea, 2012). Our findings in that study, combined with suggestions from other researchers, prompted us to examine high and low performance through an in-depth follow-up analysis. In this follow-up study, we focus on four specific subsets of teacher candidates: not only the groups of high and low performers but also the groups of predicted-high and predicted-low performers, which were not examined in the earlier research. Analysis of the predicted-low performers (and within that group, the predicted-to-fail candidates) is important

because that group includes candidates whom supervisors do not think are ready to be licensed yet pass the assessment. This follow-up study also expands the data sources and includes not only PACT score data but also information from student transcripts and student teaching. In addition, this study includes additional analyses that, for example, examine specific areas in the PACT to determine where differences occurred.

We address the following questions: (a) Do academic background factors correspond with high or low performance on the PACT? (b) In what specific areas on the PACT do high- and low-performing candidates excel and fail? (c) To what extent do university supervisors accurately predict high and low performance on the PACT? To what extent do candidates whom university supervisors predict will fail the PACT end up passing?

Assessing Teacher Competency for Teacher Certification

The central aim of teacher preparation programs is to prepare candidates to become effective, certified classroom teachers. The central aim of teacher certification systems is to affirm that teachers who receive licenses are qualified to enter the teaching profession. Teacher licensing systems are typically designed to ensure a basic level of teacher qualification (National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 1996). However, because teacher licensing is a state responsibility, requirements for obtaining a teaching credential vary across states. In some states, applicants to teacher preparation programs must have a minimum grade point average and pass standardized tests focusing on basic skills before being admitted to a program. Upon program completion, candidates then must pass state-mandated tests that measure content knowledge and professional knowledge to receive an initial license to teach. In other states, testing occurs only at the end of the teacher preparation programs. The pass scores that candidates must achieve on licensing tests serve a screening function aimed at preventing incompetent teachers from entering the profession (Goldhaber & Hansen, 2010). The tests also provide a means to hold teacher preparation programs accountable for preparing competent beginning teachers and to allow states to compare candidates graduating from different programs (D'Agostino & Powers, 2009).

The main form of testing for teacher certification is paper-and-pencil exams consisting primarily of multiple-choice questions (D'Agostino & Powers, 2009). Using these types of tests for credentialing purposes has raised a range of concerns, including (a) the lack of direct classroom observation (Goldhaber & Hansen, 2010), (b) the constructs being measured (Berliner, 2005), (c) the elimination of qualified candidates who may perform poorly on paper-and-pencil exams (Goodman, Arbona, & Dominguez de Rameriz, 2008), (d) the limited relationship between the content of the licensure tests and teacher education programs (Sawchuk, 2012), and (e) the assessment of lower level subject matter knowledge that is not directly relevant to

Examining the Extremes

teaching (Mitchell & Barth, 1999). The overarching concern about paper-and-pencil licensing exams is that teachers' test scores do not predict teaching performance (Berliner, 2005; Darling-Hammond, Wise, & Klein, 1999). Researchers question the value of licensing exams in assessing teaching effectiveness, particularly the extent to which the tests are authentic and valid in identifying effective teaching (Darling-Hammond et al., 1999; Mitchell, Robinson, Plake, & Knowles, 2001; Wilson & Youngs, 2005). In a meta-analysis of 123 studies, D'Agostino and Powers (2009) reported that test scores were "at best modestly related to teaching competence" (p. 146) and concluded that performance in preparation programs was a significantly better predictor of teaching skills. Researchers have also reported that the limited information about teacher effectiveness gained from licensing exams varies across different populations of teachers (Goldhaber & Hansen, 2010; Goodman et al., 2008; Wakefield, 2003). Given the high pass rates, some researchers question the value of the tests in identifying candidates who are not ready to be licensed classroom teachers. Because candidates' average scores on state-required licensing tests tend to be higher than pass scores set by the states, researchers contend the tests should be only a minimum screen and used with other entry mechanisms (Sawchuk, 2012).

In an increasing number of states, concerns about licensing exams have prompted a move toward adopting teaching performance assessments. A key advantage of performance-based assessments is their use of evidence from teaching practice (Mitchell et al., 2001; Pecheone & Chung, 2006; Porter, Youngs, & Odden, 2001). Performance-based assessments may include, for example, lesson plans, curricular materials, teaching artifacts, student work samples, video clips of teaching, narrative reflections, or self-analysis. By using evidence that comes directly from actual teaching, performance assessments address the concern that licensing exams need to be connected to classroom teaching. Beyond assessing a candidate's knowledge and skills, the documents provide evidence about how the candidate is using these skills in specific teaching and learning contexts (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 2000). The documents also provide insight into how teachers reflect on their practice and adapt their instructional strategies to be more effective. Compared to paper-and-pencil tests, performance-based assessments more closely reflect a conception of teaching that recognizes the complex, changing situations that teachers encounter (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 1999; Richardson & Placier, 2001).

In keeping with the name, teaching performance assessments are designed to engage candidates in tasks that stem directly from what they do in their classrooms and thereby to judge candidates' teaching performance. Rather than focusing on knowledge per se, the assessments aim to evaluate how a candidate applies this knowledge in the act of teaching. Performance assessments also are connected to professional teaching standards that reflect consensus about the components of effective teaching (Arends, 2006b). The teacher assessment systems developed by professional organizations such as the Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support

Consortium (InTASC) and the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) include performance-based assessments that stem from established standards for the teaching profession. Despite the focus on teaching practice, concerns about the reliability and predictive validity of teaching performance assessments need to be resolved (Pecheone & Chung, 2006). Other concerns about performance assessments include competing demands, extensive requirements, effects on the curricula of teacher education programs, potential harm to relationships essential for learning, and the human and financial resources required (Arends, 2006b; Delandshere & Arens, 2001; Margolis & Doring, 2013; Snyder, 2009; Zeichner, 2003)

University supervisors also assess candidates' effectiveness as classroom teachers, but typically through formative evaluations. Although supervisors' observations provide a view into candidates' teaching performance, relying on them for summative judgments about candidates' competence raises concerns. Three of these concerns relate to issues of validity and reliability: training, specificity of observation forms, and frequency of observations (Arends, 2006a). The training that university supervisors receive may be inadequate to achieve interrater agreement. The observation forms may not be tailored for specific disciplines or grade levels, and classroom observations may not be conducted regularly. Supervisor observations also do not allow comparisons of candidates graduating from different programs.

In contrast to paper-and-pencil exams, teaching performance assessments and university supervisors' observations include direct evaluation of teaching practice. Consequently, we would expect both forms of assessment to reach similar conclusions about candidates' overall competence and readiness to teach. In particular, we would anticipate similar identification of preservice candidates who are not yet qualified to be credentialed teachers. This study explores those assumptions by examining the extremes of high and low performance.

Performance Assessment for California Teachers

The PACT is one of several teaching performance assessment models approved by the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing. Developed by a consortium of universities, the PACT assessment is modeled after the portfolio assessments of the Connecticut State Department of Education, the InTASC, and the NBPTS. The assessment includes artifacts from teaching and written commentaries in which candidates describe their teaching context, analyze their classroom work, and explain the rationale for their actions. The PACT assessments focus on candidates' use of subject-specific pedagogy to promote student learning.

The PACT program includes two key components: (a) a formative evaluation based on embedded signature assessments developed by local teacher education programs and (b) a summative assessment based on a capstone teaching event. The teaching event involves subject-specific assessments of a candidate's competency in five areas or categories: planning, instruction, assessment, reflection, and aca-

Examining the Extremes

demographic language. Candidates plan and teach an instructional unit, or part of a unit, that is videotaped. Using the video, student work samples, and related artifacts for documentation, candidates analyze their teaching and their students' learning. Following analytic prompts, candidates describe and justify their decisions by explaining their reasoning and providing evidence to support their conclusions. The prompts help candidates consider how student learning is developed through instruction and how analysis of student learning informs teaching decisions both during the act of teaching and upon reflection. The capstone teaching event is designed not only to measure but also to promote candidates' abilities to integrate their knowledge of content, students, and instructional context in making instructional decisions; the teaching event also aims to stimulate teacher reflection on practice (Pecheone & Chung, 2006). The teaching events and the scoring rubrics align with California's teaching standards for preservice teachers. The content-specific rubrics are organized according to two or three guiding questions under the five categories identified earlier. Table 1 identifies the focus of the guiding questions within each category at the time of data collection. For each guiding question, the scoring rubric includes descriptions of performance for each of four levels or scores. According to the implementation handbook (PACT Consortium, 2009), Level 1, the lowest level, is defined as not meeting performance standards. These candidates have some skill but need additional student teaching before they will be ready to be in charge of a classroom. Level 2 is considered an acceptable level of performance on the standards. These candidates are judged to have adequate knowledge and skills, with the expectation that they will improve with more support and experience. Level 3 is defined as an advanced level of performance on the standards relative to most beginners. Candidates at this level are judged to have a solid foundation of knowledge and skills. Level 4 is considered an outstanding

Table 1
Focus of Guiding Questions in PACT Rubrics

Category	Focus of guiding questions
Planning	Q1: Establishing a balanced instructional focus Q2: Making content accessible Q3: Designing assessments
Instruction	Q4: Engaging students in learning Q5: Monitoring student learning during instruction
Assessment	Q6: Analyzing student work from an assessment Q7: Using assessment to inform teaching
Reflection	Q8: Monitoring student progress Q9: Reflecting on learning
Academic language	Q10: Understanding language demands Q11: Supporting academic language

Note. These were the foci of the questions at the time of data collection.

and rare level of performance for a beginning teacher and is reserved for stellar candidates. This level offers candidates a sense of what they should be aiming for as they continue to develop as teachers.

To pass the PACT teaching event, candidates must pass all five categories on the rubric (planning, instruction, assessment, reflection, and academic language) and have no more than two failing scores of 1 across categories. To pass a category, candidates must have passing scores of 2 or higher on at least half of the questions within each category. For example, because the instruction category includes two questions, at least one of the two scores must be a 2 or higher. The planning category includes three questions; therefore at least two of the three scores must be a 2 or higher. Teaching events that do not meet the established passing standard are double-scored. Candidates who fail the teaching event have one opportunity to resubmit. Candidates who fail more than one category or who have more than two scores of 1 across categories must complete a new teaching event. Candidates who fail only one category may resubmit the specific components for that category rather than the entire teaching event.

To prepare to assess the teaching events, scorers complete a 2-day training in which they learn how to apply the scoring rubrics. These sessions are conducted by lead trainers. Teacher education programs send an individual to be trained by PACT as a lead trainer, or institutions might collaborate to develop a number of lead trainers. The training emphasizes what is used as sources of evidence, how to match evidence to the rubric level descriptors, and the distinctions between the four levels. Scorers are instructed to assign a score based on a preponderance of evidence at a particular level. In addition to the rubric descriptions, the consortium developed a document that assists trainers and scorers in understanding the distinctions between levels. The document provides an expanded description for scoring levels for each guiding question and describes differences between adjacent score levels and the related evidence. Scorers must meet a calibration standard each year before they are allowed to score.

Methods

Sample

This study focuses on a subset of candidates from an earlier study of 337 candidates enrolled in a California public university's teacher education program over a 2-year period (Sandholtz & Shea, 2012). Our subset includes candidates whose performance or predicted performance on the PACT placed them at the high or low end of the continuum of the larger group of candidates. Before candidates' performance assessments were scored, university supervisors predicted each of their advisees' performance on the PACT. They predicted rankings of 1 to 4 on each of the 11 questions, which resulted in predicted total scores ranging from a possible 11 to 44. All of the supervisors were trained scorers, but they did not teach courses

Examining the Extremes

for student teachers and were not directly involved in preparing candidates for the performance assessment. The supervisors' role was to provide support and guidance for student teachers in their designated classrooms; they completed formative classroom evaluations but did not assign the student teaching grades. Consequently, their predictions stemmed from their classroom observations of candidates and their overall knowledge about scoring for the PACT but were not based on candidates' work in courses or drafts of their teaching events. After completing training for PACT scoring and passing calibration standards, university supervisors predicted scores for their advisees and then received their assigned assessments to score. Except in rare cases which were not included in the research, supervisors did not score the teaching events of their own advisees. The training, calibrating, and scoring took place within 2 weeks.

In this study, we specifically focus on four groups: high performers on the PACT, low performers on the PACT, predicted-high performers, and predicted-low performers. To identify the candidates in each group, we used cutoff scores of 37 for high performance and 20 for low performance (out of a possible 44). The cutoff scores of 37 and 20 fell at the end of the second standard deviation of the total scores for the 337 candidates and meant that candidates received a ranking on at least one question that was at the lowest or highest end of the rubric scale. The low performers received one or more rankings of 1, and the high performers received one or more rankings of 4. In the group of 337 candidates, we identified 22 high performers with a total score of 37 or higher, 21 low performers with a total score of 20 or less, 12 candidates whose supervisors predicted they would score 37 or higher, and 15 candidates whose supervisors predicted they would score 20 or less (see Table 2). Within the predicted-low group of 15 candidates, we identified 11 cases in which the supervisors predicted not only low performance but failure. Using the PACT guidelines for passing the teaching event, we identified those candidates who were predicted to fail by examining the number of failing scores of 1 on individual questions and categories. Some candidates' scores placed them

Table 2
Distribution of Candidates

	High performers ^a	Predicted-high performers ^b	Low performers ^c	Predicted-low performers ^d	Predicted to fail ^e
Multiple subject	8	7	14	10	7
Single subject	14	5	7	5	4
Math	4	1	3	1	1
Science	3	0	1	1	0
Social science	0	2	2	2	2
English/French	3	0	0	0	0
Art/music	3	2	1	1	1

^an=22. ^bn=12. ^cn=21. ^dn=15. ^en=11

in both the high and predicted-high groups or in both the low and predicted-low groups. Two high-performing candidates were also predicted-high performers, and four low-performing candidates were also predicted-low performers.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data were drawn from candidates' records and included (a) demographic and student teaching placement information, (b) student transcripts, (c) predicted scores for the PACT teaching event, and (d) actual scores on the PACT teaching event. The records provided to researchers included assigned case numbers to protect individual identities.

To examine if academic background factors corresponded with high or low performance on the teaching assessment, we gathered data from the high- and low-performing candidates' transcripts about factors related to both their undergraduate education and their graduate credential program. As students in a postbaccalaureate teacher credential program, candidates entered the program holding a bachelor's degree in a specific discipline. Consequently, we included candidates' undergraduate university, undergraduate major, and undergraduate grade point average (GPA) as academic background factors. We also included two academic factors from the graduate credential program: grades in student teaching and grades in methods courses. Grades in student teaching offer a potential indicator of effectiveness in classroom teaching that is not based solely on supervisor evaluations. In this particular program, a candidate's grade for the student teaching component is based on a range of evidence, including submitted lesson plans, professional conduct, supervisor observations, mentor teacher evaluations, and other assignments. The program coordinators (elementary or secondary), rather than the supervisors, assign the grades for student teaching. We examined grades in methods courses because the curricula and assignments for those courses are the most closely connected to classroom teaching activities. Candidates preparing to teach in elementary schools complete multiple methods courses, including mathematics, science, language arts, social studies, reading, visual and performing arts, and physical education. Candidates preparing to teach in secondary schools complete a subject-specific methods course as well as a course about reading and writing in secondary schools.

We examined academic background data to look for patterns in connection with high and low performance on the performance assessment. We performed t-tests for independent samples to determine statistical differences between the mean grades of high and low performers in student teaching, methods courses, and undergraduate programs. We then computed correlations to determine the association between the grades (student teaching, methods courses, undergraduate GPA) and performance on the PACT.

To determine the specific areas of PACT in which candidates excelled and failed, we identified the number of Level 4 rankings for the high and predicted-high performers and the number of Level 1 rankings for the low and predicted-

Examining the Extremes

low performers on each of the 11 questions. We subsequently looked for patterns both within and across the subgroups. To investigate the extent to which university supervisors accurately predicted high and low performance, we compared predicted scores and actual scores on the PACT teaching event for four groups of candidates: high performers, low performers, predicted-high performers, and predicted-low performers. As described, the predictions and scores included a ranking from 1 to 4 on each of 11 guiding questions that are grouped within the five categories. The rankings are defined as follows: Level 1, not meeting performance standards; Level 2, acceptable level of performance; Level 3, advanced level of performance relative to most beginners; Level 4, outstanding and rare level of performance for a beginning teacher (PACT Consortium, 2009). The total possible score ranged from 11 to 44. To determine the association between supervisors' predictions and PACT scores for candidates, we conducted paired samples correlations for the total scores and the 11 questions. Correlation coefficients were adjusted for multiple tests using Bonferroni's correction, effectively making the alpha level .004. To determine percentages of supervisors who did not accurately predict candidates' performance, we used a frequency of distribution of difference and determined the difference between actual and predicted scores for each candidate's total score and each question.

Results

In the following sections, we present the results for each research question. We first present data about academic background factors and the correlation with candidates' PACT scores. We then report findings about performance on specific areas of the PACT for each subgroup, high performers, low performers, predicted-high performers, and predicted-low performers, and discuss the extent to which supervisors accurately predicted candidates' scores. We examine supervisors' predictions about which candidates would fail the assessment in the predicted-low performers section.

Academic Background Factors

In terms of candidates' academic backgrounds, we examined data about undergraduate majors, universities from which candidates received undergraduate degrees, and undergraduate GPAs. We also examined two factors from the graduate teacher credential program: grades in student teaching and grades in instructional methods courses. We found no clear trends related to undergraduate major or undergraduate university among the group of high- and low-performing candidates. As displayed in Figure 1, high and low performers completed undergraduate majors across fields. The highest number of both low performers ($n=10$) and high performers ($n=6$) majored in a social science field. An equal number of high performers ($n=5$) and low performers ($n=5$) majored in a science, technology, engineering, or mathematics field. As displayed in Figure 2, the majority of the candidates (77%) attended

Figure 1
Undergraduate degree majors for high and low performers.
Undergraduate degree data missing for 1 low performer.

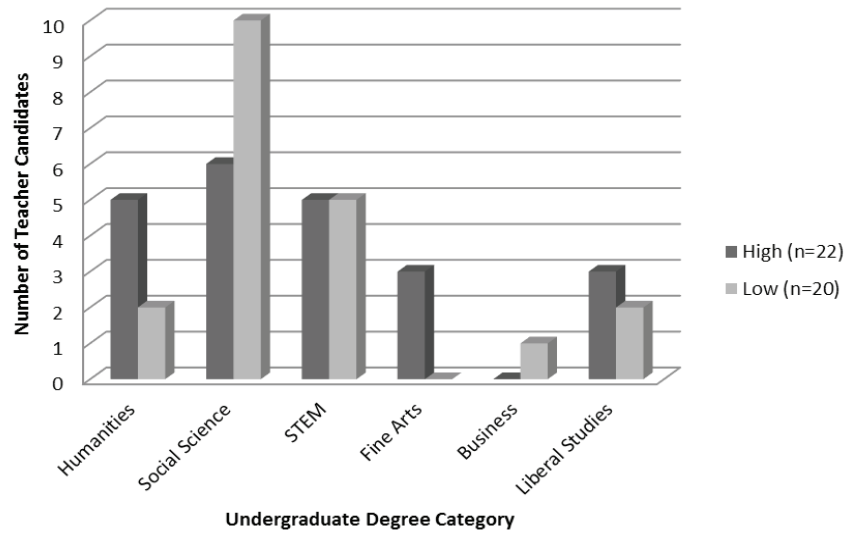
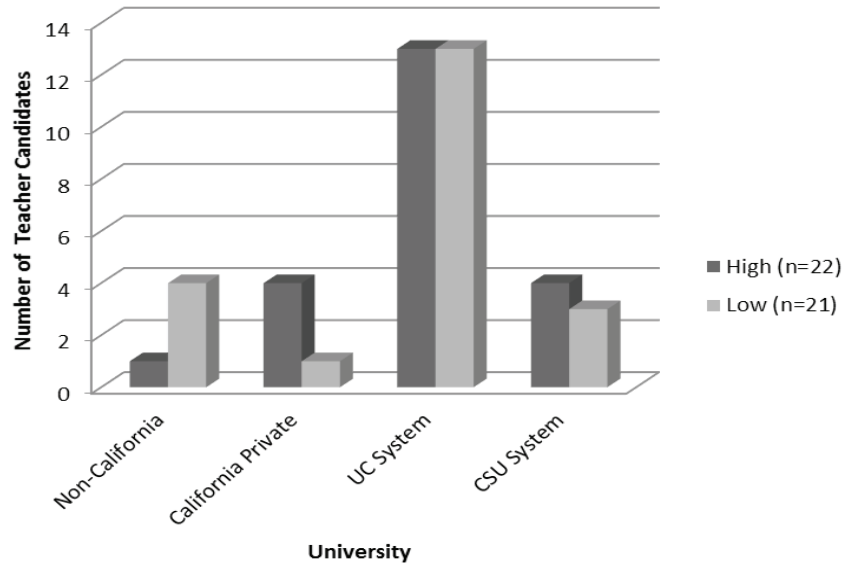


Figure 2
Undergraduate universities for high and low performers.



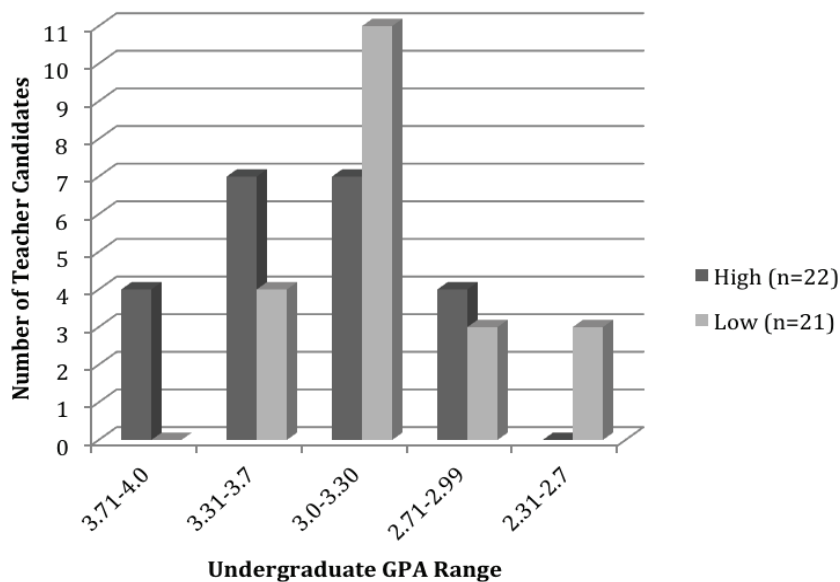
Examining the Extremes

California public universities as undergraduates—an almost equivalent number of high performers ($n=17$) and low performers ($n=16$). Of the five candidates in the group who attended California private universities, four were high performers, and of the five candidates who attended non-California universities, four were low performers. Given the small numbers, we cannot suggest a trend in terms of private or non-California universities.

The undergraduate GPA for high performers (see Figure 3) ranged from 2.84 to 3.98 ($M=3.36$, $SD=.36$) and for low performers ranged from 2.45 to 3.66 ($M=3.09$, $SD=.29$). The mean for the high performers was significantly higher than the mean for the low performers. Twenty high performers and 13 low performers had student teaching grades of A (4.0); one low performer received a grade of D in student teaching (see Figure 4). Student teaching grades were nonsignificantly higher for high performers ($M=3.96$, $SD=.094$, range 3.70-4.0) than they were for low performers ($M=3.68$, $SD=.77$, range 0.70-4.0). High performers had significantly higher grades in their methods courses ($M=3.97$, $SD=.054$) than low performers ($M=3.85$, $SD=.18$).

Two academic background factors showed a moderate correlation with high and low performers' actual scores. As reported in Table 3, candidates' undergraduate GPAs and their grades in methods courses were significantly associated with performance on the PACT (.38 and .49, respectively). However, student teaching

Figure 3
Undergraduate GPAs of high and low performers.



grades showed no significant correlation with high-performing or low-performing candidates' actual scores on the PACT ($r=.30$).

Performance on the PACT

In the following sections, we report the specific areas in which candidates in each subgroup excelled and failed on the PACT. We also report the extent to which university supervisors accurately predicted candidates' high and low performance on the PACT and predicted those who would fail the assessment. Figure 5 displays the comparison of predictions and actual scores for the total sample of candidates in this study.

Figure 4
Student teaching grades for high and low performers.
 Student teaching grade data missing for 1 candidate.

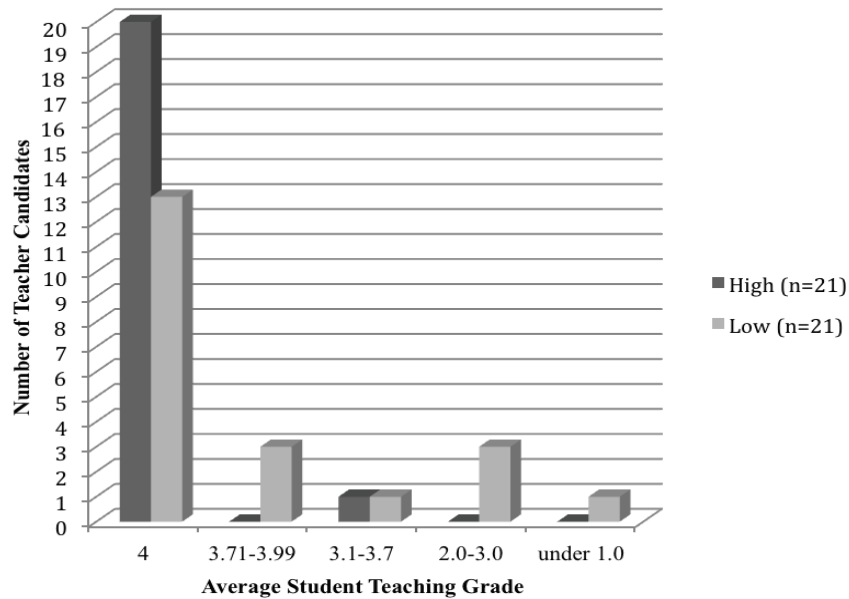


Table 3
Correlations of Actual PACT Scores to Teacher Candidate Academic Background Factors

Teacher candidate academic background factor	Correlation to actual PACT score
Undergraduate GPA	.377*
Student teaching grade	.302
Methods courses grades	.486**

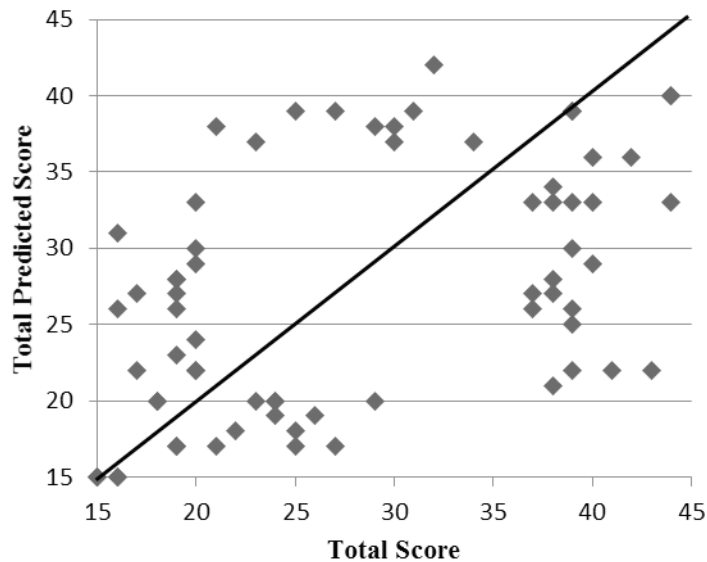
* $p<.05$. ** $p<.01$.

Examining the Extremes

High performers. The specific areas in which the high performers scored at the highest level included two questions in the planning category and one in the assessment category. Eighteen of the 22 high performers (81.7%) received scores of 4 on Questions 1, 2, and 6. Question 1 focuses on how the plans for both learning tasks and assessment tasks support student learning. Question 2 examines if the plans make the curriculum accessible to the students in the class. Question 6 focuses on analyzing student work from an assessment and determines the extent to which candidates demonstrate an understanding of student performance with respect to standards or objectives. The questions on which the fewest high performers (~36%) received scores of 4 were Questions 10 and 11 in the academic language category. These questions examine if the candidate understands language demands and how the candidate's planning, instruction, and assessment support academic language development.

In the majority of cases, the supervisors did not predict the candidates' high performance on these questions. For example, on Question 6 (analyzing student work from an assessment), the supervisors underpredicted scores for 21 of the 22 high performers. Thirteen of these cases involved a 1-point underprediction, but in eight cases, the supervisors predicted the candidate would receive the lowest passing score, whereas the candidate received an exceptional score. On Questions 1 and 2 in the planning category, supervisors underpredicted performance for 64%

Figure 5
Comparison of predictions and actual scores for total sample.
Reference line represents matching scores or $x=y$.



and 77% of the high performers. Supervisors also underpredicted performance in the area of academic language, questions on which most of the high performers received scores of 3 or less.

In terms of total scores on the PACT, university supervisors were no more likely to accurately predict scores for high-performing candidates than for other candidates (Sandholtz & Shea, 2012). Total scores ranged from 37 to 44 for the high performers. The supervisors accurately predicted that all 22 high-performing candidates would pass the performance assessment. However, comparisons of total scores indicated that only one supervisor predicted an accurate total score for a high-performing candidate. For the other 21 high performers, university supervisors predicted total scores ranging from 20 to 40, underpredicting total scores by 4 to 21 points. In the two most extreme cases, supervisors underpredicted candidates' performance by nearly half of the possible total score, 19 points in one case and 21 points in the other. Twenty-two candidates received total scores of 37 or above; yet supervisors similarly predicted high performance in only two of those cases. As displayed in Table 4, we found no statistically significant correlations between predictions and total scores for high performers ($r=.24$). For individual questions, correlations ranged from $-.364$ to $.404$ in the high-performing group; none were statistically significant.

Low performers. The two areas in which the majority of the low performers (~70%) received failing scores of 1 were Questions 7 and 10. Question 7 focuses on assessment and how the candidate uses analysis of student learning to propose next steps in instruction. Question 10 examines how the candidate describes the language demands of the learning tasks and assessments in relation to student language development. In the majority of cases, supervisors did not predict the candidates' low performance on these questions. The supervisors predicted a passing score for 80% of those candidates who failed Question 7. In two of those cases, the supervisor predicted a score of 3, an advanced level of performance. On Question 10, supervisors predicted that 79% of those candidates who received failing scores of 1 would receive a passing score of 2.

Like the high performers, the low performers tended to score higher on Questions 1 and 2 in the planning category than on other questions. Only 3 of the 21 low-performing candidates received a failing score of 1 on Question 1 (establishing a balanced instructional focus), and only 5 of them received a failing score of 1 on Question 2 (making content accessible). But the supervisors predicted passing scores in each of these cases. For one low-performing candidate who failed both Questions 1 and 2, the supervisor had predicted an advanced score of 3. In another case, the supervisor predicted an exceptional score of 4 for all three questions in the planning category, but the candidate received failing scores of 1.

In terms of total scores on the PACT, we found no statistically significant correlations between predictions and total scores for low performers ($r=.06$). For

Examining the Extremes

Table 4
Percentage of Accuracy and Correlations for Predictions and Scores for High Performers and Predicted-High Performers

Question	High performers ^a difference			Predicted-high performers ^b difference		
	0	±1	>1	0	±1	>1
Q1 Planning: Establishing a balanced instructional focus	36% (.279)	41%	22%	42% (.135)	50%	8%
Q2 Planning: Making content accessible	23% (-.364)	50%	27%	17% (.000)	66%	17%
Q3 Planning: Designing assessments	32% (.368)	50%	18%	42% (-.140)	25%	33%
Q4 Instruction: Engaging students in learning	41% (.212)	35%	23%	17% (.076)	58%	25%
Q5 Instruction: Monitoring student learning during instruction	27% (-.089)	40%	32%	33% (-.076)	41%	25%
Q6 Assessment: Analyzing student work from an assessment	5% (.404)	59%	36%	33% (-.451)	34%	33%
Q7 Assessment: Using assessment to inform teaching	27% (-.162)	32%	41%	42% (.000)	33%	25%
Q8 Reflection: Monitoring student progress	32% (.058)	45%	23%	42% (.408)	50%	8%
Q9 Reflection: Reflecting on learning	50% (.176)	28%	22%	25% (.405)	42%	33%
Q10 Academic Language: Understanding language demands	32% (.240)	50%	18%	25% (.234)	66%	8%
Q11 Academic Language: Supporting academic language development	36% (.209)	50%	14%	42% (.319)	58%	0%
Total score	5% (.242)	0%	95%	8% (.371)	0%	92%

Note. Correlations for accurate predictions are in parentheses. Correlation tests were conducted using Bonferroni adjusted alpha levels of .004 per test (.05/12).

^an=22. ^bn=12.

individual questions, correlations ranged from $-.311$ to $.718$ in the low-performing group (see Table 5). The only statistically significant correlation ($r=.72$) was for Question 10 (understanding language demands). On this question, 5 of the 21 predictions for the low performers were accurate and the other 16 predictions were off by 1 point.

Predicted-high performers. In 12 cases, supervisors predicted that the candidates would do extremely well on the performance assessment (total scores of 37 or higher). For 75% or more of these predicted-high performers, supervisors anticipated exceptional scores of 4 on Questions 1, 2, 3, and 9. The first three questions are all in the planning category, suggesting that supervisors anticipated that these candidates would most likely excel in their planning for instruction. The questions focus on how the candidate's plans establish a balanced instructional focus, make the curriculum accessible to a variety of students, and include appropriately designed assessments. Question 9 asks how candidates use research, theory, and reflections on teaching and learning to guide their teaching practice. But only 15%-42% of the predicted-high performers received exceptional scores in these areas. On Questions 3 and 9, supervisors overpredicted scores by 2 points in one-third of the cases.

The area in which the supervisors did not anticipate exceptional performance for these candidates was Question 11, which focuses on how candidates' planning, instruction, and assessment support students' academic language development. Only 1 of the 12 predicted-high performers had a predicted score of 4 in this area; this candidate's actual score was 3. All of the predictions for Question 11 for predicted-high performers were within 1 point of the actual score, most frequently a predicted score of 3 and an actual score of 2.

The majority of candidates whom supervisors anticipated would score particularly high on the assessment did not receive total scores in the high performance range. As displayed in Table 4, there were no statistically significant correlations between predictions and total scores for predicted-high performers ($r=.371$). Only 2 of the 12 predicted-high performers actually received total scores in the high-performing range. In the remaining 10 cases, supervisors overpredicted total scores by 3 to 17 points for total score predictions ranging from 37 to 42.

All of the predicted-high performers passed the overall assessment, but two candidates received a score of 1 (not meeting the performance standard) on one question. In one case, the supervisor predicted a score of 3 (an advanced level of performance), and in the other case, the supervisor predicted a score of 4 (an outstanding and rare level of performance). For 10 of the 12 predicted-high performers, supervisors overpredicted the candidates' scores by 2 points on one or more questions. In one case, the supervisor overpredicted the candidate's score by 3 points on one question and 2 points on four other questions. On 42% of the questions for which supervisors predicted a score of 4 for these 10 candidates, the

Examining the Extremes

Table 5
Percentage of Accuracy and Correlations for Predictions and Scores for Low Performers and Predicted-Low Performers

Question	Low performers ^a difference			Predicted-low performers ^b difference		
	0	±1	>1	0	±1	>1
Q1 Planning: Establishing a balanced instructional focus	43%	43%	14%	40%	60%	0%
	(-.238)			(.202)		
Q2 Planning: Making content accessible	33%	57%	10%	60%	33%	7%
	(-.104)			(.031)		
Q3 Planning: Designing assessments	43%	38%	9%	40%	53%	7%
	(-.274)			(.286)		
Q4 Instruction: Engaging students in learning	43%	52%	5%	27%	67%	7%
	(.229)			(.142)		
Q5 Instruction: Monitoring student learning during instruction	48%	48%	5%	53%	47%	0%
	(.085)			(.026)		
Q6 Assessment: Analyzing student work from an assessment	28%	43%	28%	60%	33%	7%
	(-.311)			(.120)		
Q7 Assessment: Using assessment to inform teaching	28%	62%	10%	60%	33%	7%
	(.171)			(.342)		
Q8 Reflection: Monitoring student progress	33%	52%	10%	60%	33%	7%
	(.067)			(-.375)		
Q9 Reflection: Reflecting on learning	52%	38%	10%	60%	40%	0%
	(.494)			(.518)		
Q10 Academic Language: Understanding language demands	24%	76%	0%	67%	33%	0%
	(.718**)			(.592)		
Q11 Academic Language: Supporting academic language development	52%	43%	5%	53%	47%	0%
	(.077)			(.366)		
Total score	5%	5%	90%	13%	0	87%
	(.059)			(.560)		

Note. Correlations for accurate predictions are in parentheses. Correlation tests were conducted using Bonferroni adjusted alpha levels of .004 per test (.05/12).

^an=21. ^bn=15.

**p<.004.

candidates received a score of 2. These 2-point and 3-point ranges mean that, in particular areas where supervisors predicted candidates would excel, they either failed to meet the performance standard or received the lowest passing score. For individual questions, the correlations ranged from $-.451$ to $.408$, and none were statistically significant in the group of predicted-high performers (see Table 4).

Predicted-low performers. Supervisors predicted that 15 candidates would receive total scores of 20 or lower (out of a possible 44 points), a score that is considered low performance in this study. A total score of 20 meant that the candidate received a 1, the lowest score on the rubric, on at least one question. For more than half of these predicted-low performers, supervisors anticipated failing scores of 1 on Questions 3, 4, 7, 9, and 10. These questions focus on designing assessments, engaging students in learning, using assessment to inform teaching, reflecting on learning, and understanding language demands. In contrast, none of the supervisors predicted these candidates would fail Question 1, in the planning category.

Predicted total scores for these 15 candidates ranged from 15 to 20, and actual total scores ranged from 15 to 27. The candidates whom supervisors anticipated would perform poorly on the assessment did not achieve high scores, but surprisingly, the majority did not fall in the low performance range. Of the 15 predicted-low performers, 4 (26.6%) actually received total scores of 20 or less. The remaining 11 candidates received total scores ranging from 21 to 27 points. Supervisors underpredicted these candidates' total scores by a range of 3 to 10 points.

Of the four subgroups in this study, the supervisors' predictions of total scores were closest to the actual scores for the predicted-low performers. However, as displayed in Table 5, there were no statistically significant correlations between predictions and total scores for predicted-low performers ($r=.560$). In addition, for individual questions, none of the correlations were statistically significant and ranged from $-.375$ to $.592$ in the group of predicted-low performers.

In 11 of the 15 cases of predicted-low performance, supervisors anticipated not only low performance but failure. That is, supervisors predicted that candidates would receive scores of 1 (not meeting performance standards) on three or more questions, which would constitute failing the performance assessment. However, only 3 of the 11 predicted-to-fail candidates (27.2%) actually received failing scores. The other eight candidates received no more than two scores of 1 on individual questions and passed the assessment with total scores ranging from 21 to 27 points. For most of those who were predicted to fail, the difference between the supervisors' predictions and their actual scores on any individual question was 1, with the supervisor predicting a failing score of 1 and the candidate receiving a passing score of 2. However, for four candidates, the supervisor predicted a failing score of 1 on an individual question, but the candidate received a score of 3. These 2-point underpredictions mean that the supervisor predicted the candidate would not meet the standard in that particular area but the candidate received a score indicating

Examining the Extremes

an advanced level of performance. In one case, the supervisor predicted a passing score of 2 on an individual question, but the candidate received the highest score of 4, considered an outstanding and rare level of performance.

For these 11 candidates, supervisors predicted failing scores in areas that span all five categories. For example, for 7 of 11 candidates (64%), supervisors predicted a failing score of 1 on Question 3 in the planning category, Question 4 in the instruction category, Question 7 in the assessment category, Question 9 in the reflection category, and Questions 10 and 11 in the academic language category. However, only 9%-36% of the predicted-to-fail candidates received failing scores on these questions. In contrast, supervisors did not predict failure for any of the predicted-to-fail candidates on Question 1, which focuses on the extent to which candidates' plans establish a balanced instructional focus. Only one of these candidates actually received a failing score of 1 on Question 1.

Discussion

Our first research question asked whether academic background factors correspond with high or low performance on the PACT. Our findings reveal a correlation between the high- and low-performing candidates' grades in university course work and their scores on the performance assessment; this correlation may reflect the academic elements of the PACT. Although the assessment focuses on classroom teaching, the format requires significant amounts of written analysis. Students who receive high grades in university courses likely possess strong literacy skills and analytical abilities. These same skills likely help teacher candidates in analyzing their teaching, communicating their reasoning in a written form, and providing evidence for their claims. The association we found for high and low performers between grades in methods courses in the credential program and scores on the PACT may indicate a similarity between course assignments and elements of the performance assessment. Instructors of methods courses often evaluate assignments in which candidates develop lesson plans, select instructional strategies, and provide the rationale for their instructional decisions. Similar to the performance assessment, these assignments may take the form of written documents, include some videotaped teaching segments, and involve critical analysis of the videotaped segments. Consequently, grades in methods courses may reflect students' abilities to accomplish the types of tasks included in both the methods courses and the PACT. The lack of correlation between student teaching grades and PACT scores in this study may manifest because the majority of high and low performers received grades of A in student teaching. In this program, student teaching grades are assigned by the program coordinator, not the supervisors, and are based on lesson plans, observation reports, mentor teacher evaluations, professional conduct, and other assignments. Consequently, student teaching grades may not necessarily correspond with a supervisor's perspectives about a candidate's effectiveness in the classroom.

Whereas supervisors' predictions of PACT scores varied across candidates, student teaching grades tended to be high.

Our second research question focused on identifying the specific areas in which high- and low-performing candidates excelled and failed on the PACT. Across sub-groups, there appears to be a pattern of stronger performance, as well as higher predicted performance, on Questions 1 and 2 in the planning category. The high performers had the most rankings of 4 and the low performers had the fewest rankings of 1 on these two questions. In addition, for the predicted-low and the predicted-to-fail candidates, none of the supervisors predicted failure on Question 1. For the predicted-high performers, supervisors predicted the most rankings of 4 on questions in the planning category. These findings may reflect the importance of planning in effective teaching and the fact that candidates typically gain experience in instructional planning beginning early in a credential program. It would be highly unusual for a candidate to excel in the instruction category on the PACT but not the planning category. In contrast, candidates may develop appropriate plans but fail at enacting those plans in an active classroom. The category in which high-performing candidates had the fewest rankings of 4 and low-performing candidates had the most failing scores of 1 was academic language. Whereas candidates typically enter credential programs recognizing the need to plan for instruction, they may be unfamiliar with the role of academic language in student learning. Moreover, candidates must understand the language demands embedded in instructional activities before they can effectively support students in developing and using academic language.

Our third research question focused on the extent to which university supervisors accurately predict candidates' high and low performance on the PACT and accurately predict who will fail the assessment. Examining supervisors' predictions of their candidates' scores on the assessment provides a means of making direct comparisons with actual performance as well as a means of capturing supervisors' perspectives about candidates' readiness for licensure. Supervisors know performance on the PACT determines whether candidates will qualify for a teaching credential. When they predict that candidates will do particularly well on the summative assessment, supervisors are suggesting that candidates are highly qualified to assume full-time teaching responsibilities as credentialed teachers. When they predict that candidates will fail the summative assessment, they are indicating that candidates are not yet ready, in their view, to assume solo classroom teaching responsibilities. Because supervisors' predictions are not communicated to candidates and hold no weight in outcomes of the assessment, we think their predictions serve as a forthright measure of their perspectives about candidates' qualifications for licensure.

As reported in our earlier study (Sandholtz & Shea, 2012), we anticipated that supervisors who observe and assess candidates' classroom teaching would be well positioned to predict how individual candidates would perform on a teaching performance assessment and, in particular, would accurately predict which candidates would perform particularly well or poorly. However, in this study, whether we looked

Examining the Extremes

at candidates predicted to be high or low performers or candidates who actually were high or low performers, we found differences between supervisor predictions and actual scores on the performance assessment. In the group of 43 high- and low-performing candidates, supervisors predicted high or low performance in only 6 cases. Similarly, in the group of 27 predicted-high and predicted-low performers, only 6 candidates actually received scores in the high or low performance ranges. Moreover, the majority of candidates whose supervisors predicted failure did not fail, and the majority of candidates who did fail had been predicted to pass. We also found a surprising lack of agreement between predicted and actual scores on specific questions on which candidates excelled or were predicted to excel. Because supervisors review candidates' lesson plans in connection with classroom observations, one might anticipate that supervisors would make closer predictions on questions related to planning; however, that was not the case.

This apparent lack of agreement about candidates at both ends of the continuum is puzzling. As trained scorers who pass the PACT calibration standard each year, the supervisors are clearly knowledgeable about the assessment. Differences would not stem from predictions being made by people who do not understand the PACT. In addition, we found no evidence to support the theory that some scorers or supervisors may tend to be "easier graders" than others. When we examined cases in which the supervisor–scorer pairs were the same, we found differing ranges between predictions and scores. For example, in the cases of two low performers with the same supervisor and scorer, the prediction and score matched in one case but differed by 10 points in the other case. Similarly, in the cases of two high performers with the same supervisor and scorer, the prediction and score matched in one case but differed by 17 points in the other case. If a supervisor were consistently predicting higher scores, the range between predictions and scores for the same supervisor–scorer pairs would be similar across cases. When we examined the cases of high- and low-performing candidates with the largest differences between predictions and scores, we found that they had different supervisors, which also suggests that the score differences are not due to tendencies of a particular scorer or supervisor.

Differences in their assigned tasks may explain why scorers and supervisors do not always identify the same candidates as high and low performers. Although scorers and supervisors engage in the same general task of assessing candidates' teaching, they draw on different data sources, observe candidates in different contexts, and make judgments over different time frames (Sandholtz & Shea, 2012). They also may differ in their perspectives about high and low performers because of the extent of writing involved in the PACT. Because supervisors in this program do not teach seminars for student teachers or directly prepare candidates for the performance assessment, they typically do not encounter written assignments from their candidates, particularly not written analyses of their teaching. As part of classroom observations, supervisors have discussions with candidates about their plans and classroom instruction. Some candidates may be effective classroom

teachers and adept at reflecting on their instructional practice in discussions with supervisors but not as skilled in writing about their planning and teaching.

Our findings suggest that identifying teacher candidates who are particularly effective or ineffective as classroom teachers is not as straightforward as we anticipated. University supervisors, methods course instructors, and scorers of performance assessments all may have differing perspectives about the competency of individual candidates. Candidates who exhibit outstanding skills in student teaching may not be those who excel on a performance assessment, and candidates who fail the assessment may not be those who struggle in student teaching.

The limitations of this study highlight potential areas for future research. Given the small sample size of high and low performers, statistical significance was difficult to reach. In addition, the study was limited to data from one teacher education program, which may have specific features that contributed to the findings. Research that includes multiple universities would yield a larger sample size and allow comparisons across teacher education programs. Research that follows candidates into the first years of teaching could examine the extent to which high and low scores on a performance assessment, or supervisors' predictions of performance, are associated with effective classroom teaching.

Conclusion and Implications

The findings of this study highlight four issues related to the assessment of preservice teacher candidates. First, our findings suggest that student teaching grades may not serve as discriminating forms of evaluation, even for candidates who perform particularly well or poorly on a teaching performance assessment. In line with other research reporting that the majority of candidates receive a grade of A in student teaching (Arends, 2006a), we found that the majority of both high and low performers in our study received a grade of A in student teaching. In many programs, grades in student teaching are assigned by the university supervisor and may be based largely on supervisors' evaluations of candidates; but in the program we studied, a coordinator assigned grades, and the supervisors' observations composed only a portion of the overall grade. In either type of arrangement, student teaching grades offer little information about candidates' qualifications if there is insufficient differentiation. In addition, a single letter grade provides no information about specific areas of strength and weakness.

Second, the results of this study prompt questions about the connection between candidates' academic strengths and classroom teaching performance. The association we found between candidates' grades in methods courses and their scores on the PACT, combined with the lack of association between candidates' predicted and actual scores, suggests that the academic requirements of the assessment may be as important as the teaching segments. A key advantage of performance assessments is the use of evidence that comes directly from actual teaching. However, because

Examining the Extremes

the format of the PACT involves written documents in which candidates provide analysis and explanations of their actions, candidates benefit from strong literacy skills in completing the tasks. Grades in methods courses reflect candidates' written work but not their enactment of plans in the classroom. It is unclear whether candidates may be effective teachers but not do as well on the performance assessment because they have less skill in writing about their planning and teaching. In future studies, researchers may want to examine the extent to which performance assessments emphasize candidates' academic abilities.

Third, the lack of agreement in identifying exceptional candidates at both ends of the continuum warrants further investigation. A key aim of teaching performance assessments is to identify candidates who are not adequately qualified and prepared to be licensed teachers. Although a majority of candidates may pass summative teaching performance assessments and earn teaching credentials, we need to be confident that an assessment is accurately identifying weak candidates who are not ready for solo classroom teaching. When candidates whom university supervisors predict will fail a summative performance assessment end up passing, we wonder what concerns about candidates' qualifications are not being identified in the assessment. Conversely, when candidates whom supervisors predict will pass the assessment end up failing, we wonder what weaknesses the assessment is capturing that the supervisors are not identifying. The differences in predictions and actual scores related to high performance are equally puzzling but do not hold the same implications for licensing decisions. Achieving an outstanding score on a performance assessment may be a point of personal pride for a candidate, but a high score does not influence the type of credential awarded or future job prospects.

Finally, the findings of our earlier study and this follow-up study raise questions about relying on a single measure to evaluate teacher candidates for licensing decisions. Different types of assessments may provide contrasting information about candidates' strengths and weaknesses. Candidates who fail a performance assessment may demonstrate competence in courses and supervisor observations of student teaching, and candidates who pass the assessment may demonstrate less effectiveness in courses and supervisors' observations. Both teaching performance assessments and university supervisor observations focus on direct assessment of teaching practice yet may reach different conclusions about a candidate's skills and progress. If there is variation across sources about which candidates are not yet qualified to receive a teaching credential, we may want to be cautious about making licensing decisions based on the outcome of a single measure. Given the complexity of teaching, assessment systems that include multiple sources of evidence may offer a more comprehensive appraisal of candidates' overall readiness to teach. Researchers studying teacher effectiveness conclude that no single factor can predict success in teaching (Peterson, 1987, 2000; Rockoff, Jacob, Kane, & Staiger, 2011). Different measures address different aspects of teacher quality, and multiple evaluators, who hold different roles, contribute varying perspectives about teacher

quality (Peterson, 2000). Berliner (2005) contended that a single performance is inadequate for evaluating teacher quality. Using multiple measures to make summative judgments about teacher candidates seems prudent given the importance of licensing decisions and the possibility that different measures may identify different candidates as lacking the necessary qualifications to be credentialed teachers.

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**“We Do More Than Discuss Good Ideas”:
A Close Look at the Development
of Professional Capital
in an Elementary Education Liaison Group**

By Jennifer L. Snow, Susan D. Martin, & Sherry Dismuke

In an era when many news media, policy makers, and professionals in the field may consider teacher education “under attack,” teacher education programs are being held accountable for increased rigor (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2012). Teacher educators are in a unique position to examine more closely specific practices and teacher education as a profession to enhance program quality and candidate outcomes. Toward that end, we focused on work within a *community of practice* (Wenger, 1998) for this inquiry. Faculty who work in elementary school settings at least one day per week, serving as liaisons to partner schools and supervising teacher candidates, made up this community.

Faculty at this institution worked collaboratively to share leadership and go against the grain of institutional hierarchical structures (Martin, Snow, Osguthorpe, Coll, & Boothe, 2012). They embraced clinical practice as the heart of the teacher education program (National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 2010). Within this context, they created a space for clinical supervisors to share publicly their work with each other and enact change, as they engaged in profes-

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“We Do More Than Discuss Good Ideas”

sional development through the Elementary Education Liaison Group (EELG). This community had evolved from a committee structure into a working community of inquiry over the course of 4 years and involved participants from different positions and perspectives (i.e., tenure-track faculty, administrators, part-time supervisors, and full-time clinical faculty and lecturers in the university). After reviewing the history of the EELG and anecdotal evidence of changes wrought by the EELG, we decided to investigate our practices further, asking what additional professional development and program changes we needed to make. Therefore we designed a systematic investigation of EELG practice and its internal and external influence. Our research questions included the following: (a) How do participants experience the EELG context and its influence on how they learn and develop? (b) How does the elementary education community of practice influence individual and programmatic change?

Throughout this article, we describe our theoretical framework for professional development as well as the resulting emphasis on professional capital of a particular group of educators (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). We outline the research design before describing three key themes connected to teacher educator professional development and its influential outcomes. We end with a focus on professional capital and the power of collective activity to transform teacher educator development and teacher education contexts for program transformation.

Theoretical Perspectives

As Levine (2011) noted, “we have few models to suggest how programs might promote supervisors’ professional growth” (p. 930). Along those lines, Goodwin and Kosnick (2013) highlighted the need for considering what knowledge base effective teacher educators should have. Therefore we undertook this systematic investigation of a collective case centered on the EELG community of practice and its influences on clinical supervisor practice and professional development. In this study, we investigated liaison perspectives on interactions in this community of practice (Wenger, 1998; see also Lave & Wenger, 1991) as well as its influence on developing their practice as teacher educators and effecting program change. Because structures in higher education institutions are often hierarchical, this community was unique in its efforts and power to effect change on individual and institutional levels.

Theoretical perspectives that provide the foundation of our inquiry are rooted in social network theory, professional development in community, and learning through inquiry to frame professional development and teacher educator capacity. Reviewing collaborative structures in education communities, we used social network theory as a foundation to frame our community–network connections and potential associations with outcomes (Moolenaar, Slegers, & Daly, 2012).

Social Network Theory

Daly, Moolenaar, Bolivar, and Burke (2010) examined teachers' social networks and their resulting influence on education reform through social network theory. Connecting social network theory to social capital, Daly et al. described the density of networks and resulting potential for change. According to Daly and colleagues, "social capital is concerned with the resources that exist in social relationships (sometimes referred to as 'ties') between individuals as opposed to the resources of a specific individual" (p. 364). Considering the collective impact of EELG activity, we used social network theory to examine social capital and "the content that flows through relationships" to consider educator development and outcomes of such development through community.

Although much research using social network theory or relationships as a focus concentrates on schools and district-level educational reform (Daly et al., 2012; Elmore & Burney, 1997; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2003; Moolenaar et al., 2012), we expanded it for this collective case study focused on a site of higher education and teacher educator professional development. Considering change as "the interaction of participants" (Mohrman, Tenkasi, & Mohrman, 2003, p. 321), we used a focus on a community of inquiry geared toward professional development provided for individual participant perspectives and interactions to highlight a view of social capital.

Hargreaves and Fullan (2012) identified human, social, and decisional capital as *professional capital*. Our theoretical perspectives included that "making decisions in complex situations is what professionalism is all about" (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012, p. 5). Goodwin and Kosnick (2013) described how teacher educators should be able to

transcend the practicalities (and limitations) of discrete teaching skills and tools gained from previous teaching experience; and develop ways of thinking about and approaching teaching and learning that promote the application of a professional repertoire to a vast array of dilemmas, most of which cannot possibly be anticipated beforehand. (p. 337)

This work is complex and informed by personal, contextual, pedagogical, sociological, and social knowledge (Goodwin & Kosnick, 2013). Social network theory allows for the professional capital involved in making complex decisions in community.

Likewise, building on the social capital from social network theory and integrating it with human and decisional capital, we note the potential for capacity building and enactment of professional capital. Of primary importance is the idea that professional capital occurs in the complex negotiations of practice, humans, decisions, and social contexts, particularly when naysayers are included to better inform all of the decisions made and enacted. With an investment in "capability and commitment" (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012), education communities may collaborate on decisions and practices while at the same time emphasizing the intellectual work and public aspect of a field like teacher education.

“We Do More Than Discuss Good Ideas”

Connecting teacher educator professional development to social network theory involves human capital in the sense of who participates. Human capital is about knowledge of a certain discipline, knowledge of students (teacher candidates in this case), knowledge of context, and the ability “to sift and sort the science of successful and innovative practice” (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012, p. 89). It also involves “passion and moral commitment” (p. 89). However, this human capital need not be developed in isolation. Therefore the interactions and relationships as emphasized in social network theory are key to the integration of professional, human, social, and decisional capital. Hargreaves and Fullan acknowledge that “the essence of professionalism is the ability to make discretionary judgments” (p. 93). Our theoretical framework adds the complexity of decision making in community.

Professional Development in Community

Related to teacher educator professional development and “collegial collaboration” (Lieberman & Miller, 2008), the EELG emphasized the collaboration of clinical teacher educators in a supportive community. This particular context of professional development was largely informed by the foundational basis of communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) and cultures of inquiry (Cochran-Smith, 2003; Cochran-Smith & Boston College Evidence Team, 2009; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009; Snow-Gerono, 2005) as a means to develop capacity for agency as teacher educators. A large part of this EELG community was based in “honest talk” that “invites the disclosure of and reflection on the problems of practice” (Little & Horn, 2007, p. 50). Within this space, teacher educators worked toward collegial rather than congenial collaboration (Lieberman & Miller, 2008) and were willing to engage multiple perspectives and differences in practice.

As teacher educators working to improve professional practice and learning outcomes for teacher candidates (and their P-12 students), we recognized the importance of “centering teacher education in practice” (Ball & Forzani, 2009, p. 498). As collaborators at the university level, liaisons recognized the need to “build relationships in two directions” (Null, 2009, p. 446). Null recommended building relationships not only with P-12 schools but also “inward toward our faculty colleagues and university administrators” (p. 446). In this sense, teacher educators may “establish ourselves as faculty leaders who integrate what to teach and how to teach while at the same time focusing on the moral, civic, and spiritual ends of the teaching profession” (p. 446). This EELG community of practice was focused on work outside the university context while at the same time targeting development together. We emphasized the complicated interaction of relationships and social capital in the work of clinical teacher educators.

There is a “moral imperative” in teacher education (Fullan, 2011) in that this work emphasizes the integration of knowledge, skills, and dispositions in teacher educators and practice. Communities of practice may employ “moral imperative as a strategy” in connection to the following framework (Fullan, 2011):

1. make a personal commitment
2. build relationships
3. focus on implementation
4. develop the collaborative
5. connect to the outside
6. be relentless (and divert distracters) (p. 3)

Carefully considering negotiations of practice and larger purposes of teacher educator work, we highlight the professional development in social communities of practice.

Learning Through Inquiry

Communities of practice also emphasize inquiry into practice to develop stronger frameworks and public intellectualism (Cochran-Smith, 2006). Creating professional development for teacher educators to gain a sense of public intellectualism means helping them find their voice in program and systemic change, where they can consider rational thought and the complexities of teaching within political contexts. These acts integrate social and decisional capital in a practical manner. Likewise, teacher educators may often be positioned below other intellectuals in university systems (Labaree, 2004). Such a perspective complicates and informs teacher educators as they work to follow hierarchical demands while at the same time employing promising pedagogies in the field. With a network of relationships and interactions at the heart of communities of practice, teacher educators negotiate an institutional structure focused more on hierarchical communication to pursue opportunities for public discourse on teacher educator practice.

We held learning in community and through inquiry at the forefront of perspectives on professional development for this study. Working to model teacher educator practice as authentic toward what is hoped that teacher candidates will embrace in their own professional contexts, EELG participant focus was centered on emulating an inquiry stance toward teaching (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009). The EELG endeavored to understand the work of teacher education in terms of the generation of knowledge-in-practice, knowledge-for-practice, and eventually knowledge-of-practice (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001). This knowledge-of-practice consists of investigating the knowledge constructed through a person's own practice and the knowledge generated *for* best practice in teacher education so that teacher educators may promote an integrated and co-constructed knowledge for teacher education application across the professional life-span. The EELG inquiry community embraced the concepts of sharing and constructing knowledge together while at the same time honoring knowledge generated by those outside this community's practice. An example would be an invitation toward experts in the disciplinary fields or in learning-centered supervision (Danielson, 2013) who inform work as a community of practice. Our positioning toward knowledge was also something emphasized in the program so that novice educators could embrace

inquiry and the co-construction of knowledge as important professional educator characteristics.

Methods for Inquiry

For this inquiry into the nature, practices, and affordances of a complex collective, we utilized qualitative case study methods (Stake, 2000; Yin, 1984). Case study allowed us to account for the disparate nature of the EELG members, complex interactions within the group, and both group and individual development over time as it related to issues of effective teacher education practices and policies.

EELG Practice and Participants

The EELG members worked within a college of education (COE) in a state university in the northwestern United States. Teacher candidates in the undergraduate elementary education programs spend a professional year in partner schools: 3 days per week in the first semester internship and then full-time student teaching for another semester. Liaisons, depending on workload allocations, were expected to be out in partner schools 1-2 days per week, supervising 6-12 teacher candidates. They observed and provided feedback to candidates, while also holding weekly seminars with cohort groups, monthly meetings with mentor teachers, and informal meetings with principals. The nature of this work was complex and demanding (Martin, Snow, & Torrez, 2011).

At the time of this study, a culture of shared leadership for teacher education had taken root and grown within the COE during the prior 4 academic years. Members of the Teacher Education Leadership Team, the associate dean for teacher education, and three tenure-track faculty members worked together to share and distribute leadership. Two of the tenure-track faculty members, who were also engaged in liaison work with partner elementary schools, took charge of the elementary supervisors' group, which had historically met monthly simply to discuss procedural issues. They began to re-form and repurpose this group with a clear focus on effective support of teacher candidates in their field experiences.

Re-formation of the group included an examination and minimization of adjunct faculty who had track records of limited observation schedules or ineffectual supervision. Interested and experienced graduate students were recruited into supervision work, and two clinical faculty lines were added. Tenure-track faculty who were not interested in liaison work were no longer required to engage in it; they were encouraged to pursue other scholarly areas of expertise and teaching.

During these 4 years, meetings focused on sharing and deconstructing practices to co-construct knowledge and skills toward effective clinical teacher education. Liaisons discussed observation protocols; implementation of common core standards; the scaffolding of instruction, including lesson and unit design; and the support necessary for teacher inquiry projects (Dana & Yendol-Hoppey, 2009).

The group jointly planned and implemented several focal seminars for interns or student teachers across partner school sites each semester.

Twelve out of 15 EELG liaisons participated in this study in some capacity. Two of the liaisons who did not participate had left the university for other positions. The other was traveling internationally and not supervising students the year the study was conducted. As noted in Table 1, the participants included tenure-track faculty, clinical faculty, and adjunct liaisons. Eleven of the 12 participants completed the survey with demographic data entered. Details for the missing participant were gathered via interview. The group also varied as to their official positions in the COE. All but one participant also had teaching responsibilities in the teacher education program. Each member of the group had classroom teaching experience, with nine of the participants also having prior supervision experience of teacher candidates in other contexts. Two of the participants had been mentor teachers for the program at some point. Areas of certification and/or academic expertise varied widely among the participants. Two of the 12 participants were men, and all but 1 were Caucasian. All of these positions and perspectives influenced the social capital through relationships and networks of influence and decision making.

The Inquiry Team

As in other studies of group processes in teacher education (e.g., Peck, Gallucci, & Sloan, 2010), some participants in this study were also members of the research team that set inquiry questions and that gathered, analyzed, and reported data addressing these questions. We three team members thus straddled roles as researchers

Table 1
Characteristics of Elementary Education Liaison Group Participants

Current positions held at the university	Prior experiences	Areas of expertise and certifications represented in the EELG group
Tenure-track faculty		
2 full professors	100% former classroom	Literacy; secondary English;
1 associate professor	teachers with an average	teacher education;
1 assistant professor	of 18 years' experience	educational psychology
Non-tenure-track faculty		
2 clinical faculty ^a	2 experienced as mentor	Child development;
3 special lecturers ^a	teachers;	math specialist; history;
2 adjunct liaisons	9 had prior supervision	technology; special education;
	experience	bilingual and multicultural;
		library media specialist;
		gifted and talented;
		administration

^a All five of these participants were doctoral candidates at the same time that they were liaisons.

“We Do More Than Discuss Good Ideas”

and participants of the EELG during this inquiry. Two of us—experienced tenure-track faculty responsible for teaching, liaison work, scholarship, and service—were the teacher education leadership participants who initiated and facilitated EELG meetings. The third research team member was a recently graduated doctoral candidate who had been involved in liaison work for the prior 3 years.

We were aware of the challenges and ethics posed in these dual roles. These ranged across methodological issues, such as who should lead focus groups to get trustworthy data and how to bracket our own understandings of the group to get to the heart of issues. For instance, we decided to exclude the two EELG facilitators from participation in initial focus group meetings. We used pseudonyms in our transcriptions, data analyses, and reporting to create distance between our individual experiences and those of the group as a whole. Central to our methodology were collaborative processes of analysis and dialogue. Triangulation of data between the three of us served to strengthen findings. Furthermore, we conducted member checks to verify themes.

Through such bracketing, we perceived the significance of deepening understandings of the collaborative work we do with others in the EELG. We advocate purposeful examination of collective work done by teacher educators to best inform the field with increased rigor and accountability in teacher education programs. Our final EELG data collection session, in which we gathered information to address the themes arising from the data, involved the full complement of EELG participants. We took legitimate roles as participants, careful to express our ideas in these roles alone. Our individual understandings and experiences were thus woven into the collective data. Spanning the boundaries between roles of practitioner and researcher can foster intersections, “creating unique opportunities for reflection on and the improvement of teacher education” (Borko, Liston, & Whitcomb, 2007, p. 6).

Procedures, Data Sources, and Data Analysis

To construct our case, we moved iteratively between gathering and analyzing data. Findings thus emerged through several cycles of questioning and analysis of responses, in which questions to participants became more focused and refined. We moved from macro to micro levels to further understand emerging themes and drill down to the heart of the themes that emerged.

We first gathered data in the form of an anonymous survey of the EELG. Eleven of the 15 members responded. This survey elicited background information (e.g., experiences as K-8 classroom teachers), general perceptions of the group’s purposes and interactions, and perceptions of the potential outcomes for teacher education practices. We individually coded and memoed emerging themes from these data. We then met jointly to discuss the emerging themes—both consistencies and inconsistencies. Additionally, analysis of the quantitative sources created quantitative–qualitative linkages (Miles & Huberman, 1994) as we took frequency counts and created other data displays.

We then generated questions for three distinct focus groups: (a) the two originators–facilitators of the monthly meetings, (b) two doctoral candidates who had been mentored into liaison work by the original facilitators, and (c) participants at all other levels of involvement. These different groups could focus on interactions and relationships based in positions of mentor–mentee and participant. We used both the themes that emerged from the survey and the distinct nature of the groups to generate the next round of questions. For example, from the survey data on collaboration, we created extending and clarifying questions for the focus groups to probe for elaborations and examples of collaborations taking place both inside and outside of scheduled meetings. Because we wanted to get a sense of the history of the group from the two originators, we generated specific open-ended questions for this focus group. Focus groups were either facilitated by an advanced doctoral candidate who was not involved either as a liaison or a researcher or by the third research team member. Focus group discussions ranged from 30 to 60 minutes in length. Each was recorded and transcribed verbatim.

We individually coded the transcripts for salient findings through frequency word counts, noting individual nuances in responses, and aggregating codes for themes across individual experiences. Individual (re)reading and informal coding of our written reflections of the data through methods of constant comparison (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) led into our data memoing and discussions. Together we delved into the data to identify and discuss agreed-upon emerging themes and where we needed further information from our participants. The six themes that emerged were as follows: (a) how we defined collaboration, (b) our commonalities, (c) our differences, (d) the ways our roles in the university (e.g., tenure-track faculty, doctoral students) affected interaction with the group, (e) perceived tensions within the group, and (f) effect on individual practice and the program. We then delved further into these themes through whole-group questioning and a small-group task that engaged participants in a focused discussion about these themes. This EELG meeting yielded a 40-minute audio recording and written artifacts from participants. The recording was transcribed. Both the transcription and the written data were again coded through inductive processes, as refined understandings of our themes emerged. We again wrote memos and discussed our findings together, using data displays and creating graphic organizers (Miles & Huberman, 1994) to aid in making sense of the data. We used the theoretical framework of professional capital (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012) and our enactment of an inquiry stance in a community of practice to refine the initial themes. The three-way discussion kept us engaged with mutual understandings and apprised of any disconfirming evidence. Finally, we wrote a summary of our case findings and submitted this to our participants for a member check (Glesne, 2006).

Limitations

Limitations for this study included the small participant sample; however, as we

“We Do More Than Discuss Good Ideas”

were focused on the site of one EELG, we worked to dig deeper into one particular case. We also were three participant–researchers in this study. Our data meetings, triangulation of data, and member checks were intended to protect against any participant bias. We engaged in only 1 year of data collection and analysis—although many participant reflections spanned the history of the group. Our findings are intended to suggest possibilities for teacher educator professional development based on the rich description and analysis of one case.

Building and Sustaining Professional Capital in a Community of Practice

Investigating the influences of EELG participation on individual and program development, our analyses led to the identification of three key findings connected to the questions on participant experiences of development in this community and the resulting influences on program change. First, embracing shared knowledge and diversities included demonstrating an appreciation of these attributes. Participant data demonstrated the importance of social capital, interaction, and relationships in embracing multiple perspectives for individual development. This appreciation led to individual development in a variety of positions, from doctoral candidate to full professor. Second, distributed leadership and enactment was an outcome of the first finding in terms of EELG participants taking leadership roles no matter what their position in the university. Likewise, this work emphasized an active nature where liaisons took ideas and enacted them right away, empowering the social network through action and support. Third, collective activity led to program change and external influence as much as the internal, individual influences. We elaborate on these findings in the following.

Community Process as an Embrace of Shared Knowledge and Diversities

For work as a social network, liaison efforts were focused on sharing knowledge and engaging in professional development and program improvement together. Participants embraced shared knowledge and divergent perspectives, allowing for a sense of trust in this community of practice where liaisons worked together for successful outcomes, even if enacted differently. Liaisons did not always have to agree to trust that collective interaction would result in positive program change. The EELG meetings, however, began without this sense of community. At first, supervisor meetings, run by an administrative field experience coordinator, began as a space to share logistical information. Gulfs existed between the group members’ investments in teacher education and ensuing practices. Adjuncts were perceived as different and a lesser class by tenured faculty, as their connection to the university was tenuous. They did not teach courses. Doctoral students were rarely engaged in supervision. When this coordinator abruptly left her position, two tenure-track

faculty members who served as liaisons to partner schools leapt at the opportunity to become the co-leaders of the group. Their intent was to develop commitment and capacity in university supervisors to foster quality professional-year experiences for all teacher candidates. Meeting agendas demonstrated a focus more on professional development and collaboration (e.g., types of feedback provided to teacher candidates, topics for candidate seminars, observation tools) as opposed to logistical information (e.g., submitting travel reimbursement and final assessment forms).

As new purposes evolved, liaisons recognized the need to develop the social network through the ways the group interacted to effect individual and program improvement. This theme in data sources suggested that the previously mentioned practices demonstrated a move away from initial hierarchical structures to ways of sharing and distributing information, responsibility, and power. As one participant, Judy, described, the meetings had changed from “we would hear almost every month about something that should be initiated and then some stories and policies, but not much initiative going forward” (EELG Focus Group [FG] 1, July 2013, p. 2) to the current structure “being driven more toward what our needs were rather than someone imposing an agenda on us” (EELG FG1, July 2013, p. 2). The EELG met monthly and invited agenda items based on participant feedback. The “needs” Judy mentioned included a sharing space titled “whoops and ah-ha’s” to open each meeting, resource sharing of observation forms or ideas for seminars, and task force initiatives such as revising field guides or creating a curriculum for mentor teacher workshops.

The EELG endeavored to give voice to all involved, including adjunct faculty and doctoral students. As a group, liaisons agreed on norms for collaboration to move forward most productively in an environment of increased accountability for teacher educators and within the ambiguities of distributed leadership within a hierarchical institution. EELG meetings were framed around sharing experiences and asking questions for refining practice. An example of such moments included the way in which each meeting opened with “whoops and ah-ha’s” as the first item on each agenda. Liaisons consistently commented on the importance of this space and the ways in which allowing the sharing of experiences and hearing multiple perspectives informed practice. Rachel shared, “One thing that is great in this group is that a lot of stuff happens, but I think it happens because I think we are allowed to say whether we want to be in particular subcommittees or groups” (EELG FG ALL, August 2013, p. 6).

Not surprisingly, ambiguities of distributed leadership (Martin et al., 2012) persisted in this context. Tensions also persisted in work as an EELG. Some members began to take note of the almost voluntary nature of our community. Those who wished to participate did so more fully than others. Lora described it this way: “One diversity that we don’t have within the group is people who don’t value. . . . It seems like they self-select outside” (EELG FG ALL, August 2013, p. 2). Even with the majority of liaisons demonstrating their commitment through survey responses, some liaisons still felt slightly excluded. One focus group participant

“We Do More Than Discuss Good Ideas”

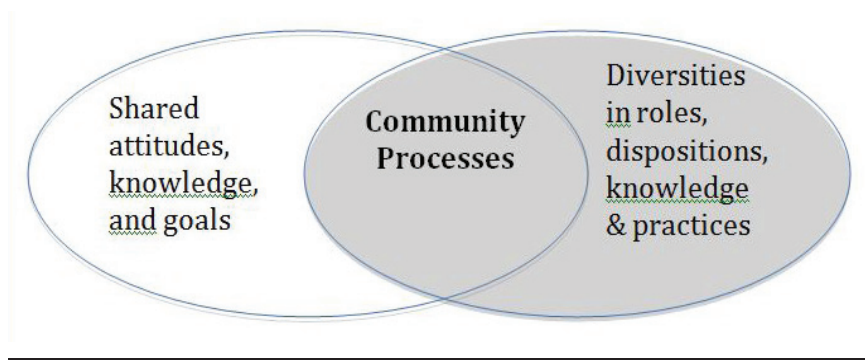
mentioned that she worried about being negatively evaluated for her different types of work in the program. There were times when liaisons may have felt like they “were doing it wrong” (field notes, August 22, 2013) after sharing information in meetings. Molly described her feelings after some meetings:

I don’t have the time, and I don’t have the energy so do I even belong here. It has even made me think OK, even though I was a teacher for so long and I think I have a lot to give my student teachers, if I can’t give them as much as other people appear to be giving—and I know this is our public self—then maybe I need to not do it. (EELG FG ALL, August 2013, p. 4)

When this was discussed as a group, James shared, “And how can you make that person that maybe does have a little bit of a different viewpoint or different approach feel welcome to balance things out a little bit?” (EELG FG ALL, August 2013, p. 4). The public nature of the EELG and transparency of practice likely also contributed to a sense of felt difference. Varied relationships and interactions demonstrated that shared attitudes could still be felt among the cacophony of diversities. A sense of coming together around shared knowledge and commitment and sticking together through divergent perspectives proved to be a key theme in data sources, as exemplified in Figure 1.

Data analyses demonstrated shared attitudes among participants in the EELG. Liaisons agreed that K-8 students were the “bottom line” of shared work in terms of candidate preparation and its focus on elementary student learning and growth. The EELG emphasized a co-teaching model (Bacharach, n.d.; St. Cloud University, 2011) for candidates and mentor teachers. Unity around this model allowed all to take collective responsibility for candidates and elementary students. Liaison work expanded beyond a solely university or school context; all of the people involved highlighted human capital around a shared understanding of elementary student growth. This belief in clinical practice and the importance of partnering with schools, along with an appreciation for differences among our approaches,

Figure 1
Intersections of Shared Understandings and Diversities



allowed us to engage the shared commitment with different visions of enactment. Carissa shared,

My goal is to integrate myself into the culture of the schools so that it is not a big deal when I am there. I can walk in and out of classrooms and the teachers don't get nervous and the student teachers don't get nervous and the kids are familiar with me and it's no big deal because I have been there before. (EELG FG2, July 2013, p. 5)

Carissa's sentiment was one felt by the majority of the EELG.

As previously noted in Table 1, liaisons had different areas of expertise. Kirsten described this negotiation by contrasting it from a concessionary or "groupthink" mentality. She described it as

not a "fine, let's do it the group's way" but it is some kind of a sense of belief and trust in the group decision that you think, "Wow! I am not sure I would have tried this but that is what we decided and I am going to try it because I believe that that will be best." (EELG FG ALL, August 2013, pp. 1-2)

Liaisons exemplified a willingness to try new things together. They engaged in multiple revisions of field guides for clinical practice, used new observation forms after sharing them in EELG meetings, and participated in the Danielson Group's Frameworks for Teaching (<http://www.danielsongroup.org>) training together. The work liaisons did was active, engaged, and geared to improving teacher candidate experiences. Liaisons demonstrated a sense of agency in accomplishing change in the program. Liaisons with a persistent presence in partner schools generated more agency in suggesting and facilitating program changes at the university. This agency was often attributed to participation and action in the EELG.

Liaisons volunteered to do things whether they were a graduate student or a professor. Although this may appear to demonstrate an "equality" (i.e., shared attitude), there was a felt difference in terms of power and position (e.g., mentor-mentee). James described his first year as a liaison:

I think Kirsten and I are just working through this five years later. . . . I was sitting there going "I can do this . . ." Kirsten . . . knew what to do and she was the experienced one at supervising. So I would defer to her so there was scaffolding going on but it was on the fly. . . . I felt very confident . . . but at the same time, is this what the university expects? Is this what Kirsten would do? . . . So there was that push-pull and I was constantly for a while looking for affirmation from Kirsten. (EELG FG M, July 2013, p. 4)

This description was a powerful example of the sharing of attributes in a passion for the field while at the same time noting differences in perceived expectations and roles within the university and partner school contexts. This interaction of shared attributes and diversities in a community of practice also influenced the nature of relationships, distributed leadership, and emphasis on action.

Distributed Leadership and Enactment

The data clearly demonstrate all liaisons taking action—either in their individual school sites or on group task forces. Having a voice in constructing important program documents and processes enhanced self-efficacy. With a sense of agency, EELG members demonstrated increased capacity to take action and a larger degree of decisional capital. Evidence indicated that EELG participants felt more comfortable in their work when they had opportunities to share and problem solve together, contributing to both individual and group feelings of efficacy. One of the most powerful findings from interviews was the appreciation of being able to “problem solve” issues in individual work with rest of the group (Levine, 2011). Liaisons left the university–program context to work within individual partner schools and districts and may often have felt as if they were “on their own.” However, the initial sharing that was a part of each EELG meeting resulted in feelings of validation and support for the collective work done in individual contexts. Powerful problem-solving moments, where collaborative energy improved all participant understandings of roles, demonstrated a commitment and willingness to share responsibility. These discussions resulted in templates for candidate performance plans and feedback on how to support struggling or successful candidates in a variety of contexts.

There was also shared power among the two group leaders and among distribution of tasks. Lora was an originator of the EELG and had even attempted stabs at sharing practices in the early version of supervisor meetings—before the prior field experience coordinator left her position. She said, “I really wanted us to develop professionalism around supervision” (EELG FAC, June 2013, p. 3). Her desire to develop professionalism as a group played a role in the evolution of distributed activity. Kirsten said, “People aren’t waiting to be told what to do necessarily . . . people in the group are pretty comfortable speaking up” (EELG FAC, June 2013, p. 5). As co-facilitators of the EELG for several years, Lora and Kirsten both agreed they were pleased with how many people participated in the task forces created from the group. For instance, Lora evidenced this point by crediting Rachel for describing some of her practices and prompting Lora to dig deeper into her own thinking about lesson planning. Lora took these ideas and ran with them in her own context and came back and shared with the EELG, and eventually groups of liaisons were working together to implement lesson design using Lora’s plans based on Rachel’s initial ideas. This shared construction of knowledge also generated from a distribution of power and leadership where different members were willing to share and learn from all other members.

Other data excerpts demonstrating a distribution of leadership around enactment included first-year liaisons creating pilot structures for the internship. From their own work they determined interns were struggling with course work and began generating ideas for new structures or corequisite courses to support teacher candidates. Additionally, ownership and responsibility for the EELG’s focus on mentor development was not lost when one faculty member left the group to move

on to other work. Without being asked, two clinical faculty members jumped in and began leading mentor teacher meetings, developing social networks for the mentor teachers, and gaining input for mentor professional development. Table 2 highlights the survey data indicating that liaisons believed their sense of efficacy and growing competencies were based in the work of the EELG.

Table 2 data indicate overwhelming support for the EELG influence on individual liaison development and its effect on work in the field. All participants strongly agreed that EELG interaction was responsible for their individual development of knowledge, skills, and dispositions, along with influencing program change.

The growing competency of EELG members was evidenced in the tasks they completed as a group. Liaisons defined themselves as “action-oriented,” and as can be seen in Table 2, they attributed actions, understandings, and personal growth to participation in the EELG. One liaison shared, “We do more than discuss good ideas” (author analysis meeting, August 2013). At different times, different people would lead a task force or revision group. Lora shared, “One of the reasons it is successful is because the people who have to do the processes are also involved in

Table 2
Reported Influences of the Elementary Education Liaison Group
on Knowledge, Skills, and Dispositions About Preservice Teacher Supervision

	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range			Agree
				Variance	Potential	Actual	
Developed knowledge and understandings	10	4.8	0.42	0.18	1-5	4-5	100%
Dispositions and conceptual framework	10	4.6	0.52	0.27	1-5	4-5	100%
Clinical supervisions skills and practices	10	4.7	0.48	0.23	1-5	4-5	100%
Professional growth and development	10	4.7	0.48	0.23	1-5	4-5	100%
Self-reflection and change to practice	10	4.8	0.42	0.18	1-5	4-5	100%
Impacts preservice teacher field experiences	8	4.8	0.46	0.21	1-5	4-5	100%

“We Do More Than Discuss Good Ideas”

the decision-making things” (EELG FAC, June 2013, p. 10). The EELG piloted new ideas for seminars, field guide revisions, culminating activity work samples, inquiry projects, and admission processes and then took these ideas and activities to the unit overall for consideration. Most people within the Teacher Education Unit would agree that many of the policy decisions have come from the EELG. This decisional capital is highlighted in survey responses, as indicated in Table 3.

Table 3 highlights the idea that the actions liaisons took individually and within the group were also influencing other programs, faculty members, or work outside the EELG. A primary finding connected to this study was that the professional development in which teacher educators engage can have an influence on their impact on individual, program, and systems change. Survey respondents unanimously agreed that their decisions made a difference in teacher candidate experiences. There was also large agreement that decisions influenced program change and elementary student experiences. This last connection is the perception of respondents rather than being based in authentic elementary student data.

EELG Processes Result in Program Change and Outcomes

Our study of this community of practice to determine potential internal and external influences led to uncovering how work in the EELG resulted in larger program and systems change in this context. Evidence of individual professional development was strongly supported by multiple data sources and had a “snowball” effect in the elementary education program. The EELG informed changes across the larger Teacher Education Unit.

With the purpose of the EELG shifting to professional development, new agenda items appeared in meetings, including presentations from colleagues (e.g., Smarter Balanced Assessment and new assessment criteria for P–12 schools and integrating content-specific supervision practices and feedback; Valencia, Martin, Place, &

Table 3
Reported Dispositions About Collaborative Decision Making and Actions of the Group

				Range			
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Variance	Potential	Actual	Agree
Decisions make a difference for teacher candidates	10	4.60	.52	0.27	1-5	4-5	100%
Decisions influence program change	8	4.25	1.0	1.10	1-5	2-5	88%
Decisions make a difference for K-8 students	8	4.30	1.0	1.10	1-5	2-5	88%

Grossman, 2009). The EELG also had several subgroup task forces emerging. For example, the EELG was responsible for revising the Professional Year Assessment and the Elementary Education Field Guide for all candidates. Liaisons engaged in curriculum changes for the program and participated in program admission processes, which have had a more external influence on multiple programs across the unit. Presently, liaisons are engaging in shared training on an effective teaching framework (Danielson, 2013) and its influence on feedback to candidates, observation tools, and assessment systems. These multiple and complex efforts indicate EELG professional development activities as interactive in their connection to one another and also in creating coherent programs connected to local, state, and national initiatives (Garet, Porter, Desimone, & Birman, 2001).

Kirsten described how she viewed the process:

We were just a group who wanted to get together and do stuff. Now we are a group who seriously were effecting change in programs unintentionally. But part of that is because we are willing to do the work and we have the ownership and agency so we revised the field guides and assessments. We said this is what we are doing, this is what we decided, and other people are saying okay, sounds good. (EELG FAC, June 2013, p. 10)

The influences of the group were internal and, to an extent, external. For example, EELG members read an article with an emphasis on content-focused supervision feedback. James and Kirsten shared how they found themselves pushing each other to provide more discipline-based feedback to candidates after reading this article Lora coauthored on the role of subject-specific feedback to teacher candidates. At the same time, EELG members asked Sean to lead a seminar on mathematics pedagogy so that they could feel more comfortable providing feedback when observing mathematics instruction. The EELG collaborated in a book study of a text written about the Common Core State Standards in English language arts. Administrators in the college also requested copies of the book so that they could become informed on a focus of EELG work.

With all of these internal influences occurring, liaisons found that many decisions for the elementary education program were also adopted in other programs. As elementary education representatives went to the Unit Governing Council with decisions to interview applicants to teacher education or with a request to raise grade point average (GPA) admission requirements, other programs also adopted an interview process and raised GPA standards for admission. As liaisons became more comfortable within this community of practice, they felt more empowered to share EELG work outside of this community. In this way, professional capital (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012) expanded into other arenas as community process allowed for *individual development*, *group development*, and then *program development*.

Implications for Teacher Educator Professional Development

Through this inquiry, we identify a need for teacher educators to participate in communities of practice (Wenger, 1998) to engage professional growth and define professional knowledge frameworks for teacher educators (Goodwin & Kosnick, 2013). This development should happen in communities of practice to support social network theory, as the clinical work of teacher education is done in multiple contexts across sites of teaching and learning. This social networking could lead to deeper program change and individual development when social capital is acknowledged in ways that enhance decisional capital.

Engaging in an examination of teacher educator identity and life (Day, 2012), EELG participants demonstrated a connection among research, practice, and policy contexts. To generate deeper spheres of influence, a focus on professional capital is necessary. Teacher educators should recognize human, social, and decisional capital within communities of practice as a key step in generating the professional capital necessary for program and individual development and change. With an emphasis on teacher educator professional development, teacher educators highlight their own sense of efficacy and agency in making a difference in teacher education. In a political climate where teacher education is presented as “an industry of mediocrity” (Keller, 2013), teacher educator professional development must provide the cultivation and space for teacher educators as public intellectuals who are willing to engage and enact change at individual, program, and institutional levels (Cochran-Smith, 2006). This development of agency through enacting decision capital could lend itself to larger teacher educator influence through social networks and recognized expertise.

Internal and external influences of this EELG also have implications for teacher educator professional development based in intentionality and mentoring in terms of growing capacity and professional capital. EELG member agency was supported and cultivated in community. Although some liaisons may have had their individual ideas, the EELG found it had more power in collective activity. The EELG increased human, social, and decisional capital to increase program rigor and the transformation of teacher education in this context. Teacher educators may learn from Day (2012) that it is important to be “active always in checking out and giving voice to the connections, at all levels, between policy, research, and practice, and most of all to become and remain, with integrity and passion . . . ‘recklessly curious’?” (p. 22).

The EELG maintained a focus on inquiry and the cultivation of a growth mind-set (Dweck, 2008). These frameworks allowed for the embrace of multiple perspectives and a shared purpose to create the best opportunities for teacher candidates in the program. Liaisons were willing to try something new and to return to it—again and again—to refine it for the most effective practice. This phenomenon was not cultivated intentionally. The EELG did not set out to change entire systems and other programs. However, its willingness to enact change collectively did influ-

ence programs outside the EELG. Considering this unintentional outcome, teacher educator professional development should cultivate this mind-set and human capital to effect the transformation of educator preparation in meaningful, complex ways. This EELG dynamic included a sense of individual agency (and growth), community agency (and development), and programmatic change (and improvement). Teacher educators need to recognize social networks—interactions and relationships—within teacher educator professional development and their potential influences as important for maintaining relevance and rigor in the field at large.

Likewise, identifying communities of practice as a powerful space for teacher educator professional development emphasizes the need for valuing those who work in clinical teacher education. They cannot be considered less than those who teach in or research teacher education programs and practices. Findings in this study indicate an emphasis on the mentoring and inclusion of doctoral candidates and clinical faculty with tenure-track teacher educators. This research indicated an appropriate focus or scaffolding of professional development and mentoring opportunities across positions in the field made a difference in individual and program change. Institutional structures that focus on the relationships of partners across and outside of the university helped to support teacher educators and their partner schools, as did the openness and vulnerability necessary for all partners (Snow-Gerono, 2005). The collaborative nature of this work within a hierarchical structure lent itself to feelings of shared understandings and diversities. How do teacher educators engage in consensus toward program work within the larger system of a Teacher Education Unit?

Clinical supervisor and liaison professional development matters (Levine, 2011). If teacher education is “under attack,” we teacher educators owe it to ourselves to examine why and how this may have occurred. Teacher educators must share the promising practices in their work and engage in specific professional development. When teacher educators cultivate professional capital with/in each other, it allows for collective activity to continue in hierarchical and accountability-driven contexts. The development of professional capital may lend itself to the teacher educator as a public intellectual and further individual, program, and systems change in programs everywhere.

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Information on the California Council on Teacher Education

Founded in 1945, the California Council on the Education of Teachers (now the California Council on Teacher Education as of July 2001) is a non-profit organization devoted to stimulating the improvement of the preservice and inservice education of teachers and administrators. The Council attends to this general goal with the support of a community of teacher educators, drawn from diverse constituencies, who seek to be informed, reflective, and active regarding significant research, sound practice, and current public educational issues.

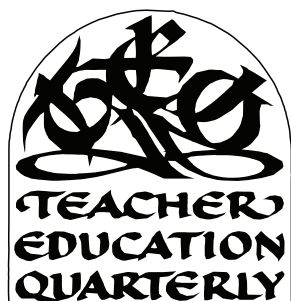
Membership in the California Council on Teacher Education can be either institutional or individual. Colleges and universities with credential programs, professional organizations with interests in the preparation of teachers, school districts and public agencies in the field of education, and individuals involved in or concerned about the field are encouraged to join. Membership entitles one to participation in semi-annual spring and fall conferences, subscription to *Teacher Education Quarterly* and *Issues in Teacher Education*, newsletters on timely issues, an informal network for sharing sound practices in teacher education, and involvement in annual awards and recognitions in the field.

The semi-annual conferences of the California Council on Teacher Education, rotated each year between sites in northern and southern California, feature significant themes in the field of education, highlight prominent speakers, afford opportunities for presentation of research and discussion of promising practices, and consider current and future policy issues in the field.

For information about or membership in the California Council on Teacher Education, please contact: Alan H. Jones, Executive Secretary, California Council on Teacher Education, Caddo Gap Press, 3145 Geary Boulevard, PMB 275, San Francisco, California 94118; telephone 415/666-3012; email <caddogap@aol.com>; website <www.ccte.org>.

The next semi-annual conference of the California Council on Teacher Education will be:

October 22-24, 2015, Kona Kai Resort, San Diego



Using Torey Hayden's Teacher Stories to Teach Relationship Skills in Special Education Teacher Preparation

**By Elin Meyers Hoffman, Michael J. Marlowe,
Kate Hoffman Scharf, Gayle H. Disney,
Alison Macer, Daniel Poling, & Amber Queen**

Students with disabilities often struggle in one or more academic content areas and may also face social and emotional difficulties, resulting in low self-esteem and poor peer relationships (McDermott & McDermott, 2002). Many students with disabilities hold low academic expectations for themselves, find it difficult to focus on school tasks or to stay motivated, and may engage in various maladaptive behaviors as a consequence (Deshler, 2005).

Risk factors inherent in disability status frequently result in negative educational outcomes. For instance, students with disabilities drop out of school in large

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numbers; only half earn a high school diploma (Bear, Kortering, & Braziel, 2006). Paradoxically, students with mild disabilities and behavior disorders drop out at significantly higher rates than students with more severe disabilities (Chambers, Dunn, & Rabren, 2004; Reschley & Christenson, 2006; Scanlon & Mellard, 2002). Researchers have yet to identify the specific factors associated with the disproportionate dropout rate among disability groups, but students with mild disabilities, who make up the largest segment of students with disabilities, consistently demonstrate the highest dropout rates (Reschley & Christenson, 2006).

Students with mild disabilities who drop out often lack healthy interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers associated with school persistence (Seidel & Vaughn, 1991). Teachers perceived as caring, who are willing to help individual students, and who allow greater individual autonomy are likely to encourage students with disabilities to remain in school (Kortering & Braziel, 1999).

A close relationship with teachers or other adults outside the family has been shown to influence the trajectory of student outcomes, especially for students with disabilities (Murray & Greenberg, 2006). During adolescence in particular, close emotional relationships with parents and other family members often extend to include peers and nonparental adults such as teachers or other school personnel, providing social and emotional resources that enable students to navigate social environments (Pianta, 1999). In the context of school, the teacher–student relationship has been shown to contribute to cognitive and social development from early childhood through adolescence (Baker, 2006; Birch & Ladd, 1998; Hughes, 2007; Jordan & Stanovich, 2001).

Although opportunities for promoting social and academic resilience in children may be somewhat limited, research suggests that a close and supportive relationship with an adult provides resources that help students develop resilience throughout elementary, middle, and high school (Pianta & Walsh, 1998). Students who feel connected to someone, perhaps a teacher, are afforded a level of protection, making it critical for teachers to possess skills to connect with their students.

Narrative and Teacher Education

Prospective teachers' beliefs about teaching and teacher characteristics are typically well defined long before they begin teacher preparation programs (Pajares, 1992). Those who choose to become educators have had mostly positive experiences related to education, and their resulting belief system is based on their own experiences as students. Unlike knowledge associated with course content, beliefs are based on individual perceptions and assessments, and as such, they exert a strong influence over acquiring and processing new information. Normally, acquiring new knowledge leads to reaffirmation of the belief system; the belief system serves as a filter defining and altering the acquired knowledge to fit into it. It is possible, however, to alter a belief system if the beliefs are strongly challenged, but even

then change may occur only as a last resort (Pajares, 1992). Although it is difficult to change preservice teacher beliefs at any time, change is more likely to occur during teacher preparation than once preservice teachers have taken a permanent position in the classroom (Brown, Morehead, & Smith, 2008).

Voices in the field of teacher education have promoted teacher narrative as a medium for addressing preservice teachers' beliefs about the relational dimensions of teaching (Gibson, 2012; Schwarz & Alberts, 1998). Teacher narratives tap the affective domain by presenting opportunities for deepened relations with others and serve as springboards for ethical actions. In *The Call of Stories: Teaching and the Moral Imagination*, Robert Coles (1989) claimed that it is only through stories that one can fully enter another's life. In recounting the use of stories in his medical education, teaching, and psychiatric practice, he notes the power of story in its immediacy and the "wonderful mimetic power a novel or story can have—it's capacity to work its way into one's thinking life, yes, but also one's reveries or idle thoughts, even one's moods or dreams" (p. 204).

The use of narrative in teacher preparation allows preservice teachers to become virtual observers in a variety of classroom settings. Participation in shared experiences, made possible through narrative, encourages preservice teachers to make sense of teaching and learning, thereby allowing them to construct their own knowledge, as opposed to merely being recipients of knowledge handed down by others. Students are afforded opportunities to consider teaching in relation to student learning and to focus their attention on the broader goals of education (Lasher-Zwerling & Tellez, 2011; Schwarz & Alberts, 1998). Through purposeful distancing of learners from actual events, narratives can be viewed and analyzed from multiple perspectives, allowing learners to explore what it means to be a teacher and how teachers engage in teacher practice (Garbett & Tynan, 2007). Narratives also provide a venue for the varied emotions practicing teachers experience as they celebrate their successes and confront their failures in the classroom (Gordon, Benner, & Noddings, 1996).

It is important to address why one would choose to use narrative in teacher education to convey something as concrete and rational as methodology. Narrative is a way of thinking about and making sense of experience. It provides opportunities for preservice teachers to understand how and why events occur, and it allows them to assimilate experience into their professional identities (Cole & Knowles, 2000). Bruner (2002) suggested that humans are inherently motivated by stories and pay attention to them; when new material is presented in story form, they understand the material more easily, they retain information longer, and they more readily identify characters in stories as symbolic models. Narrative allows future teachers to examine the understandings of others, to confirm or question their own belief systems, and to potentially create new meaning from them. Providing opportunity for students to read selected texts and to engage in classroom discussions allows for the generation of new meaning without added complications of actually living experiences in the text (Gibson, 2012).

Torey Hayden's Narratives

Torey Hayden's teacher stories are first-person accounts of being a teacher in classrooms for students with emotional and behavioral disorders. Hayden's books offer readers a real-world look at the joys and challenges of teaching children whose lives are marked by emotional and behavioral disorders, child abuse and trauma, anger and defeat. Hayden's first book was *One Child* (Hayden, 1980), the story of Sheila, a silent, troubled girl who tied a three-year-old boy to a tree and critically burned him. *One Child* was followed by *Somebody Else's Kids* (Hayden, 1982); *Murphy's Boy* (Hayden, 1983); *Just Another Kid* (Hayden, 1986); *Ghost Girl* (Hayden, 1992); *The Tiger's Child* (Hayden, 1995); the sequel to *One Child*, titled *Beautiful Child* (Hayden, 2002); and *Twilight Children* (Hayden, 2006).

Hayden's nonfiction narratives are especially helpful for understanding relationships (Marlowe, 2012). Her stories emphasize relationship skills, intuition, and the social milieu in changing children's behavior and give voice to the synergistic power of relationships between a teacher and her students. In her prologue to *The Tiger's Child*, Hayden (1995) noted the powerful effect Sheila had: "This little girl had a profound effect on me. Her courage, her resilience, and her inadvertent ability to express that great gaping need to be loved that we all feel—in short, her humanness brought me into contact with my own" (p. 8).

A series of studies (Marlowe & Maycock, 2000, 2001; Marlowe, Maycock, Palmer, & Morrison, 1997) examined the short-term influence of Hayden's teacher stories on preservice teachers' attitudes. These studies documented that reading, discussing, and writing about Hayden resulted in positive attitude changes over the course of a 15-week semester. Participants evinced more positive expectations and acceptance toward students with disabilities (Marlowe & Maycock, 2001) and with emotional and behavioral disorders (Marlowe et al., 1997) and decreased punitive behavior toward students (Marlowe & Maycock, 2000). Phenomenological analysis of participant journal entries in the three studies revealed the structure of the experience of reading Hayden was one of identification with Hayden's character leading to ways of feeling (e.g., inspiration, hope) and ways of knowing (e.g., new understandings, gathering didactic information).

Marlowe and Disney (2007) conducted a 10-year follow-up survey examining practicing teachers' perceptions of the long-term influence of reading Hayden's teacher narratives in preservice teacher education. Participants ($N=132$), who had an average of 5 years of teaching experience, reported that Hayden's stories were a positive influence in preparing them to teach, in forming their teacher attitudes and identity, and in developing their own relationship skills. However, these data were returned anonymously, and individual responses could not be tracked to determine changes in participant beliefs. The purpose of this study is to replicate and extend Marlowe and Disney's research by conducting a 20-year follow-up survey.

Method

Participants

Participants included 1992-2012 graduates of a K-12 cross-categorical initial special education certification program who (a) had completed an introductory course in emotional and behavioral disorders in which Hayden's books were used as course texts and (b) were currently employed as special education teachers. A list of potential participants and current e-mail addresses ($N=186$) was obtained from the university alumni office. Ninety-eight participants returned completed surveys, a response rate of 53% for the accessible population. Respondents were not compensated for their participation. Participants had a mean age of 32.88 years ($SD=8.77$). Eighty-five were women, and 13 were men. Ninety-six were Caucasian, 1 was African American, and 1 was Hispanic. Participants had a mean of 8.44 years of special education teaching experience ($SD=6.35$).

Treatment

The introductory course in emotional and behavioral disorders is a three-credit-hour course and is required for all special education majors. Course texts included books by Hayden: *One Child*, *Somebody Else's Kids*, *Just Another Kid*, *Beautiful Child*, and *The Tiger's Child*. Texts served as primary sources for class lectures and discussions. Teacher-student encounters in the texts served as springboards for inquiry and critique of theory and practice in the education of students with emotional and behavioral problems. Additional course readings included journal articles and book chapters addressing topics in emotional and behavioral disorders. Information from these readings was discussed in relation to characters and events in Hayden's books, for example, (a) "Does Sheila meet the IDEA definition of emotional disturbance?" and (b) "Larry Brendtro and others discuss the circle of courage needs of troubled children. How does Torey address these needs in her classroom?"

Assignments included response papers on each of the Hayden texts. Students responded to questions such as the following:

1. Describe Torey Hayden's use of emotion in *Just Another Kid*. How does Torey build in opportunities for expression of feelings? Opportunities for stress reduction and relaxation? Opportunities for joy and enthusiasm? Opportunities for her students to communicate with her?
2. In *One Child*, Torey was absent for two days, and Sheila, who had been doing well, became very destructive. When Torey returned and discovered the damage Sheila had done, she became angry and felt very disappointed in Sheila. Torey denied her the privilege of going on a field trip. Was this an appropriate consequence?

Questions lead students from literal recall of information through interpretation, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Student responses are openly discussed in the university classroom.

The Survey

A questionnaire, the Torey Hayden Survey (THS; Marlowe & Disney, 2007), was created specifically to measure the long-term influence of reading Hayden in preservice teacher education. The THS consisted of three sections: demographic data, closed-ended questions, and open-ended questions. The THS mail-based survey was converted to an online survey in the present study.

Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2009) maintained that a survey must be a valid measure of the factors of interest. The current THS is based on key relationship skills that Marlowe and Hayden (2013) delineated as fundamental to the success of developing positive relationships in the classroom. In the present study, the factor of interest was the long-term effects of having read the Hayden texts during undergraduate teacher preparation on special educators' relationship skills. It should be understood that a survey represents only a cross-sectional view of a given population at a particular time (Best & Kahn, 2003) and that the THS can only capture participant perceptions at the time of the administration of the survey. To that end, a version of the present survey was administered to participants after as many as 10 years of teaching, with the intent of capturing participant perceptions at that time (Marlowe & Disney, 2007). The present study is a follow-up version for participants with as many as 20 years of teaching experience, with the intent of understanding the extent of any lasting influence of the Hayden texts over the reader's teaching career.

Equivalence and stability over time were evaluated through use of alternate form reliability and repeated administrations of the survey. The questionnaire distributed for this study was similar to one discussed in an earlier report (Marlowe & Disney, 2007). Although basic questions of the THS were similar, wording and the order in which questions were presented were slightly different on each administration. Participants with 1-10 years of teaching experience were surveyed initially (Marlowe & Disney, 2007), and in the current administration of the THS, survey participants had completed 1-20 years of teaching experience. Invited participants in the 20-year follow-up survey included previously surveyed participants with 10 or fewer years of experience. Neither the previous administration of the survey nor the current administration collected identifiable demographic information establishing reliability of the instrument based on individual responses, as responses were not attributed to individual responders. However, because demographic data were collected in the initial and follow-up survey administrations, comparison of responses based on several criteria, including years of experience, age, gender, and so on, was possible. Results of demographic comparisons consistently demonstrated consensus among respondents regarding the long-term effects of having read the Hayden texts during their teacher preparation.

Participant responses for comparable questions were compared using a Pearson product moment correlation. Results indicate a relationship across time for a portion of the items in the questionnaire. For the nine paired questions, the mean response of respondents for the first administration ($m=4.17$) and the current administra-

tion ($m=4.34$) resulted in a Pearson's r of .988. The t -test indicates that this level of correlation is not significantly different, $t(8)=-2.08, p<.07$.

Data Collection

Participants began the THS by responding to demographic questions relating to age, gender, and years of experience. The purpose of these questions was to determine specific attributes of responding participants so that they and their responses could be compared to other respondents and their responses. An additional purpose of demographic questions was to establish a reciprocal relationship with respondents. When the initial e-mail invitation to participate in the study was sent, researchers focused on establishing a level of familiarity with potential respondents. The initial e-mail was signed by the researcher who taught each of the classes that included the Hayden texts.

The current Internet survey measured 25 relationship skills derived from *Teaching Children Who Are Hard to Reach: Relationship-Driven Classroom Practice* (Marlowe & Hayden, 2013). This book, based on Hayden's practice expertise, describes teacher skills needed to create strong and healthy bonds necessary for using relationships as a medium of behavioral change. Twenty-five competencies from the book were selected for inclusion in the survey.

On the basis of the lead statement "As a result of having read Torey Hayden's books in my undergraduate teacher education, I am better able to," participants rated Hayden's influence on each of the 25 competencies on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Instructions asked participants "to read each competency statement about teaching students with disabilities, choose your personal level of agreement or disagreement, and select the corresponding number" (from the Likert scale).

In addition to closed-ended questions, the survey included four open-ended questions:

1. How strong an influence was reading Hayden compared to other influences, practices, and texts in your undergraduate studies in preparing you to teach students with disabilities?
2. Did reading Hayden permanently change your attitudes and beliefs about students with disabilities? Why or why not?
3. Do you consider Hayden a good role model for special education teachers? Explain.
4. What adjectives would you use to describe the qualities you see in yourself that remind you of Hayden?

A final question asked whether participants would be willing to be contacted for a follow-up interview, and if so, participants were asked to provide contact information.

Using Torey Hayden's Teacher Stories

Procedure

Participants received an e-mail with a survey link inviting them to participate in the study. The initial e-mail was followed by three reminder e-mails sent over an 8-week period. Participation was voluntary; however, all participants were informed that those who responded would be entered into a drawing for 1 of 10 copies of the book *Teaching Children Who Are Hard to Reach* (Marlowe & Hayden, 2013). Responses were confidential and remained in a locked file. Correspondence was sent through the university alumni office with the THS delivered via Select Survey.

To increase the reliability of survey data, participants were invited to participate in a follow-up interview. Eleven participants agreed to do so and included contact information with their survey responses. Once responses were collected and entered into the database, participants indicating a willingness to be interviewed were contacted to schedule phone interviews. Interviews were semistructured, including 3 generic questions about working with students with disabilities and 10 questions directly related to the interviewee's perceptions about Torey Hayden or his or her experience of having read the Hayden books during teacher preparation. The final two questions were related to the efficacy of the use of Hayden's teacher narratives as a teaching tool or as a method of learning (see the appendix).

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics, generated by using SAS, Version 9.3, were used to summarize quantitative data from survey responses. Participant level of agreement with each of the 25 selected competencies was analyzed. Demographic data on participant age, gender, and years of teaching experience were examined in relation to the average total score on each of the 25 competencies to determine whether differences between groups existed.

Responses to open-ended questions and follow-up interview questions were transcribed verbatim into a word processing program, coded for themes, and classified into corresponding categories. An adaptation of Colaizzi's (1978) phenomenological method was used to analyze responses. This method consists of six steps: (a) dwelling with data, including transcription of participant narratives; (b) extracting significant statements relating specifically to the phenomenon under investigation; (c) formulating meanings or creating general restatements of significant statements extracted from participant narratives; (d) organizing meanings into clusters or themes; (e) creating an exhaustive description of the phenomenon through a fusion of theme clusters and articulated meanings; and (f) reducing descriptions to fundamental statements of the essence of the phenomenon through rigorous analysis of detailed descriptions of the phenomenon (Colaizzi, 1978; Edward & Welch, 2011).

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), rigor in qualitative research should be expressed as trustworthiness and credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Conclusions are credible if they reflect the realities that participants expressed. In lieu of generalizability, the reader of qualitative research looks to

see if results are transferable to a similar context or if he or she can identify with findings. Dependability implies relative replicability, because a basic assumption of qualitative research is that a particular reality is true at one point in time, for one particular set of participants. Confirmability refers to whether another researcher would arrive at a similar understanding or conclusion from the data.

Brantlinger, Jimenez, Klingner, Pugach, and Richardson (2005) suggested that qualitative research is a means of understanding the essential nature of a particular phenomenon within a specific context. These authors described methods of ensuring credibility and trustworthiness and offered quality indicators for qualitative research relating to data collection and analysis, in addition to criteria for quality interviews. Techniques used to meet criteria quality indicators in the current study included (a) triangulation, including multiple sources of data (i.e., survey responses to both open-ended and closed-ended questions as well as interview data); (b) collaborative work in which multiple researchers were involved in designing the study and establishing agreement on analyses and interpretations; (c) searching for negative cases by examining data for information that did not fit emerging patterns; (d) peer debriefing, in which three professors of teacher education trained in qualitative methodology examined coding schemes; and (e) an external audit by another professor of teacher education to check for adherence to criteria for trustworthiness (Brantlinger et al., 2005).

Results

The response rate for the THS online survey was 53%, above the minimum rate of 50% suggested by Dillman et al. (2009).

Lindner, Murphy, and Briers (2001) suggested that procedures for handling nonresponse issues be implemented when less than an 85% response rate is achieved. Lindner et al. proposed that nonresponse errors can be handled by using days to respond as a regression variable. Days to respond is coded as a continuous variable and used as an independent variable in regression equations in which primary variables of interest are regressed on the variable days to respond. If the regression model does not yield statistically significant results, it can be assumed that nonrespondents do not differ from respondents.

In the existing data, the THS average total score was regressed on the days to respond variable. The regression showed that $\hat{a}=.004$, $F=1.59$, $P_{r>F}=.21$, indicating that there was no significant relationship between the days the surveys were received and the THS average total score. This finding suggests that nonrespondents would not have differed significantly from those who did respond.

Closed-Ended Questions

Means and standard deviations for the 98 participants' self-ratings on the 25 relationship skills are shown in Table 1. A mean of 3.0 was a neutral value. Levels

Using Torey Hayden's Teacher Stories

of agreement between having read the Hayden texts and development of specific relationship skills ranged from 4.11 to 4.53, with the average total score for the 25 competencies being 4.33. On the basis of general agreement among participant responses, it is clear that having read the Hayden texts was an experience not only offering insight into what it means to be a teacher but also illuminating the kinds of skills needed to support and develop positive relationships with students.

Analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were computed examining effects of age (categorized as <30 years, >30 years but <40 years, and >40 years), gender, and years of teaching experience (categorized as <5 years, >5 years but <10 years, and >10 years) on the average total score for the 25 competencies. *P*-value is a measure of the likelihood of obtaining a result if no difference exists between groups. For the present study, statistical significance for ANOVAs was defined as $p < .05$. Age, $p = .39$; gender, $p = .68$; and years of teaching experience, $p = .94$ were not statistically significant. Therefore we assume these variables did not influence participants' responses.

Open-Ended Questions

All 98 participants answered the four open-ended questions. Responses to Question 1 ("How strong an influence was reading Hayden compared to other influences, practices, and texts in your undergraduate studies in preparing you to teach students with disabilities?") were coded into the categories strong, neutral, and not strong. Of the 98 responses, 93 were coded strong, 3 were coded neutral, and 2 were coded not strong. Responses were coded strong when participants used the word strong or words or phrases tantamount in meaning: *powerful*, *wonderful*, *extremely valuable*. Some responses were dramatic: "Torey Hayden's books were truly eye opening, a mile above other books I read during my undergraduate and graduate experiences"; "Reading Torey Hayden's books was the reason I switched majors to become a special education teacher"; "I read every page of every book we discussed in class. I did not do this in any other class. They were a VERY strong influence."

Three responses were coded neutral when participants indicated other teacher education experiences were of similar value: "Hayden's books were inspiring but not a stronger influence than any other learning experience." Two responses were coded not strong when participants indicated that reading Hayden had not translated into learning effective teaching practices: "The books were interesting to read, but I don't think they helped me become a better teacher." Overall, 95% of participants indicated that reading Hayden's teacher stories was a strong influence in preparing them to teach.

Regarding Question 2 ("Did reading Hayden permanently change your attitudes and beliefs about students with disabilities? Why or why not?"), participants' comments were coded as yes, no, or no with a qualifier. Of the 98 responses, 70 were coded as yes, 7 were coded as no, and 21 were coded as no with a qualifier. Participants who answered yes offered a variety of reasons why reading Hayden had changed their attitudes and beliefs: "She showed that being human with students

does not undermine your authority, it strengthens relationships”; “She influenced my belief that everyone can change”; “Her books helped me realize we shouldn’t prejudge a student.”

Twenty-one participants answered no with a qualifier. These respondents felt that they already had an outlook similar to Hayden’s and that reading about her

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics for Participants’ Self-Rating of Relationship Skills

Relationship skill: “As a result of having read Torey Hayden’s books in my undergraduate teacher education, I am better able to”	Mean (SD)
Set and communicate boundaries.	4.07 (0.79)
Be open to approximations when a child is learning new behaviors.	4.14 (0.74)
Articulate worries I perceive the student as having.	4.17 (0.75)
Show my human side to the child.	4.20 (0.73)
Listen to children when they talk to me.	4.24 (0.69)
Be fair and impartial.	4.25 (0.70)
Build in opportunities for joy and enthusiasm in the classroom.	4.29 (0.63)
Feel genuine affection for the child.	4.30 (0.66)
Indulge in laughter and humor with children.	4.32 (0.70)
Encourage and teach optimism.	4.32 (0.72)
Discipline with fairness, honesty, and compassion.	4.34 (0.68)
Recognize power struggles and disengage from them.	4.34 (0.68)
Have realistic expectations for the child.	4.35 (0.66)
Not prejudge the child.	4.37 (0.70)
Respond positively to students in a way that shows genuine regard.	4.38 (0.57)
See things from the child’s perspective.	4.40 (0.59)
Build in opportunities for teacher–student communication.	4.40 (0.71)
Accept the student.	4.42 (0.68)
Understand that everyone can change.	4.44 (0.60)
Understand the importance of modeling appropriate behavior.	4.44 (0.63)
Avoid vindictive consequences.	4.47 (0.70)
Understand the importance of commitment to the child.	4.48 (0.64)
Promote a classroom climate where failure is not a major source of humiliation, distress, or punishment.	4.51 (0.63)
Understand the importance of being consistent to encourage trust to develop.	4.53 (0.54)
Understand the importance of spending focused time with the child.	4.54 (0.56)
Average score.	4.33 (0.49)

Note. $n=98$.

Using Torey Hayden's Teacher Stories

beliefs and attitudes reaffirmed or validated their own: "Hayden's books reaffirmed the belief system I already had regarding working with special needs populations." Seven participants answered no: "No, her stories did not change my attitudes and beliefs, but they did allow me to broaden my boundaries to experiment with strategies for individual students." Approximately 71% of participants acknowledged that reading Hayden's teacher stories had permanently changed their attitudes and beliefs about children with disabilities.

Regarding Question 3 ("Do you consider Hayden to be a good role model for special education teachers? Explain"), participants' comments were coded yes or no. Ninety-two of the 98 respondents responded yes and offered a variety of reasons why: "Yes, she provides a great example of how a real teacher survives in the world of special education. She makes mistakes, but she learns from them"; "Yes, I strive to be like her daily. She invested so much of her time and self into her students"; "Yes, her constant flexibility, trial and error determination, and nonjudgmental approaches still ring true!" A total of 94% of participants considered Hayden to be a good role model. Participants who did not regard Hayden as a good role model suggested that her stories did not reflect the realities of their own teaching experiences, and one indicated that Hayden should have been more responsive to the wishes of the administration in her school.

Regarding Question 4 ("What adjectives would you use to describe the qualities you see in yourself that remind you of Hayden?"), the most frequently used adjectives were *compassionate* ($n=42$), followed by *caring* ($n=35$) and *patient* ($n=35$). Additional adjectives included *funny*, *flexible*, *determined*, *loving*, *fair*, *honest*, *trustworthy*, and *hopeful*, among many others. A few of the responses included terms that could be interpreted in a negative way, such as *stubborn*, *tough*, and *frustrated*, but these terms were generally followed by a qualifier—"stubborn when she knew what was right" or "frustrated with school administration."

Overall, the structure of the experience of reading Hayden that emerged from a phenomenological analysis of the four open-ended questions was one of identification with Hayden's character, leading to ways of feeling about teaching and students and ways of knowing about teaching. Participants noted admiration for Hayden's character, referred to her as a role model, and aspired to be like her. They reported seeing the world of the classroom through the eyes of Hayden's character, putting themselves in Hayden's position, and calling on Hayden's character when dealing with their own real-world problems. They reported taking into themselves attributes of Hayden's character and felt them to be part of their teacher identities. Participants also reported rereading Hayden's teacher stories to renew positive feelings the stories engendered, to gain insight into their own lives as teachers, and to help with difficult teaching situations.

Regarding ways of feeling, participants reported gaining compassion ("I was able to get into the mind of the child and could feel their emotions. I feel I have more compassion"), hope ("She made me see that change can happen with all kids,

even those who seem untouchable”), inspiration (“She is a dedicated individual who inspires me every time I pick up her books”), and validation (“Her stories reaffirmed how committed and patient you have to be”). Other ways of feeling included shared experience (“She has been in the trenches and writes from experience”), comfort (“Yes, she provides hope and support for me as an educator when times get really tough or other teachers/administrators are discouraging”), and catharsis (“The books really touched me and made me want to be a teacher as caring as Torey Hayden”).

Regarding ways of knowing, participants reported gaining understanding from reading Hayden. This included gaining insight, bringing feelings and ideas to the surface, and clarifying and crystallizing ideas and feelings. Reading Hayden helped them understand themselves, their situations, and significant others in schools: “I became more self-aware about what I say or do and how I handle situations”; “I learned each child needs connections and a relationship with me to progress”; “Torey taught me to stop and really look at the individual for who they are, not their diagnosis.” Gathering didactic information was also a prominent theme: “Torey Hayden’s books gave me a toolbox full of techniques to use in my class.”

Interviews

Eleven semistructured interviews focused on participant perceptions regarding lasting effects of having read the Hayden texts during preservice teacher preparation. Each interviewee mentioned using specific traits and strategies that Hayden used in working with students in her classes: “I think it was to teach the whole child including the emotional, and you know in poverty, and you know a lot of her kids just didn’t have food, and so the first thing she would do is bring a snack or whatever.” They articulated their respect for her ability to foster positive relationships with her students: “She was the first person in my life, I kind of learned from her it’s all about the relationships with kids . . . if they love you or they like you, they’ll do anything for you, and you know, I think she understood that very well” and “Her books taught me a lot about patience and understanding, and that helped me become a better teacher.” Some suggested using Hayden’s responses and interactions with her students as a place to start with students in their own classes, and others attempted to emulate many, if not all, behaviors they read about in the books. A few interviewees mentioned that they reread Hayden books when they encounter difficult teaching situations, even after many years. Several interviewees also identified with administrative struggles that Hayden experienced, especially as they related to specific students in her classes. They empathized with Hayden’s lack of resources for her students and expressed admiration for her ingenuity in circumventing many of the roadblocks she encountered.

One of the more common themes from interview data was the idea that having read the Hayden texts served not only to prepare participants for the realities of the classroom but also to validate interviewees’ feelings toward students and the administrators in their schools:

Using Torey Hayden's Teacher Stories

Well, I think back to *One Child* and she was involved in the fight [with administrators] to get Sheila to stay in her classroom instead of going to . . . a mental hospital or an asylum type place. I would hope that I had the guts to do that and to fight that hard. I just think she was extremely courageous.

Hayden described feeling frustrated at times with the behaviors of certain students and discouraged by the circumstances that some of them faced on a daily basis. On occasion, Hayden was challenged by general educators or administrators in her school, and some interviewees described similar situations:

I know of one thing that really stuck out in my mind. I had a girl at one of the schools I was at, very, very similar characteristics to the girl in *Ghost Girl* and so I think from reading and listening and hearing about her experiences kind of guided me in how to speak and how I handled situations.

Participants also suggested that they learned caring and compassion as well as commitment to their students from Hayden and indicated that Hayden's refusal to give up on the child was inspirational. Another key theme was recognizing that before a relationship can be built with a student, the teacher must accept the student and recognize exactly where he or she is: "I think that's a big thought I got from her books. You can't assume they're at a certain place, you have to figure out how to work with them, how to get in touch with them."

Participants also stated a preference for Hayden's narratives over more theoretically based textbooks in teacher education, describing her accounts of events in her classrooms as more motivating, more interesting, and more memorable: "If you can't already tell, I put Torey Hayden's books like on a huge pedestal. I would say they are more beneficial than about anything else I read in college." Her stories were described as more true to life, providing real-world examples from which to learn classroom techniques and introducing a template for day-to-day interactions with students who are difficult and resistant. Participants identified Hayden's character as a symbolic model, an ego ideal.

Discussion

Results of this study support and extend the findings of Marlowe and Disney (2007) regarding long-term benefits of reading Hayden's teacher stories in preservice teacher education. Positive outcomes attributed to reading Hayden in the previous study were confirmed as lasting. Special education teachers who had read Hayden over a 20-year period, beginning in 1992, viewed her narratives as highly influential in preparing them to teach, in forming their teacher attitudes and identities, and in developing teaching competencies needed for using relationships as a means of change.

The highest ranked competency was "understand the importance of spending focused time with the child." Hayden's stories, especially *One Child*, stress the

importance of spending one-on-one time with the child each day, even in a group setting. Relationships require one-on-one time when both parties do not have to vie for the attention the other. Spending focused time shows commitment and willingness by Hayden's character to forge nurturing and encouraging relationships.

The second highest ranked competency was "understand the importance of being consistent to encourage trust to develop." Because of repeated encounters with dysfunctional adults and a dysfunctional environment, many children in Hayden's stories have serious problems with trust. As a result, Hayden's character is extremely consistent in her behavior. Until her students trust Hayden to behave in a functional way, her effectiveness in using relationships as a means of change is compromised.

The third highest ranked competency was "promote a classroom climate where failure is not a major source of humiliation, distress, or punishment." Not all of Hayden's students' efforts at change are successful. This does not mean they are invalid, wrong, or useless. Quite often students learn far more from their failures than from their successes, but this typically only happens in classrooms like Hayden's, where failure is not met with a negative response.

The fourth highest ranked competency was "understand the importance of commitment to the child (sticking with him or her through thick and thin)." The cornerstone of Hayden's approach is commitment, and it is her unequivocal commitment to her students that evokes positive change. Hayden believes that students in her classes must have this type of relationship with her if they are to make not only academic but also social and emotional progress. Students need to develop the self-esteem that comes from knowing others care about them and that others value them sufficiently to commit to them. They need to know that although significant others in their lives may have been unable to provide this type of commitment, it does not mean they are unworthy of it.

Identification with Hayden's character was a basic element in the phenomenological structure of the experience of reading Hayden. The depth of identification seemed related to the depth of ways of feeling and ways of knowing. This finding reinforces Marlowe and Maycock's (2000) finding that preservice teachers' identification with Hayden's character was the crucial factor in her influence. Griffin (1994), in discussing the use of narrative in teacher education, explains that the blend of biography and professional practice of an admired teacher may have tremendous power for the teacher candidate who is searching for his or her teacher identity.

Marlowe, Hoffman, and Patton (2014) recently surveyed undergraduates' perceptions of the use of Hayden's teacher stories. Preservice teachers suggested that reading Hayden's narratives allowed them to be "like a fly on the wall" in her classroom, providing opportunities for the entire class to envision the same event at the same time. Students expressed their belief that this opportunity was unique in that they could use their collective observations as a foundation for discussion and learning. In a more isolated practicum setting or in student teaching experi-

Using Torey Hayden's Teacher Stories

ences, preservice teachers typically experience students and their behaviors in a more individualized way. Although this type of setting certainly provides varied and in-depth learning opportunities, for students beginning special education preparation, using the Hayden texts allows them to share classroom experiences with the instructor and the class and, more important, to learn from each other. As a direct result of having read Hayden's narratives, most students reported feeling more confident and better prepared to begin their field experiences. Students also were not personally connected to the experiences and could explore various aspects without judging themselves, their own students, or cooperating teachers.

Limitations of the Study

Four limitations of the study are important to note. First, other variables inherent in an introductory course in emotional and behavioral disorders may have influenced participant responses. It is entirely possible that the course instructor's teaching methodology may have been a significant factor in the effects of having read Hayden. The instructor relied on student reflection when guiding their learning, necessitating a high level of student engagement in the class. Reading, writing about, and discussing the Hayden texts as a group may have facilitated the development of lasting impressions related to her teacher stories.

Second, it is also possible that the nature of a course in emotional and behavioral disorders lends itself more effectively to the use of narrative as a teaching tool. The content of the Hayden texts includes a focus on her relationships with her students as they relate to changing negative or inappropriate behaviors. Most of her students had been diagnosed with emotional or behavioral disorders, although some of her students were placed in her class as a result of some type of trauma in their lives. The emotional content of Hayden's narratives may create a more lasting impact on students than narratives about students with other types of disabilities.

Third, as discussed in the section on trustworthiness, every attempt was made to limit researcher bias, but this is always a danger in this type of study. The very fact of having taught the course in which the Hayden narratives were used as texts makes bias a potential problem for the second author. However, stringent adherence to the previously discussed methods for achieving trustworthiness minimizes researcher bias.

Fourth, in the present administration of the THS, names and addresses for potential participants ($N=186$) were supplied by the university alumni office. Researchers had no means of determining whether e-mail addresses used by the alumni office were accurate or currently in use, and although follow-up e-mails were sent on three separate occasions, there is no way of knowing if they were received by potential participants, thereby possibly limiting the participant pool. Of course, the possibility exists that some potential participants did receive the invitation e-mails but chose not to respond.

Conclusions and Future Prospects

Although empirical research on using teacher narrative in preservice teacher education is somewhat limited, previous studies by Marlowe and colleagues clearly suggest that the use of Hayden's stories as a teaching tool is beneficial for preservice teachers in the short term (Marlowe & Maycock, 2000, 2001; Marlowe et al., 1997), and the findings of this study replicate Marlowe and Disney's (2007) finding that the benefits derived from reading the stories are retained over time. Several participants in the present study reported that they not only retained their Hayden books after graduation but have continued to reread them for additional insight into relationships they shared with their own students.

Hayden's narratives are a medium for teaching relationship skills, an area of teacher education often overlooked but with rich potential for improving student learning and behavior (Powell & Kusuma-Powell, 2013). Hayden (1980) makes caring relationships the cornerstone of her approach to teaching:

I had always been a maverick among my colleagues. I belonged to the better-to-have-loved-and-lost school which was not a popular notion in education. The courses, the professionals, all preached against getting involved. Well, I could not do that, I could not teach effectively without getting involved, and in my heart, because I did belong to the love-and-lost school, when the end came, I could leave. It always hurt, and the more I loved a child, the more it hurt. But when the time came that we had to part or I had to honestly give up on the child because I could do no more, I could go. I could do it because I took with me, every time, the priceless memories of what we had, believing that there is no more one can give another than good memories. (p. 204)

The findings of this study reflect the growing interest in teacher education in building theories from successful practice rather than just trying to put theory into practice. There is increased recognition in teacher education of the authority deriving from careful examination of real-life classroom events and the complexities of what it means to teach (Cook, Tankersley, & Harjusola-Webb, 2008). There are also indications of a renewed respect for the importance of practice expertise in building a knowledge base of teaching (Cook & Cook, 2013). Without turning to the work of reflective practitioners like Hayden and their grounded knowledge, our understandings of what it means to teach remain somewhat disconnected from the real world.

Data from this study are another step in the validation process for the use of Hayden's teacher stories and other teacher narratives as evidence-based practice in teacher education. In the meantime, our study suggests the use of Hayden's stories as practice-based evidence. The collection of both empirical and qualitative data gathered from practicing teachers documenting positive and long-lasting effects of using Hayden's narratives in teacher education classrooms provides strong evidence of the merits of such practice. Furthermore, our results clearly demonstrate benefits for preservice teacher candidates during teacher preparation, and these

Using Torey Hayden's Teacher Stories

benefits extend well into their teaching practice. Participant comments reflecting the importance of positive relationships between teachers and students should prompt discussion among researchers and policy makers regarding the place of relationship skills in teacher education.

Future research should examine the effects of Hayden's texts relative to other instructors, courses, and disciplines before the use of Hayden's teacher stories or other teacher narratives can be identified as evidence-based practice. Qualitative study of the course instructor's teaching practices and the specific nature of his use of narrative would shed additional light on the association between teaching methods and the benefits of having read the Hayden texts in the course.

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Appendix: **Interview Questions**

1. Tell me about your classroom [or job if the interviewee is working with children but not in a classroom].
2. What do you get the most satisfaction from when working with children with disabilities?
3. What do you find the least rewarding about working with children with disabilities?
4. Describe Torey Hayden from her books that you have read. What kind of teacher was she?
5. What were Torey's strengths as a teacher? Weaknesses?
6. Do you think that Torey's relationships with her students were realistic? Why or why not?
7. Did Torey do anything that you wouldn't have done? Please explain.
8. Could Torey have been a better teacher? How?
9. Has reading Torey Hayden influenced your ideas of what it is to be a teacher? How?
10. Do you think you are like Torey after becoming a teacher or other educational professional?
11. What do you think Torey's philosophy of teaching was? Do you agree with her philosophy?

Hoffman, Marlowe, Scharf, Disney, Macer, Poling, & Queen

of teaching? Why or why not?

12. Did you feel differently about being a special educator [or working with children with disabilities] when you finished reading Torey's books than when you first started reading them? Please explain.

13. How has the experience of reading Torey Hayden been more or less beneficial than other teacher education reading experiences [such as reading textbooks]?

14. How important was it to you to hear teacher stories about their classroom experiences from faculty or to read about them in books like Torey Hayden's?

15. Would you be willing to participate in a classroom observation this fall if your school corporation will permit it?

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Learning to Teach Mindfully: Examining the Self in the Context of Multicultural Education

By Tom Griggs & Deborah Tidwell

This article tells the story of a self-study partnership between the authors, Tom and Deb, two teacher educators from different institutions. This partnership began with discussions about shared interests and shared dilemmas in teaching multicultural education content at our respective universities. Over a 2-year period of time, we began to look closely at Tom's experiences integrating mindfulness (as defined by Thich Nhat Hanh, 1991) into his instruction, which resulted in self-study research asking the question, How has mindfulness affected my teaching graduate multicultural education courses at my institution?

In the literature of self-study in teacher education, we find few works exploring mindfulness (Griggs & Tidwell, 2012). However, self-study research has examined issues of noticing and caring that remind us of mindfulness as an approach to teacher education. In one example, Kelchtermans and Hamilton (2004) argued the value of emotional understanding in effective teaching and suggested that caring about and noticing the lives and reactions of others is critical to creating an effective learning environment.

In the interconnection of multicultural education and issues of race, Schulte (2004, 2009) argued that teacher educators cannot effectively address preparing

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Learning to Teach Mindfully

new teachers for a diverse classroom without examining their own issues of White privilege, especially when teacher preparation has a presence that is overwhelmingly White (Sleeter, 2001). Such reflective practice requires teacher educators to be aware of their life experiences that have influenced how they perceive and know about the world and to step beyond that context to appreciate and understand the views and world knowledge of others.

For us, mindfulness, as described by Nhat Hanh (1991), is about compassion, empathy, and deep listening. It provides an approach to thinking about one's teaching and to addressing one's teaching actions in the field on a moment-by-moment, breath-by-breath basis. It is a phenomenon that is interwoven into all that we do as teachers.

Our self-study research on Tom's practice grew out of a series of events that were both professional and personal. He had become familiar with mindfulness partly because of challenges he was facing in his own personal life. Ultimately, this led to incorporating mindfulness into his professional work, in both intentional and serendipitous ways. Deb came to study Nhat Hanh's (1991) notion of mindfulness through her self-study work in collaboration with Tom (Griggs & Tidwell, 2012); she was intrigued by Tom's philosophical discussions of being mindful in his thinking about his teaching. What Deb noticed was that the depth of Tom's reflections about his teaching in this context was unusual. She felt that Tom's reflections demonstrated, in a fine-grained and detailed way, a kind of self-awareness and an attention to his students' efforts to make course content meaningful and to express their understandings. She saw Tom's reflections as permeating every aspect of his thinking process about his teaching.

The mindfulness meditation that Tom has been practicing for more than a decade is rooted in Buddhist spiritual philosophy. Smith and Novak (2003) stated that, in Buddhism, the keys to leading an ethical life are summarized well in what is called the Eightfold Path. The path comprises eight aspects: right views, right intent, right speech, right conduct, right livelihood, right effort, right mindfulness, and right concentration. In this work, Smith and Novak also explained the appropriate contextual definition of each of these concepts and the relationships among them. Particularly pertinent to the present discussion, however, is the way Smith and Novak described right mindfulness and right concentration as being related through meditation, shaping how we "become what we think" (p. 47).

Buddhism proposes that the end result of finding a balance between focused and detached presence is mindfulness, and this balanced approach to being present in the moment leads to liberation and enlightenment. Mindfulness, then, is the capacity to be both present in the moment and aware of the larger context in which the present moment is taking place; it is the ability to quiet the mind, displace oneself as the center of interaction, and recognize instead the centrality of a harmonious quality in one's interaction with others and with one's environment. Mindfulness is also about developing awareness of the interbeing (Nhat Hanh, 1998) of all things:

the interrelationships—even the interdependence—between oneself and the other, and oneself and one’s environment, right down to the molecular level.

To best make sense of the voices within this article, we have written about our experiences and understandings of our joint self-study work by writing in first person within each of our own contexts. We begin with Tom’s discussion of the development of mindfulness in his life, which provides the rich context for this study, and follow with Deb’s discussion of her role as the critical friend and other voice in this story. As a self-study of practice, Tom’s voice is reflected in first person singular throughout the discussion of the methodology, data, and discussion of the meaning of those data within the context of his teaching practice.

Tom’s Story: Developing a Sense of Mindfulness

About 12 years ago, I went through a divorce that led me to look deeply into what I might do differently in my life in ways that would transform the suffering inherent in this personal and family crisis into more positive experiences. For me, this meant that I needed to learn something important from the experience of my divorce to guide my life in the future, which would transform my view of what had happened (and how I had responded to it), and which would also benefit all who had been touched by it.

At the time, I had the opportunity to attend a 4-day spiritual retreat not far from my home with Thich Nhat Hanh, a world-renowned Buddhist spiritual leader, scholar, and teacher from Vietnam. This was not long after he had published his book *Anger: Wisdom for Cooling the Flames*.

The timing was perfect. As I stated, I was feeling in need of personal guidance. Thay (meaning “*Teacher*,” as his students call Thich Nhat Hanh) was only 40 miles away from my home, and I went willingly and relatively open-heartedly to the 4-day retreat. This experience led me to become a regular meditator (in the style of my teacher’s mindfulness practice of engaged Buddhism) to help establish a sangha (a meditation community) in my town, to read many more of Nhat Hanh’s books and writings, and gradually to transform my outlook on my life and the world. This has occurred in both profound and subtle ways, many of which I was barely aware of prior to undertaking this self-study. Deb commented on an early draft of a related manuscript (Griggs & Tidwell, 2012) that my mindfulness practice pervaded my work. Mindfulness has played an important role in the way I conduct self-study research, through which I have realized that it has come to form much of the basis for my teaching. In practicing mindfulness, I have enriched my reflective practice in teacher education “through the incorporation of non-Western notions of reflection” (Tremmel, 1993, p. 434). The purpose of this article is to examine some of the ways in which this seems to have occurred.

In working at becoming more mindful in my everyday life, I have come to recognize that mindfulness is not something that is necessarily easy to practice, nor

Learning to Teach Mindfully

is it something you can readily turn on and off intentionally at all times. It requires both focus and ease; mindfulness is a way of looking at, experiencing, and relating to the world. In some ways, it forms the lenses through which I see and perhaps the gloves with which I handle the day-to-day situations I encounter. Yet, in other ways, it comprises attitude, personality, stance, and disposition.

I found the practice of mindfulness transformed my thinking in my personal life, in the ways in which I conducted my daily affairs, but I had not consciously attempted to implement mindfulness in my teaching practice nor to examine more closely how I might be engaging in mindfulness in my teaching. Central to my understanding of the value of cultivating mindfulness is that it can help one to be more conscious and aware of oneself and one's surroundings on a more continuous basis, partly in the service of being the kind of person one aspires to be, and partly to operate with compassion and empathy more profoundly and more consistently.

For purposes of the present discussion, my definition of mindfulness is shaped by two related conceptions. The first conception is conveyed across Thich Nhat Hanh's vast body of work as reflected in Ellsberg (2001); it can be broadly defined as being present in the here and now, or as being conscious of oneself and finding peace, happiness, and calm in one's surroundings, including social environments and interactions. Mindfulness slows me down (in a constructive way), promotes self-reflection about how to respond to the situations and people with which I am in contact as I live my life, and causes me to act more consistently with understanding and compassion and in ways that reduce conflict.

Another closely related conception of mindfulness has to do with being a mindful teacher. The Mindfulness in Education Network (2014) defined mindfulness as "the energy and power of awareness and attention, present as a potential in all human beings" (para. 3). MacDonald and Shirley's (2009) definition of mindfulness, while largely rooted in Thich Nhat Hanh's particular form and practice of engaged Buddhism, is also part of the teacher education literature; these authors defined mindful teaching as that "which is integrative, reflective, and deep," as contrasted to "*alienated* teaching—which is coercive, privatized, and resented" (p. 29). Furthermore, they assert that, when teachers work mindfully, "they struggle to attain congruence, integrity, and efficacy in their practice" (p. 4).

My understanding of mindfulness in my personal life had grown over time and had become a natural part of my daily thinking, a kind of lens through which I view the events of my day. But for Deb, this notion of mindfulness in teaching was new. As I began discussing with her how I approach teaching my multicultural education classes, the realization came to both of us that for much more meaningful discussion to occur, especially in her role as my critical friend, Deb needed to become more familiar with my conception of mindfulness as a way of thinking about thinking.

Deb's Story: On Becoming a Truly Critical Friend

I have been involved in self-study research for more than 15 years, and in that time I have been a critical friend to several research colleagues as they have studied their practice. In each of these experiences, my role was to partner in the discussion of research data, of findings and their meanings, and of meanings derived from engagement and processes during the study. Throughout, my effort has focused on the familiar teaching practices, administrative dynamics, and experiences shared across contexts in higher education. But to be in the role of a critical friend in Tom's study required more than my familiarity with self-study research or with higher education practices and dynamics. When I initially talked with him about his work in multicultural education, we found that we had much in common related to our interests as well as similar dilemmas in our teaching about multicultural education to our predominantly middle-class, White, female populations of students.

As Tom began explaining his use of mindfulness and how his meditation practice had been transformative for his personal life, I found the conversation intriguing, and I saw connections between his thoughts and the self-study research that seemed similar in nature. For example, Kroll (2004) discussed her work with college students and the notion of caring and respectful engagement with students of color; Coia and Taylor's (2004) work in feminist pedagogy examined the caring relationship and shared authority found in teaching; and Eldridge and Bennett (2004) described characteristics of a caring learning community. As I listened to Tom speak of mindfulness in his work, I also connected his thoughtfulness of practice to Trumbull and Fluet's (2010) notion of pedagogical thoughtfulness. During these initial discussions of his practice, I felt my experiences with self-study had prepared me well to serve as critical friend, yet I found this role of critical friend less clear when examining teaching practice grounded in mindfulness.

As we began discussing more deeply his self-study in mindfulness within his teaching, I was not clear what Tom meant by being present in his teaching. As he discussed the complexity of examining compassion as part of the dynamics within his online course, I struggled to understand the significance of what he framed as important to his teaching. The notion of compassion as reflected in self-study research (e.g., Good & Pereira, 2004; Hamilton, 2008; Kessler, 2006) often referred to compassion as an affect of teaching that influences decisions (and heightens the emotional responses to events) or defined compassion as a disposition of teaching. But Tom's discussion of compassion had greater depth and complexity of meaning, involving not just self-reflection, but possibly something more spiritual in nature, perhaps akin to the Buddhist terminology to which he would occasionally allude and that is described in this article.

It was at this point that I realized my lack of knowledge of what Tom conceptualized as mindfulness was affecting my ability to be useful as a critical friend. I

Learning to Teach Mindfully

needed to become an informed participant to become an effective critical friend. To this end, I began by reading *Peace Is Every Step: The Path of Mindfulness in Everyday Life* (Nhat Hanh, 1991). In addition to this reading, I was able to better connect with the text through my continued discussions with Tom about his teaching, the language of his teaching, and the choices he made in his practice. It was through this tutorial process that I was able to view Tom's teaching practice through the lens of mindfulness and to grasp the significance of the key issues he raised in his self-study of practice.

The Context of the Study

This study is a retrospective, self-reflexive analysis of the dynamics of my own teaching of an online section of a graduate course in multicultural education in a school of teacher education in a university in the western United States. The students in the graduate courses that are the focus of this study are mostly in-service teachers who are female, White, and middle class, with generally minimal diverse life experiences, in their own education or otherwise. Many of them come from communities that are fairly isolated and often relatively devoid of recognizably diverse cultures, people of color, diverse ways of knowing, and/or diverse languages. Even isolated American communities like these, however, are changing slowly over time. Yet this lack of diversity experience on the part of many of my students in the earlier years of their lives remains an important characteristic of the dynamics of my multicultural education courses.

One tension that emerges in developing an online course is the lack of knowledge about the identities of the students who will enroll in the course. Because this is an online course available to students across the country, their identities are largely unknown to me. Based on my knowledge of the demographic composition of the national and regional teacher corps, I assume that my student enrollment will largely mirror this population, including the fact that 90% or more of my students will be female and from White, middle-class backgrounds. For the most part, this assumption has been correct. Yet a rich diversity exists among my students in terms of their understandings and conceptions of the social worlds within which they live. I use this more subtle yet complex diversity as we begin addressing larger concepts in multicultural education.

The course itself is a survey foundations course about the field of multicultural education. There are no prerequisites related to the course content anywhere else in our graduate programs, so students with a wide diversity of specialized interests (e.g., reading, special education, or elementary education) are taking it, with almost all of them doing so as a program requirement rather than as an elective. Because a majority of the students enrolling in this course typically have little to no experience with multicultural education, my fundamental purpose in teaching this course is to provide exposure to the framework of multicultural education and

to open students' eyes and awaken their curiosities about the role of diversity (of all kinds) in education, in teaching, and in learning.

Because this course is a required one and contains unfamiliar content for most of the students who take it, the trajectory of the course starts with teachers' stories and personal practical knowledge (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988) of working in and for diversity. From there, it jumps to a discussion of the rationale for learning about multiculturalism from a societal perspective (including political, economic, sociological, and anthropological dimensions), eventually circling back to deeper reflection on a person's own attitudes about issues of race, class, gender, and ability, and finally to discussions of the implications for teaching practice in and for diversity.

As a White, male educator myself, working with this population of students, I see self-study as a means to better understand the dynamics of my teaching within this context. Specifically, I am concerned with how mindfulness influences the way I discuss diversity with my graduate students so that it will be meaningful to them, enable them to engage with the complex issues involved in teaching in diverse environments, and impact their understanding of its significance in their professional lives.

Teacher educators face many dilemmas (Berry, 2007) and tensions (Berry, 2007; Newman, 1998) associated with teaching about teaching and in preparing their students to teach in diverse settings (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Howard, 2006). These tensions are heightened by the social and sociopolitical contexts (Nieto & Bode, 2012) within which teacher preparation for diversity occurs. My teaching and self-study research in this context have been shaped by my reflections on two main sources: (a) my readings and practice in mindfulness (Ellsberg, 2001; Nhat Hanh, 1991) and (b) Howard's (2006) stages of White identity development and my participation in a seminar at his REACH Center in 2000, in Seattle, Washington.

When I am teaching this course, I keep in mind Howard's (2006) three stages of White identity development, which he calls *fundamentalist*, *integrationist*, and *transformationist*; in a sense, when I assess my individual students' knowledge of teaching in diversity, I am tracking evidence of these stages of development in them. A fundamentalist White orientation focuses on the literal aspects of race and Whiteness, with an assumption of supremacy in the idea of Whiteness. Fundamentalist thinking is "single-dimensional understanding of truth," which "in its less intentional and more unconscious form . . . may be characterized by denial and/or ignorance of Whiteness and White supremacy" (p. 103). Howard sees this denial or ignorance as a marker of this fundamentalist orientation, with a strong commitment to defending the rightness of what they believe, often manifesting as "colorblindness" (p. 105) and a denial of differences across groups of people. Fundamentalist Whites can be seen as either "overtly or covertly racist" (p. 105) when they interact in cross-cultural contexts.

Howard (2006) described integrationists as having an increased awareness of

Learning to Teach Mindfully

diverse approaches to truth, acknowledging diverse approaches to what is seen as the truth. Integrationists see White dominance as an historical truth but not necessarily as currently relevant and have little recognition of their own racism in their day-to-day living. Howard described integrationists as underestimating “the change that will be necessary to achieve real equity and social justice” (p. 107).

To be a transformationist, Howard (2006) argued, an individual needs to recognize the complexity of constructing truth through different lenses, by “actively seeking to understand diverse points of view” (p. 110). This dynamic process shifts across differing cultural and social contexts. A transformationist is aware of the multiplicity of perspectives about what is true and finds the individual view as one among many possibilities. To accomplish such awareness for myself requires that I practice what Buddhism calls *karuna*, which translates roughly as “compassion” (Smith & Novak, 2003). Nhat Hanh (1998) defined compassion in this context as “the intention and capacity to relieve and transform suffering and lighten sorrows” (p. 172). Such a definition closely parallels one conception I have of my work as a multicultural educator (albeit in this context, transforming suffering and lightening sorrows caused by prejudice, stereotyping, and discrimination based on human diversity and difference).

Howard (2006) suggested that, to be an effective multicultural educator, the goal is to become a transformationist. I pursue this goal with the students in my multicultural education courses, continuing their development and my own, along the lines explained in Howard’s typology. As a result of my own earlier research (Griggs, 1996), I had become aware of how my Whiteness was both figuratively and literally *in my face*, in that I was forced to confront the idea that my Whiteness was an issue in my teaching. The findings in this earlier study of my first-year experience teaching high school, where my students were approximately 95% of Mexican origin, closely parallel Howard’s (1999) description of how he came to know about diversity from a White life experience. I associate my own development, this coming to know, with Howard’s (2006) stages of White identity development. Thus Howard’s theorizing about diversity and education has become an additional lens through which to examine my teacher education practice.

The complementary dynamics of studying how I practice empathy and compassion at the same time as I teach about Howard’s (2006) typology of White identity provide the context for examining how mindfulness is realized in my practice. These frameworks have also shaped my thinking about the development of course materials and the design of the course (as mentioned earlier), as well as my approaches to critical conversations with my students on diversity and Whiteness.

Data Sources

The data for this self-study arose from two main sources: (a) the content and organization of the course materials (the syllabus and discussion board questions)

developed for this online course and (b) my language (as course instructor) in response to students' postings as they answered questions that I had composed and published in an online discussion board. Discussion board data were transcriptions as documented online, and my responses online were labeled Dr. G. Although student language was not analyzed for the purposes of this study, the context of my responses as the instructor were embedded within the students' comments and their meaning. Thus the analysis of my responses took into consideration the context of the students' comments and queries.

Method of Analysis

To understand the context for the data analysis of my responses on the discussion board, it is important to understand the process by which I responded to students. I conducted the initial data analysis by focusing on the global meaning of my responses in the discussion board postings, with particular attention to language connecting practice to issues related to teaching in multicultural contexts. Students responded online to prompts I provided based on weekly reading assignments. I then closely read these responses. I formulated my responses to them by mindfully attending to evidence of White identity development as I saw it reflected in the White students' postings.

My instructional goal was to encourage these students to reflect deeply on their own attitudes about issues of race, diversity, and multiculturalism. One way I set about this was to present alternative framings of their discussions of these issues. The process I used to respond involved reading through students' responses, pondering how students were making sense of the open-ended questions I was posing, and evaluating their responses through the lens of Howard's (2006) stages of White identity formation. At the same time, I acknowledged the value and content of the student's response.

In this study, I have addressed trustworthiness (Hamilton & Pinnegar, 2000) by working with Deb to analyze the data for global themes. In our analysis, we are borrowing from narrative inquiry analysis of stories (Chiu-Ching & Chan, 2009; LaBoskey & Cline, 2000) in conjunction with a constant comparative approach (Dye, Schatz, Rosenberg, & Coleman, 2000). We read through the language of my responses and labeled phrases and particular vocabulary that reflected specific tenets of mindfulness (specifically focusing on language that reflected compassion, language that reflected empathy, and language that reflected deep listening).

Distinguishing language as compassion versus empathy versus deep listening depended on the context of the language use. For purposes of the present study, we labeled language as compassion if it connected (directly or indirectly) students' language and experiences with the content or meaning of the readings. Compassion provided students with the opportunity to connect their voices to the meaning embedded in the course content. Empathy was reflected in the language when I

Learning to Teach Mindfully

connected my own experiences to the students' comments. Deep listening was reflected in comments in which I demonstrated an understanding of the students' context by providing a connection between the course content and the students' own context within and outside the course.

I also looked more closely at my written responses to students' postings to see how I used Howard's (2006) model of White identity transformation to monitor my students' and my progress in facilitating their development as multicultural educators. For this reason, I chose the language within my responses to students' answers to discussion questions as one source of evidence of—and as a tool for—developing multicultural awareness. I examined the language I used in my responses to student postings during the early, middle, and late stages of the course. I closely analyzed my choice of language as a manifestation of teaching mindfully. For example, I looked for evidence demonstrating that I perceived that they (a) were resistant to course concepts; (b) recognized that they, as teachers, have a role to play in establishing a more welcoming environment for their diverse students; and (c) were willing to accept responsibility for playing this role. I analyzed my responses for key phrases that reflected the attributes of Howard's stages of White identity development as well as for evidence that I used the key concepts of mindfulness (compassion, empathy, and deep listening) to attend to my students' progress.

I also used key principles of mindfulness and multicultural awareness development to analyze the content and organization of my course materials. I examined the syllabus and discussion questions I posted online for the course. I focused specifically on how I organized my teaching and developed the timeline for learning and thinking about practice within the course materials.

Results

It is perhaps not coincidental that Howard's (2006) description of what it will take for White educators to navigate the "river of change" (p. 69) includes empathy. He identified it as an essential quality for teachers to cultivate to create a successful school system in a society as diverse as ours. His definition of empathy could, in many ways, double as a definition of compassion as conceived in Nhat Hanh's (2003) discussion of mindfulness; there are definitely similarities and complementarity between the two. Howard (2006) stated that empathy allows a person the "opportunity to view social reality from different perspectives" (p. 76). Similarly, Nhat Hanh (2003) wrote, "As long as we allow hatred to grow in us, we continue to make ourselves and others suffer. . . . [We] have to transform our hatred and misunderstanding into compassion" (p. 184).

The two preceding quotations, from two different fields (education and spirituality), unify the concepts of compassion and empathy. In the process, they unify the domains of mindfulness and multicultural education themselves. My recognition of this link closes the circle of thought and intention for me as a teacher educator

working mindfully to promote awareness of the demands diversity makes on teachers. This, for me, is perhaps the most significant outcome of this study.

Three themes emerged from the analysis of my teaching data. The first of these is the way I used language in my discussions to foster mindfulness to effect student understanding of course content and concepts, and closely related to this, the way I used written language—especially the formulation of questions, choice of words, phrasing, and even choices about when to use active and passive voice—to establish the affective environment I view as essential to my students' learning in an online course. The second theme highlights the way in which mindfulness was reflected in the data through my instructional planning. The third theme evolved from my realization of the distinction between teaching in and teaching for diversity.

Using Language to Foster Mindfulness

In retrospect, what is noticeable about my responses to my students' postings is the time and intent I used to develop my responses; this thoughtfulness characterized the process by which I engaged in writing online as an important manifestation of mindfulness. Although it was not visible in the actual responses themselves, the reflection on the process brought to life the nature of mindfulness I used to develop my comments. Through my discussions with my critical friend, Deb, the mindfulness embedded within my practice emerged.

Mindfulness took place both during and between the weekly online interactions I had with my students. My weekly prompts encouraged their self-reflection with the intention of inviting them to consider—rather than insisting on—my own White transformationist perspective. Because a central goal of this teaching was to help my students understand the dynamics of White identity orientation, it seemed necessary to carefully craft my responses so that I did not evoke their defensiveness or resistance. My data suggest that I was able to devise ways to circumvent some of the limitations of electronic communication (e.g., absence of immediacy of response, body language) by attending mindfully to how I used language.

This focus on the careful crafting of my electronic postings was intended to create a safe online learning environment. What emerged were specific ways that I phrased my responses, provided vocabulary, and suggested alternative framings for dilemmas students were likely to face in diverse teaching contexts. For example, during the earliest part of the semester, one of the first prompts to students is as follows:

Dr. G: What resistances/defensiveness does this reading assignment raise in you? What "huge nods" of agreement? Why? How do you think you might most productively handle these reactions? (Week 4, fall semester)

As described earlier, Howard's (2006) typology of White identity orientations suggests that it is essential to find ways to evaluate and make judgments about certain actions by educators and/or circumstances within schools as clearly discriminatory in their impact on diverse students. In my exchanges with students, I routinely turned

Learning to Teach Mindfully

my focus away from the actors in a discriminatory situation and toward the effects of the actions taken. In so doing, I was able to reduce my students' discomfort with the whole business of labeling people or events as "racist" or "racism," which in turn enabled even greater discussion of such potentially threatening or forbidden topics. The following excerpt from the discussion board provides an example of such mindful intention in my responses, when my students hesitated to identify these apparently discriminatory behaviors:

Dr. G: If I'm understanding you correctly here, I agree it's hard to label some of the things you see happening in schools and in the larger society in which we live as "racism" and "discrimination." I think this is largely because one result of the civil rights movement—although arguably unintended—is that talking about racism and discrimination has become largely taboo, because there is some tacit agreement among most people that these are bad things. And, of course, very few folks want to be seen as bad or as doing the wrong thing, even if these people are ethnocentric in the extreme, do believe in racial superiority of one group over another, and/or judge people and treat them differently because of the color of their skin (or their gender, or their socioeconomic status). This is almost as true for perpetrators as it is for victims of discrimination and racism.

The way I have dealt with this is to label processes/behaviors that are racist or discriminatory in their effects as such, rather than focus on the perpetrators of the behaviors, or the motives for the processes. (Week 4, fall semester)

In attending to the affective delicacy in such interactions, I mindfully modeled and explained how I myself had attempted to move away from an integrationist toward a transformationist White identity orientation. This was realized in two ways: (a) I assumed a self-revelatory stance in relating course concepts to my own teaching experience and, in the process, modeled ways that my students might do the same for themselves; and (b) I reflected deeply about how my choice of words and use of language in general might impact my students. My language choices and phrasing of comments were instrumental both in representing a transformationist view and in practicing mindfulness in my teaching. Therefore my responses reflected the underlying belief characteristics of transformationist White identity that have to do with acceptance of and willingness to engage across differences.

The following discussion board question provided an opening for students to begin to see the connections among their own perspectives about diversity, their relationships with students from diverse backgrounds, and their teaching practice:

Dr. G: What do you see as the relationships between and among the four concepts that constitute the theme for this week's reading ("transformationist" pedagogy, culture, identity, and learning)? Why might it be important to consider the four together/simultaneously, for you as a teacher?

Although this question does not explicitly address it, empathy is embedded within White transformationist pedagogy, and through considering the relationships be-

tween a person's own and others' culture, identity, and learning, I seek to promote the development of empathy in my students.

This care with my language was not limited to my online commentary. As we examined my course syllabus in conjunction with the language choices across my online teaching, Deb suggested that my use of language in my communiqués embedded an agenda on my part, focusing my students' attentions toward a transformationist view. This led to an intriguing discussion about purposeful teaching as agenda driven for content learning versus mindful instruction to embed a specific way of knowing into daily engagements. And it was through this rich debate that we came to realize the power of the lens through which we view our actions. As we continued to discuss and debate the role of intent in our teaching, we revisited the readings on mindfulness. As the critical friend, Deb was grappling with the whole notion of intent and what it means to be intentional. We more clearly understood my choice of language as reflecting my desire to model a transformationist approach. As an instructor engaged mindfully in my teaching, the language choices I make and the manner in which I engage also become critical tools for modeling and fostering deep self-reflection among my students.

Instructional Planning as a Reflection of Mindfulness

As our discussions of the course content and organization deepened, however, the issue of how the materials were developed became more prominent, and we began to analyze the sequence in which content was addressed. It was through these discussions that my use of mindfulness as I organized and planned my course became more evident. Initially, Deb examined the elements within my syllabus and also my discussion board questions, and this led to a discussion of why I chose the particular content I chose and why I organized the content in the way I did. What emerged were three interacting themes we termed key influences: concept load, student needs, and time.

By concept load, I am referring both to the complexity of the content information being addressed in the course readings and to the personal and professional challenges I believed that content was likely to present for my students. We saw concept load as profoundly influencing how I thought about my course work and how I structured the online course discussions, but it also connected directly to what I perceived would then become the students' needs in addressing the demands within the content. While concept load and students' needs might be seen as separate influences, in this context, they are in fact synergistic in nature as they interact with and influence one another. In this synergistic relationship, the mindfulness in my teaching promoted both compassion and deep listening. My thinking focused on my students and on the professional contexts in which they work. In this way, I provided access to both the content and the profound implications of that content for them as teachers.

During the data analysis, as we discussed course content choice in the syl-

Learning to Teach Mindfully

labus, Deb prompted me to deepen my own retrospection. Our discussions helped to make clear the importance I had placed on students' needs in relation to time: time to absorb the significance of key concepts in the course and time to consider the implications of these concepts for themselves as people and as professional educators. What we identified as needs reflected what I saw as the considerable demands on my students arising from the readings, especially in thinking about their roles as educators in fostering social change. I saw the potential for tensions and conflict for my students as they worked through the stages of White identity formation (Howard, 2006).

Teaching in Versus Teaching for Diversity

At the beginning of this study, we talked about diversity in terms of broad demographic categories. But as a result of my mindfulness practice within this multicultural education course, my definition of diversity grew to include a greater appreciation of the role of individual difference. As a result, I became aware that there is more human diversity in my teacher education classrooms than is sometimes readily visible; it became incumbent on me to model with my students the kind of respect for diversity that I was advocating for them to model with theirs. This awareness presented me with one of the most difficult dilemmas I have to negotiate in my teaching about multicultural education. I have come to conceptualize this dilemma as the need to mindfully teach both *in* and *for* diversity.

What we mean by this distinction is that it is one thing to teach for diversity (i.e., to promote appreciation of and respect for diversity, and how this can be manifested in teaching practice, for my students' edification) and quite another to function effectively as a teacher in diverse settings. Teaching for diversity is very much a question of advocating for diversity-friendly teaching environments. This advocacy can be accomplished relatively easily, if it is enough of a priority. Yet it is quite another to teach *in* diversity.

Teaching in diversity is realized when such diversity manifests, for example, in the form of a student who does not necessarily share my opinion that diversity educators are not overstating their cases, when it comes to ascribing large discrepancies in student achievement and success to environmental factors such as institutional racism, socioeconomic status, and prejudice and discrimination at the personal level. In a face-to-face instructional context, teaching in diversity also manifests when one of my students, who does not appear to be racially diverse to us, nonetheless self-identifies as being a member of a nondominant racial or ethnic group through the telling of his or her story during the course and through the comments he or she makes.

Given the difficulty in overcoming fundamental disagreement that diversity is an issue that deserves educators' attention, I am challenged to respect this ideological diversity as part of the more general human diversity context within which I teach. Teaching in diversity requires "walking the walk" in addition to "talking

the talk” (Olsen, 2010, p. 18), even when I may have a philosophical or ideological disagreement with our students about core issues in multicultural education.

Another result of this broadening of my understanding of diversity and how it affects schooling experiences is that I have gradually come to believe more in individual difference as a significant factor in academic achievement of students from diverse backgrounds, even if I do not agree that it is generally the main determinant of student achievement for such students as a group. As I have come to respect the ideological diversity and the individual difference with which I am presented in my graduate courses, I still seek to persuade my students of the significantly disproportionate influence of environmental and societal factors on diverse students’ success. I emphasize the importance of self-transformation and self-reflection about a person’s preconceptions as critical to becoming an effective educator, both in and for diversity. (For me, this is at the core of Howard’s 2006 stages of White development.)

Conclusions

In this self-study, I found that the preparation of my course and my teaching have benefited from mindfulness practice. I would assert that one such benefit is being able to more effectively create the kind of learning environment that is conducive to students’ success. As I have found repeatedly in my experiences as a multicultural educator of teachers, there is a decidedly visceral dimension to teaching and learning to teach in and for diversity. For me, mindfulness in my teaching practice has been a critical part of dealing with the affective dimensions of this work.

One way this has happened is that the environment for such teaching, which is often characterized by a certain tension or discomfort—and which Howard’s typology of White identity explains quite well—has been transformed into a calmer, more self-reflexive one that better supports learning about multicultural education and the many challenges it presents for educators. Based on this self-study, we would assert that this is accomplished by relieving some of the tensions and discomforts involved, by transforming the perceptions and attitudes of those who engage in mindful practice in their daily lives and by providing more inviting, more compassionate, and less stressful ways to approach the complex and challenging topics and concepts inherent to such study.

Through mindfulness meditation, I seek and find the means to achieve a kind of harmony, peace, and acceptance of the complexities found within formidable challenges to my own preconceived notions about any number of potentially difficult issues. Mindfulness meditation allows for a depth of personal exploration and self-reflection related to teaching in and for diversity that might not otherwise be possible. I have found a means to get to the bottom of my impulses, to understand better how I relate and am related to those impulses, and to give myself time to recognize that I have a choice about how best to respond to them.

Learning to Teach Mindfully

Although I certainly would not contend that it is impossible to be an effective multicultural educator without teaching mindfully, I have made a strong case for the beneficial effect of my mindfulness practice on my own teaching. I have also come to the conclusion that those teacher educators who engage in mindfulness in their professional work stand to benefit similarly.

As I discovered, it is surprisingly easy to start a mindfulness meditation practice. Though there are many books available that explain meditation, one book that gently and gracefully introduces the would-be practitioner to mindfulness meditation is Nhat Hanh's (1991) aforementioned *Peace Is Every Step*.

As researchers, we have found that our study reveals the power of theoretically grounding teaching practice in mindfulness (Nhat Hanh, 1991) and in intentional consideration of language as a tool to establish an appropriate affective space for learning, even in an online setting. In addition, grounding in conceptual frames such as Howard's (2006) White identity formation provides a means of addressing students' ways of knowing and development as these courses progress, as well as a set of guideposts to help pursue course objectives in preparing teachers to teach in diverse contexts.

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Learning to Teach Mindfully

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CAEP Advanced Standards and the Future of Graduate Programs: The False Sense of *Techne*

By Gretchen E. Schwarz

Every advance in technical rationality today is surpassed by a decline in common sense and a growing irrationality, the signs of which are everywhere. (Stivers, 2001, p. 201)

As top-down mandates multiply, close supervision from outside the education field increases, and the professionalism of educators shrinks, criticism of neoliberal effects on education in the United States and elsewhere has become more frequent in professional publications. Neoliberalism, put simply, is the political philosophy that privileges free market economics above all else and, in education, advocates high-stakes testing, prepackaged curricula, stringent measures of accountability for schools and educators, and the privatization of public schools. Business efficiency is the governing value, and it is measured in numbers. Neoliberalism among policy makers and politicians may explain a great deal of what passes as school reform at all levels today.

However, in teacher education, where the same growing constraints can be found, one finds very little resistance among teacher educators in the United States, especially as such mandates are now being applied, in detail, to graduate programs. Why? Are teacher educators, college professors, unconcerned about their curricula being decided by others and indifferent to their work being reduced to rubrics and

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CAEP Advanced Standards and the Future of Graduate Programs

regulations? This article offers another possible explanation for the passive acceptance of high-stakes testing, data-driven accountability measures, and the questionable approach to teaching and learning that characterize much of the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP), formerly the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), teacher education accreditation process in the United States.

Most recently, as of June 4, 2014, the CAEP Board of Directors has “approved and adopted” the Standards for Advanced Programs, which “mirror the same principles of rigor, evidence and outcomes focus of CAEP Standards” (for initial teacher certification) to *all* graduate programs, according to the CAEP Web site (Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation [CAEP], 2014b). Lack of objection to what is happening in teacher education, in particular in departments of curriculum and teaching, among the participants themselves may have much to do with a culture dominated by *techne*. Ideas about *techne* from French sociologist Jacques Ellul, as well as others, are used to establish the false sense of assurance CAEP offers, in particular through analysis of the Standards for Advanced Programs (CAEP, 2014b) and other CAEP documents.

The Advanced Standards apply to teachers “preparing for a second license at the graduate level in a field different from” their first; teachers seeking “a master’s degree in the field in which they teach”; “programs not tied to licensure,” such as programs in curriculum studies or educational foundations; and “programs for other school professionals,” such as counselors, administrators, and reading specialists. The CAEP Advanced Standards are, in fact, almost identical to those in place for undergraduate or initial certification programs; the chart CAEP offers places the Advanced Standards across from the initial Standards, and the Advanced Standards are simply somewhat shorter. Therefore previous critiques of CAEP or its former incarnation, NCATE, are worth revisiting, although these critiques remain rare in the professional literature.

Allington (2005), past president of the International Reading Association, discussed how NCATE undermined “our efforts to develop thoughtful, autonomous, and effective teachers” (p. 199). Taubman (2009) demonstrated that NCATE created an “audit culture,” in which “professional judgment and wisdom were being replaced by a measurable, defensible, and supposedly neutral process, in which educators and students themselves were reconstructed in terms of quantifiable outcomes” (p. 89). Johnson, Johnson, Farenga, and Ness (2005), in a thorough exposé of NCATE, criticized the lack of research supporting the accreditation system; the potent, costly public relations actions of NCATE in its branding efforts; the burgeoning bureaucracy; and what Allington in the preface called the “fatal flaw”—“the rationalizing of effective teacher preparation into little more than a series of measurable ‘standards’” (p. xvi). Most recently, Bullough (2014b) decried the “rise of neoliberalism, and the loss of teacher educator control of programmes and programme content, and in some respects, the undermining of educational

quality” (p. 474). CAEP (which in 2013 combined NCATE and NCATE’s former alternative, the Teacher Education Accreditation Council) has great reach, although not all colleges and universities submit to CAEP.

Given the high costs and tremendous amount of time now expended on CAEP, the problematic standards presented, and the newly explicit invasion of academia at the graduate level, one might expect more debate. Has neoliberalism won the day? Are teacher educators merely thoughtless materialists or too busy to study the Advanced Standards? Or are other forces at work?

Techne Rules!

Techne, a Greek term much discussed by the ancient Greek philosophers, generally means skills, the knowledge of how to do and make things through rational method. Clearly *techne* in and of itself is not bad; it enables societies to grow and people to survive. Likewise, some of the CAEP program has value. However, the philosophers thought there were other important kinds of knowledge, too, knowledge involving ideas about politics, aesthetics, and ethics, for example. In their examination of the digital university, McCluskey and Winter (2012) traced *techne* to Aristotle, who placed it at a lower status of knowledge: “The physical labor involved for farming or mining was often performed by slaves. The name given to these routine forms of doing was *techne*” (p. 63). A number of scholars have examined the problem of *techne* as the dominant form of knowing and being in contemporary life, including educator and media critic Postman (1992), who termed the problem *Technopoly*. Ellul (1964, p. xxv) explained *techne* in *The Technological Society* as *technique*, “the totality of methods rationally arrived at and having absolute efficiency . . . in every field of human activity.” His observations are especially relevant to the state of teacher education, and specifically graduate programs, which may or may not end in certification.

Ellul (1964) offered a history of *technique* and described how it played out in the economy, in the state, in medicine, and in education. Technology, of course, has long existed, but *technique* is not just machines or instruments themselves but rather a worldview in which *techne* rules and serves as the lens through which all of society is seen. Apparent rationality is the most obvious characteristic of *technique*, reflected in, according to Ellul, “systematization, division of labor, creation of standards, production norms and the like” (p. 79). *Technique* works through standardization, mechanization, bureaucracy, and depersonalization. Ellul stated the following about the domination of *technique*:

Technical civilization means that our civilization is constructed by technique (makes a part of civilization only what belongs to technique), for technique (in that everything in civilization must serve a technical end), and is exclusively technique (in that it excludes whatever is not technique or reduces it to technical form). (p. 128)

CAEP Advanced Standards and the Future of Graduate Programs

Technique can be seen at all levels of education today, but university educators, especially teacher educators, once perceived as independent thinkers, have largely failed to address the concern about evaluation processes fraught with *techne*. *Techne* or *technique* proves a powerful force as seen in CAEP.

CAEP as Technique

Few if any scholars would assert that accreditation and/or some meaningful and powerful form of self-study is not needed in colleges and schools of education in all areas and at all levels. Zeichner (2014), for example, has long been a proponent of reform in teacher education. The reluctance and lack of preparation of so many new teachers to teach in difficult, underserved school districts are clearly a problem, for instance. Numbers are not unimportant, including grades and test scores. Many programs still need to strengthen clinical experiences. CAEP also offers pragmatic ideas, such as following up graduates to get their feedback on programs. Conversely, the extent to which CAEP is subject to *techne* or *technique* is demonstrated in the characteristics of self-augmentation, autonomy, and totalitarianism, all of which Ellul (1964) addressed. In addition, and ironically, CAEP's claims to rationality end in "unreason," a result Ellul (1990) examined in *The Technological Bluff*.

Ellul (1964) declared that "*technique*, in its development, poses primarily technical problems which consequently can be resolved only by *technique*" (p. 92). Hope (1996), in his homage to Ellul, gave the example of faith in standardized testing as the primary measure of human achievement, noting that "instead of creating understanding about the limits of standardized testing, addressing critical thinking with technical values simply produces calls for new and improved standardized testing" (p. 38). Ellul (1964) added that *technique* is a "blind force" and that "it is only a form, but everything conforms to it" (p. 94). *Technique* grows itself, expanding rapidly. Indeed, CAEP seeks to augment its own reach by pursuing status as the *only* unified national teacher accreditation system and by taking over the accreditation of educators even outside the university in "districts or alternative organizations" as the definition of "provider" states.

Moreover, CAEP has augmented itself most recently by declaring the methods of approval for university graduate programs in education. In its Strategic Plan, CAEP (2015) stated that it "will build a network of agencies, organizations, institutions, and experts and work with these partners to create and implement a research agenda" and that it "will broaden awareness of quality education preparation providers (EPPs) [those who receive the CAEP seal of approval] and the value of accreditation . . . so that more providers will participate and more states and districts will rely on accreditation for program approval, licensing, and hiring." No new rationale has been added for the inclusion of all education graduate programs, including those "not tied to licensure."

Additionally, CAEP now assumes accreditation of the graduate programs of

school counselors, educational administrators, and reading specialists, as reported in the CAEP (2014b) Standards for Advanced Programs. Such programs may well need reform, but this seems quite a leap from teacher accreditation and is, of course, reflected in the organization's new name—Council for the Accreditation of *Educator* Preparation. The very notion, presented in the Standards for Advanced Programs, that graduate education should proceed under the auspices of CAEP is remarkable, especially given that the standards are the mostly undergraduate or initial licensure standards repeated. No academic, scholarly reason is offered besides “rigor.” No research showing the failures of graduate programs in curricula and teaching (“not tied to licensure”) is cited. CAEP leaders may well consider their motivation ideals of reform, but the organization seeks to augment itself with the support of its organizational members, such as the National Council of Teachers of English, among others. An operation as large and as well served by its public relations strategies as CAEP gains a momentum of its own.

CAEP, like *technique*, is also autonomous, accountable to no outside organizations or forces but its own members, which include subject matter organizations and teacher unions, among others. CAEP seeks partnerships with state and federal governments, increasing its power. University tradition, in which the faculty decide graduate program purposes, application procedures, requirements, and curricula, holds no sway. The traditional role of the university in designing and evaluating its own graduate programs, particularly those that lead students to roles in the university itself, is minimized. Autonomous technique, observed Ellul (1964), “has fashioned an omnivorous world which obeys its laws and which has renounced all tradition” (p. 14). CAEP (2015) promised in the Strategic Plan to be a “model learning organization” that is “responsive to the needs of the educator preparation and educator professions.” But how can that happen? What mechanisms are set out for CAEP self-critique? Who holds CAEP accountable? At the least, CAEP could pilot the Advanced Standards in volunteer institutions before declaring a wholesale mandate. The eternal question—who watches the watchmen?

Finally, in an increasingly complex and pluralistic world, CAEP is totalitarian, as defined in Merriam Webster's dictionary as “centralized control by an autocratic authority.” Ellul (1964) put it this way:

Technique cannot be otherwise than totalitarian. It can be truly efficient and scientific only if it absorbs an enormous number of phenomena and brings into play the maximum of data. . . . But the existence of technique in every area leads to monopoly. . . . Totalitarianism extends to whatever touches it. . . . When technique has fastened upon a method, everything must be subordinated to it. (p. 125)

All five standards offered for the Advanced Programs are attached to what CAEP has defined as success in P-12 schools. For example, Standard 1.4 reads that “advanced program completers demonstrate skills and commitment to creating supportive environments that afford all P-12 students access to rigorous college-

CAEP Advanced Standards and the Future of Graduate Programs

and career-ready standards [such as Common Core State Standards].” That other definitions of school success exist and have merit is unacknowledged by CAEP. As Bullough (2014a) contended, “CAEP offers a vision of an ‘ideal system’ of teacher education. . . . Diversity of programs and practices is viewed as a serious weakness, not a strength” (p. 1).

For anyone familiar with graduate education, one might expect a graduate program in curriculum studies, educational philosophy, or English education to encourage students to critique college- and career-ready standards or the Common Core, among other proposals. Debating ideas lies at the heart of graduate education, and encouraging original thinking is a basic goal of any graduate program. Never before has an outside organization in teacher education supplanted the role of the university itself as the place where educational ideas, measures of evidence in the field, and scholarship are studied and debated; CAEP does so. Doneson (2011) described the condition of technique in American education in the following way:

In sum, modern technology is a way of thinking and ultimately a way of being-in-the-world characterized by the disposition to rationally order, predict, and control everything with the aim of mastering nature and subduing Fortuna. Gradually, all alternative principles of experience and choices, be they from piety, morality, aesthetics, custom, or instinct come to be dominated by technical calculation. (pp. 46-47)

Technical calculation is again evident in the “Report Highlights” of “Building an Evidence-Based System for Teacher Preparation” (CAEP, 2014a), prepared by the company Teacher Preparation Analytics for CAEP. Despite phrases in the Standards for Advanced Programs, such as in Standard 3.2, concerning admissions, which mentions “multiple evaluations and sources of evidence,” it seems that “multiple” means other numbers. Of 13 Key Effectiveness Indicators for teacher preparation listed in the report, at least 9 are clearly statistics gathered from tests, numbers and percentages of students, and surveys, including “value-added” statistics, which are discussed later. People need not challenge purposes nor debate ideas if *technique* is all. CAEP would decide the goals and methods as well as the evaluation of university graduate education in the fields of education—totalitarian indeed.

One may well ask, So what is the problem? What if CAEP is self-augmenting, autonomous, and totalitarian, if it is also efficient and rigorous and holds teacher education programs accountable, as it promises to do? If *technique* or *techne* can ensure “quality products,” why should it not govern teaching, schooling, and teacher education? Numerous problems resulting from CAEP and its purely technique approach to education have been discussed. Cochran-Smith (2005), for example, argued that the “focus on outcomes—if narrowly defined or even predominantly in terms of test scores—is a trap for teacher education that ignores the broader purposes of education in a democratic society” (p. 411).

Techne or *technique* does not speak to the moral or civic purposes of schooling, nor to the ethical motivations so many educators bring with them into the field or

the ethical issues they confront in the classroom (Osguthorpe & Sanger, 2013). Furthermore, CAEP does not directly attend to the social problems that plague American schools, especially racism and poverty. Others raise the point that an accreditation system that measures knowledge and ability largely in terms of statistics and evaluates programs in terms of the bottom line of efficiency dehumanizes the educational enterprise. Pinar (2014), who accused CAEP's predecessor, NCATE, of anti-intellectualism, also noted, "This intricate record-keeping system increases the faculty's bureaucratic workload (not to mention that of students) while reducing educational coursework to record keeping" (p. 215). One result of CAEP that has not been widely discussed yet is that CAEP's seemingly logical methods must lead ultimately to unreason.

Technique as Magic

The great appeal of CAEP lies in the claims of methods that assure quality teaching. In fact, the word *ensure* appears frequently in the CAEP Accreditation Standards (CAEP, 2013a) and the Standards for Advanced Programs (CAEP, 2013a). A list of other favored CAEP terms includes monitor, reliable and valid, quality assurance system, implement, criteria, and outcomes. These terms sound solid, reasonable, and dependable. However, not entirely predictable, controllable, and measurable in numbers are human life, relationships, and learning and teaching. When people confuse what can be managed and mandated with what cannot, reason becomes unreason. Or as several scholars have pointed out, technique becomes indistinguishable from magic.

Ellul (1964) pointed out the relationship of magic and *technique*, noting that magic is the "first expression of technique" (p. 25). Ellul expanded, observing that *technique* and magic have common characteristics—the goal being to gain control of the environment and nature, to serve as protection and defense involving forms and rituals that never vary, and to accomplish all with great efficiency. Ellul argued as follows to the question of why society does not acknowledge the magical aspects:

Because we are obsessed with materialism and do not take magic seriously, it has little interest for us, and we are unaware even today, as we study *technique*—the techniques that relate to men—that we are drawing on the great stream of magical techniques. (p. 25)

Furthermore, anthropologist Gell (1988) maintained,

The propagandists, image-makers, and ideologues of technological culture are its magicians, and if they do not lay claim to supernatural powers, it is only because technology itself has become so powerful that they have no need to do so. And if we no longer recognize magic explicitly, it is because technology and magic, for us, are one and the same. (p. 9)

Stivers (2001) made the case that "technology and magic, while separate and

CAEP Advanced Standards and the Future of Graduate Programs

distinct categories in some abstract sense, are now related to one another in such a way that each has acquired important characteristics of the other” (p. 1). He added, “Our worship of technology and irrational belief in its omnipotence prevent us from seeing the obvious: the technological system can accomplish none of its mythological goals. It can guarantee us neither happiness and health, nor success and survival” (p. 207). Nor can it guarantee some perfect system of teacher education accreditation or graduate programs in education.

CAEP displays many characteristics of magic. The terms listed earlier and such phrases as “clear, high standards,” “positive impact on all P-12 students’ learning and development,” and “evidence-based measures of performance” (CAEP, 2013a, 2015), like magical incantations, are repeated over and over and never unpackaged. Such language, one might even say jargon (like “provider” referring to the university or college teacher education program), is left mysteriously vague but at the same time captures the seeming objectivity of technicism or techno-positivism. Van der Laan (2001) referred to these mantras as “plastic words.” Van der Laan stated,

[Plastic words] acquire a scientific veneer that lends them special cache and adds to their importance because science is the realm of human knowledge to which our society and culture accords [*sic*] utmost respect... In the end, however, plastic words are nonspecific, context-autonomous, abstract nouns. As such, they preclude precise expression. They become so general that they can apply to anything, and so apply to nothing. The broader their application, the smaller their actual content. (p. 350)

He added, drawing on Ellul’s work, “Technology reconstitutes the word, recreates it, in its own image” (p. 353). *Values-added modeling* (VAM; CAEP, 2013a, p. 13) might as well be “abracadabra.” Likewise, the emphasis on “ensuring” and certainty reflects the appeal of magic to humans, offering quick ways to control and predict complex human undertakings. A love potion is a direct, sure way to gain love, especially compared to the vicissitudes of actual romantic relationships. A declaration that “the stature of the entire profession” of teacher education will be raised by following the standards of CAEP (CAEP, 2013c) is much quicker and less expensive than examining the history of teaching and teacher education in the United States, critiquing the messages about educators transmitted in the media, challenging a society that remains indifferent to the inequities in schooling, and studying the contexts and work of actual teacher educators today.

Finally, the practice of magic is not available to just anyone. Magic is the realm of magicians or shamans, uncommon experts who have special knowledge, like the CAEP commissioners (only three out of 40 of whom are teacher educators). To take advantage of magic, the ordinary person or teacher educator must seek special incantations or potions, using special objects, numbers, or standards. To be fair, CAEP has declared and has enacted a dedication to involving a variety of stakeholders in its work. However, most members of the CAEP Commission on Standards are deans, college or organization presidents, and heads of think tanks—in short,

administrators or policy makers removed from the daily work of teacher education (CAEP, 2013b). Likewise, the research base for the CAEP Standards (2013a), which the Advanced Standards (CAEP, 2014b) simply mirror, mentions very few teacher educators; most sources are such organizations as the Council of Chief State School Officers, the Educational Testing Service, census figures, and business and think tank reports. The vast literature on teacher education the professorate has created is ignored. People outside the realm of day-to-day teacher education must save teacher education. The teacher educator's own experience, knowledge, scholarship and research, or common sense is suspect. Magic is required.

CAEP Magic: Road to the Irrational

Magic, in the form of *technique*, is appealing, as magic has always been. Today we find traditional magic with wands and spells silly. However, *technique* or *techne* as the sole way of approaching the ongoing work of teacher education also becomes irrational, ultimately. The unquestioning commitment to college- and career-ready standards in the Advanced Standards has been mentioned already. The command to adopt a certain ideological stance seems to run counter to the rational ideals of openness and debate that characterize the university at its best, especially at the graduate level. For instance, Standard 3.1 declares that the provider must recruit for diversity—but not for thought. And although more clinical work or fieldwork at any level may be worthwhile, CAEP does not confront the question, If what the schools are doing is not in the best interests of students, what does the teacher education program do? When is fieldwork counterproductive, merely initiating educators into the testing madness? How can doctoral candidates, who will become new professors and leaders in schools, be advocates for change in a time so dominated by top-down policy? Clinical experience can be problematic; it is no panacea.

Most irrational is the demand that measures of “completer” (a graduate student who finishes the degree) “impact on the P-12 learning environment, including available outcome data on P-12 student growth, are summarized, externally benchmarked, analyzed, shared widely, and acted upon.” The idea that graduates of education graduate programs can *ensure* a direct impact on P-12 schools is the most absurd slogan or mantra of all. Real human students, especially in the contexts of complex social systems such as schools or universities, are subject to many influences, none of which can be controlled by teachers at any level. Neither teachers nor teacher educators can manage poverty and discrimination, the home environment, the individual motivations of each student, the school climate, the resources in schools, the ongoing and unsubstantiated claims of educational crisis, or the boredom of a curriculum reduced to test taking.

Can teachers help children learn? Of course. But guaranteed? In addition, although the notion of VAM is downplayed in the Advanced Standards, it is still there. VAM connects student test scores directly to teacher efforts. Berliner and

CAEP Advanced Standards and the Future of Graduate Programs

Glass (2014) said, “In short, the VAM-like systems for inferring the quality of teacher training by a new teacher are not sensible” (p. 86). Teaching and learning build on many complex factors, including human relationships—complex, messy, often unpredictable, unscripted, and resistant to engineering. Learners bring a bag of history and attitudes with them to school. To expect linear, predictable, universal, manageable human interactions in diverse contexts is the most irrational faith of all. Simply using bureaucratic language to declare the wonder of the CAEP system, especially for graduate education, reflects magical thinking.

A number of scholars over the years have warned about *technique*. The irrational factory model of education (see Callahan, 1962) woven into CAEP’s expectations for education graduate programs can be addressed in the following:

Teachers do not and cannot determine, and therefore cannot ultimately be held responsible for, the eventual outcomes of their professional activity. They may influence the actions and development of their pupils but do not determine what they eventually do become. For human beings are not material objects or even trainable animals but the initiators of their own actions (Arendt, 1958), agents of their own futures, within the unforeseeable situations into which they are “thrown” (Heidegger, 1927) by circumstance. . . . The mode of practical reasoning appropriate to the guidance of teachers is not *techné* . . . [but requires] the wisdom, imagination and flexibility that results from their own education. (Wringe, 2012, p. 9)

The idea that merely saying something will make it true is the fundamental strategy of America’s largest enterprise—advertising. . . . Word magic is an ancient form of balderdash and is never to be taken lightly. . . . Eichmannism is that form of balderdash which accepts as its starting and ending point official definitions, rules, and regulations without regard for the realities of particular situations. (Postman, 1988, p. 93)

Ultimately, the quality of a teacher education program is a reflection of the state of the hearts and minds of teacher educators and of their desire and ability to imagine their work in new and refreshing ways and then to take concerted action to realize their visions. . . . [In contrast to] a naïve faith in the ability and value of systems to control behavior and to assure quality performance, and narrow conceptions of the nature of teaching and learning to teach. (Bullough, Clark, & Patterson, 2003, p. 50)

Why do so many teacher educators seem to acquiesce to CAEP if the *techné-technique* model runs contrary to their own interests?

What About Fear?

Critiques of neoliberalism emphasize the economy and consumer culture, the values of the corporate world in perpetuating current school “reform” like CAEP. However, in reflecting on my own almost 25 years in teacher education, it seems most teacher educators with whom I have worked are decent, caring professionals

who love learning and students of all ages, and they are not driven by the almighty dollar or even power but rather by service. However, another term is common these days—a *culture of fear*. Fear is hardly new to human life, but in a time of technological change that is so rapid and a time when one can learn about all the world's disasters in a matter of minutes, fear may well have much more effect than rational moderns want to admit. The fear factor looms large in American education. Kuhn (2014), for example, has titled his new book *Fear and Learning in America—Bad Data, Good Teachers, and the Attack on Public Education*. Policy makers often use fear to create and enforce certain political policies.

Even college teachers are subject to fear, especially in a time when the university itself is changing radically. Stivers's (2006) comments seem to apply even more now:

A university that attempts to change itself through bureaucratic reform and public relations only makes things worse. Today, we are being overwhelmed by bureaucratic procedures and accountability measures, like the truly silly idea of value-added education. We spend so much time accounting for what we do that we don't have time to do what we do. (p. 224)

Tenure is under attack in the United States, and many new teacher education professors remain untenured; others are adjuncts or clinical instructors without the possibility of tenure and without being part of graduate programs. The economy remains uneven and uncertain, especially in state schools that receive less and less of their funding from the states. More and more education professors are expected to bring in grants to support graduate programs. The rest of the university remains largely indifferent to or disdainful of teacher education, as do many public school systems driven by standardized testing. Alternative teacher education certification systems are popping up all over, following Teach for America (a representative of which serves on the CAEP Commission). Who wants to rock the boat facing a powerful entity such as CAEP? Safety, security, is a major human need, right after physical basics, according to Maslow. It is not surprising if teacher educators have chosen magical thinking over even academic freedom.

Clearly empirical research should be pursued to discover if fear is in fact a problem in teacher education, although funding or any support for such research might be hard to find. Other causes for the failure of teacher educators to object to CAEP exist as well, including the onslaught of neoliberalism. The problem of CAEP is not simple. However, fear appears to be a major factor.

Conclusion

It would be foolish indeed for anyone to maintain that any teacher education program, undergraduate or graduate, is perfect and needs no change. Ongoing improvement should be the goal of any educational organization. Some CAEP

CAEP Advanced Standards and the Future of Graduate Programs

standards and procedures make sense. Strong discipline knowledge is important (Standard 1), for example, and tests and grades do somewhat reflect that knowledge. Getting feedback from appropriate stakeholders is worthwhile (Standard 5), as are other measures of CAEP achievement. However, the reduction of teaching and teacher education to means and standard deviations (Standard 3.2), modeling technology standards (Standard 1.5), and magically improving P–12 schools (i.e., test scores) will ultimately fail to help teacher education. *Techné–technique* as the only kind of knowledge that matters may seem objective, rational, and sure, but it is actually subjective, irrational, and uncertain, and its appeal rests on fear. Thus CAEP presents a significant danger to education graduate programs.

Education for teachers and other educators at the graduate level, that which is not tied to certification in particular, requires deep study from a variety of fields in addition to curriculum and pedagogy—philosophy, history, sociology, psychology, and language and literacy. Graduate education must explore the emotional, imaginative, intuitive, and spiritual with educators who seek more than recipes and rubrics in their graduate programs. Education in curriculum and teaching, especially at the graduate level, requires the academic freedom to explore all ideas, even those of CAEP itself. Teaching as a vocation and as a serious program of study deserves more than *techné*. Fear must somehow be overcome, or the future for teacher education and teaching looks grim indeed.

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Gretchen E. Schwarz

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Semiannual Call for Proposals for Presentations at CCTE Conferences

The California Council on Teacher Education (CCTE) invites submission of proposals which address: (1) Research related to teacher education, including policy issues, classroom-based issues, teacher effectiveness, or other related topics; (2) Projects or programs reflecting best practice; and (3) Other innovative sessions related to teacher education. Proposals are invited for several diverse formats: presentations, roundtables, demonstrations, interactive sessions, and poster sessions.

General Procedures: CCTE is interested in receiving papers from faculty directly involved in teacher education programs, school district personnel engaged in teacher development efforts, and graduate students conducting research related to teacher education.

How To Submit Proposals: You must submit proposals electronically as follows: Submit (a) an email file cover sheet listing the names, affiliations, addresses, work and home telephone numbers, and email addresses, along with requested audiovisual equipment; and (b) an email file attachment (preferably in Microsoft WORD or Microsoft Office) of a maximum 3-page, single-spaced proposal without names of the presenters. Proposals should be e-mailed to: hansenl@uci.edu

Content of the Proposal: Include the following: A brief overview of the study/project/program session including purpose/objectives, theoretical framework, methods, data source, results/conclusions/points of view, and significance to the field of teacher education. Indicate clearly whether the proposal is for a presentation format, a roundtable discussion format, or an interactive format, and describe how the format will be carried out.

Criteria for Selection: The criteria are: the proposal contributes to the knowledge base of preservice and inservice teacher education; the proposal is methodologically or theoretically sound; the proposal format is well organized and clearly described; and the proposal clearly states its significance for teacher educators.

Upcoming Deadlines: The deadline for proposals for spring conferences is January 15 of the year of the conference. The deadline for proposals for fall conferences is August 1 of the year of the conference.

Questions: Questions may be addressed to the chair of the CCTE Research Committee: Laurie Hansen, via e-mail at: hansenl@uci.edu



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