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# CONTENTS

<b>Message from the Editor</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>Editorial Board</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>ARTICLES</b>	
<b>Exploring Rurally Located Graduate Teacher Candidate Perspectives on Urban Education</b> <i>Katherine Kieninger, MPA, Ohio University</i> <i>Frans H. Doppen, Ph.D., Ohio University</i>	<b>4</b>
<b>Initiative in ESL Student Teaching: Three Perspectives</b> <i>Timothy A. Micek, DA, Ohio Dominican University</i>	<b>21</b>
<b>What Teachers Want: Time and Targeted Teaching</b> <i>Helene Arbouet Harte, Ed.D., Blue Ash College</i>	<b>37</b>
<b>Elementary School Principal Perceptions of Multi-Optional Response Plans for Active Shooter Drills</b> <i>Brett Burton, Ed.D., Xavier University</i>	<b>53</b>
<b>The Global Impact of Teacher Development through International Immersion</b> <i>Delane Bender-Slack, Ed.D, Xavier University</i>	<b>71</b>
<b>Publication Guidelines</b>	<b>101</b>
<b>Important Dates of Note</b>	<b>102</b>
<b>Membership</b>	<b>103</b>

## A MESSAGE FROM THE EDITOR

A Message from the Editor:

Greetings! Welcome to the Spring edition of the Ohio Journal for Teacher Education! One of the things I love about editing this journal is my opportunity to read great writing from all over the state. The array of topics is very interesting as well. This month is a perfect example of the broad range of topics spanning elementary schools preparing for active shooter drills to international perspectives of teacher immersion experiences.

We have such an amazing opportunity with the OJTE to broaden the landscape of research in teacher education and to help all of us to be better informed and alerted to the current thinking on a range of topics involving students becoming educators.

Enjoy this Spring edition of the OJTE and think about how you might contribute to the journal in our Fall 2021 issue coming in October. I hope everyone is staying healthy and being patient as we wait out this pandemic.

Sincerely,  
Thomas Knestrict





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## Exploring Rurally Located Graduate Teacher Candidate Perspectives on Urban Education

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### *Abstract:*

This qualitative study explores how the Rural Urban Collaborative (RUC), a partnership between a rurally located Midwestern university and an urban school district, provides an urban field experience for graduate students. Teacher candidates' (n=15) course assignments were analyzed. This study discovered that through an urban field experience, teacher candidates dispelled preconceived notions about urban education, became open to teaching in an urban school, and explored the boundary-spanning nature of poverty. Implications for rurally located teacher education programs and the classrooms in which they are placed are discussed.

Teacher candidates can enter teacher preparation programs believing in perpetuated stereotypes about teaching in rural and urban communities. Candidates imagine urban schools as being fraught with behavioral issues, as having large class sizes, and as lacking in resources (Bauml et al., 2016; Bleicher, 2011; Hill et al., 2007). Similarly, candidates take a deficit-based perspective towards rural communities and schools (Hartman, 2019). Candidates often believe that rural schools lack resources, lack motivation, and have low self-expectations (Azano & Stewart, 2016; van Rensburg et al., 2015). Graduate teacher candidates at our rurally located Midwestern university are provided a year-long clinical model rural



field experience to explore and dispel their beliefs about rural schools. Because of the university's distance to the nearest city, it is not possible to provide the in-depth opportunity for teacher candidates to explore urban education as is necessary to develop an understanding of urban schools (Han et al., 2015; Roth-Sitko & Marnella, 2015). The Rural Urban Collaborative (RUC) was created in 2015 to provide graduate teacher candidates with an urban field experience.

### **The Rural Urban Collaborative**

The RUC is a four-day urban field experience aimed at fostering a deeper awareness and appreciation of the influence of locale and diversity on teaching. Our graduate teacher candidates participate in the urban field experience during the fall semester of their yearlong teacher preparation program. While at their RUC placement, they are encouraged to immerse themselves in the classroom as much as possible. Prior to their urban field experience, candidates made book reports focused on racial and ethnic diversity and engaged in critical classroom dialogue about these issues in education. Candidates need field experiences along with the culturally responsive pedagogy and curriculum to be prepared to teach across geographical locations upon graduation.

The RUC placement schools are selected using specific criteria. Using data provided by the Ohio Department of Education (2019), RUC placement schools must have a student population that is at least 50% economically disadvantaged, at least 30% non-white, at least 15% of the student population identified as having a disability, and a substantive English Language Learning (ELL) population. An overview of the demographics across the teacher candidates' rural and urban placements, as well as the statewide averages are presented in Table 1.

Teacher candidates' rural school placements were, on average, 94% White, 2% Multiracial, 1% Black, 1% Hispanic, and 1% Asian. On average, these schools also had 73% economically disadvantaged students. The RUC placement schools were markedly different demographically. In the urban school districts, 54% of students were black, 27% white, 9% Hispanic, 6% Multiracial, and 3% Asian. On average, the urban schools were 98% economically disadvantaged. When compared to the statewide averages, both the rural and the urban schools were exceptional. The rural schools have higher white populations than a typical Ohio school, and the urban schools have higher black populations than an average Ohio school. The number of economically disadvantaged students at both the rural and urban schools was above the state average.

Table 1: Average Demographics of Placement School Buildings by Location (ODE, 2019)

Placement Location	Average Population Percentage within Placement School Buildings							
	Black	White	Hispanic	Multiracial	Asian	Economically Disadvantaged	SWD	ELL
Rural	0.9	93.3	0.8	2.3	0.8	72.7	16.3	**
Urban	53.8	27.1	9.3	6.4	2.7	98	18.8	13.2
Statewide	16.8	68.2	6.4	5.8	2.6	49.4	15.4	3.7

\*\*Too low to calculate at student-level

The urban field experience is only four days in length because of the university's long distance to the school district in which RUC takes place. The round-trip travel time is approximately three hours with some variation depending on the location of the candidates' RUC placement school. Because of the travel time, the rural field experience time requirements, and the additional coursework candidates are enrolled in, four days is the amount of time the department deemed reasonable to require candidates to complete this additional field experience. An analysis of the undergraduate RUC program found there to be a disconnect between teacher candidates' intent and application of their understanding of context and culture in the classroom (Martin et al., 2013). While we acknowledge that the length of time in the urban school is potentially problematic, this study sought to determine

whether and to what extent the RUC experience exposes teacher candidates to different teaching and learning experiences. This qualitative study explored the following research question: “To what extent does the Rural Urban Collaborative experience develop an awareness of the influence of locale and diversity on teaching?”

### **Providing an Urban Field Experience**

Teacher candidates’ first teaching positions are likely to be similar to or within the district in which they completed their professional internship (Krieg et al., 2016) or in a district close to or in their hometown (Reininger, 2012). The majority of the candidates in our graduate teacher education program grew up in predominantly white suburban or rural communities. All candidates were placed in a rural, year-long internship with a student population that is over 90% white. The RUC takes teacher candidates into urban classrooms that are significantly more racially and ethnically diverse than their rural yearlong placement. RUC teacher educators have created the experience and support candidates throughout their urban experience to attempt to prevent teacher candidates from walking away from the field experience with reinforced negative stereotypes about urban education (Roselle & Liner, 2012; Smith et al., 2017). When the experience is supported and thoughtfully executed, teacher candidates become more open to teaching in urban areas, and they ultimately experience a mindset shift in their perspectives on urban education (White, 2017).

### **Methodology**

#### *Program Candidates*

Teacher candidates attend their rurally located professional internship for two full school days each week during the fall semester and five school days a week during the spring semester. They are in a placement school with the same mentor teacher for the school year. Fifteen teacher candidates participated in this study during fall 2018. While the teacher candidates in this study came from a variety backgrounds, all candidates were white. Six

teacher candidates were male, and nine were female. With the exception of two teacher candidates in their thirties, these teacher candidates were in their early twenties. Eight teacher candidates were from rural areas, five were from suburban areas, and two were from urban areas.

The teacher candidates were pursuing licensure in a variety of subjects, including five in Adolescent to Young Adult (AYA) Integrated English Language Arts (ELA), two in AYA Integrated Science, two in AYA Integrated Social Studies, three in Middle Childhood Education, and three in Art Education. AYA teacher candidates seek to be licensed in one content area in grades 7-12. Middle Childhood teacher candidates seek to be licensed in two content areas in grades 4-9, and Art Education majors seek to be licensed to teach in Kindergarten-grade 12 (K-12). Of the teacher candidates seeking Middle Childhood licensures, two specialized in ELA and Science, one in ELA and Social Studies, and one in Math and Science. The study was IRB approved. Pseudonyms are used to protect the identity of the teacher candidates and placement schools.

### *Data Collection and Analysis*

We analyzed the three RUC assignments from the course. The first paper asked candidates to reflect on what kind of experience they anticipated from their upcoming urban placement, what ethnic and racial diversity means to them, how ethnic and racial diversity at the urban placement school compares to the schools they attended as students, and how they believe socioeconomic status impacts students and learning. The second paper required the teacher candidates to interview their mentor teacher about their expectations for their students, their classroom culture, and how they overcome classroom challenges. Finally, the third paper was a self-evaluation based on their RUC experiences that included reflection on their assumptions prior to and during observations, a comparison of urban and rural schools,

and whether their experience had changed their preference for where they would like and be willing to teach.

We used inductive data analysis to identify “specific observations and build towards general patterns” (Patton, 2015, p. 122). We used initial and focused coding to discern patterns within the data (Russell, 2018; Saldaña, 2016). These patterns were developed into themes as discussed in the following section. We gave teacher candidates the opportunity to dispute or add to any claims or information provided in their previous assignments in an additional reflection they completed two months after the fall course ended. By providing the teacher candidates with an additional opportunity to reflect and edit responses, data credibility was increased (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

## **Findings**

The RUC experience seeks to expose teacher candidates to different teaching experiences in a more racially and ethnically diverse environment than they are exposed to in their full-time rural field experience. Teacher candidates challenged their preconceived notions about urban schools which ultimately led to developing an interest in teaching in an urban setting in the future, and explored the boundary-spanning nature of poverty across school environments.

### *Identifying and Challenging Preconceived Notions about Urban Schools*

Prior to their RUC experience, most teacher candidates (n=9) expressed negative viewpoints of urban schools and urban learners. They expected students in urban schools to have negative attitudes, a general sense of apathy towards education, and behavioral problems. Before arriving at their urban field experience, candidates envisioned a crumbling school building that had heightened security and classrooms, which lacked resources. Many of their observations were similar to Megan’s comments about her urban school:

I am making the assumption that academics are not a priority at the school... I think the school will probably be lacking mainstream classroom resources. Maybe they won't have Chrome books, updated textbooks, updated facilities. I believe that when you get a lot of students together that don't want to be at school, you will experience behavioral issues.

Teacher candidates made the connection between media portrayal of urban schools and their preconceived notions about the schools. Megan assumed that that academics in the urban school in which she was placed would not be a priority saying, "This will probably mean that a lot of the students don't care about learning and being in class." Andrew discussed how low his expectations were for going into an urban school:

When the RUC was introduced in class, I was worried. I have very little experience with any urban setting, let alone an urban school. If I am being honest my expectations are low. I am expecting behavioral problems. I expect students to be disrespectful and have low regard for authority... I know that I am letting my past inform my ideas and predictions about my time at the RUC school. Urban schools are often portrayed negatively in the media and I have heard many horror stories from other teachers. Robert was placed at a school for students designated as "gifted." Despite personally

having attended a school in the RUC placement district, he held the assumption that high poverty school districts cannot have gifted students. He thought that a school designated to serve gifted students was "just a name to make the school sound better. After looking at the demographics and state assigned grades of the school, I think it might be an actual gifted school except for the poverty rating." Most candidates had internalized prevailing negative stereotypes about urban education and expressed these preconceived notions in their pre-experience reflections.

After their RUC experience, however, almost all teacher candidates (n=12) held positive opinions about urban schools. These teacher candidates were in classrooms with engaged students who were excited to learn. Tyler described a group of students who "seemed to be genuinely intrinsically motivated to learn. I did not think I would encounter this type of classroom in a school that has a low SES based on the challenges that students face

that can hinder them from being motivated for school.” Jake agreed with Tyler by saying all his assumptions were wrong:

I was ready for mayhem. All of my preparation was unwarranted because the behavior at the RUC school is great... I was shocked by how engaged students were. They were prepared and ready to learn. I had a blast and felt comfortable in this setting. I felt safe and there were no extensive security procedures. Every assumption I had was wrong.

Through these positive experiences, teacher candidates changed their perceptions of urban education. Positive experiences in urban settings can contribute to whether a teacher candidate will ultimately develop a positive disposition towards teaching in an urban setting (Szucs et al., 2019; Weber, 2017).

#### *Willingness to Teach in an Urban Setting*

Before their RUC placement, only two teacher candidates expressed an interest in teaching in an urban school after graduation. After their RUC experience, most teacher candidates (n=13) indicated they would consider teaching in an urban school, 11 of whom were originally not interested in teaching in an urban environment after graduation. Positive experiences in RUC were the reason for the changes in desire to teach in an urban setting. Olivia was a candidate whose perception completely changed. Before her RUC experience, she was “terrified” of going to her RUC observation school on the first day. After her RUC experience, Olivia said the RUC “was an absolutely incredible experience. It opened my eyes. It changed my perspective of applying to jobs in an urban setting.” After commenting on how similar rural and urban schools are, another teacher candidate, Kayla, wrote:

I am now much more open to teaching in any type of public education setting. I understand that some schools will come with more teaching challenges than others, but there is never going to be a school without challenges. Instead of looking for positions based on geographic location, I will be more concerned with looking deeper into the school to see if its staff, culture, and educational philosophy align with my own.

The two candidates who were not open to teaching in an urban setting had different reasons for being disinterested. Morgan had an exceptionally negative experience at her RUC

placement school, and as a result was an outlier. Her experiences included issues with drugs and frequent fist fights. Morgan noted, “I never planned on teaching in an urban school and this experience did nothing to change my mind but solidify it.” Hannah, despite having a positive experience at her RUC placement, said this experience did not change her mind “as far as where I want to work... I don’t see myself teaching in an urban school in the future.”

Of the candidates who were interested in working in an urban school, some indicated they would still prefer to teach in a rural setting because of their connection to rural areas or because they grew up in rural areas. Brittany explained, “I come from the rural southeastern Ohio area, and I have a connection to the people there and a desire to want to make it a better place ... I feel like I can’t abandon these students who come from such a poor socioeconomic area.” Andrew believed he could make deeper connections and a larger difference in a rural school:

If I had a choice, I would choose to teach in a rural school. I went to a rural school, so I believe I can create a more meaningful connection with students at a rural school. With that connection I hope to instill the importance of education amongst my students. I want students to know that education can offer them many academic opportunities and open their worldview and make them into independent and intelligent citizens.

Teacher candidates had transformative experiences during the urban field placements. Through their experiences, not only did they dispel stereotypes they held, but they also shifted to having a more open mindset about where they would be willing to teach in the future.

### *Poverty as a Boundary-Spanning Issue*

The key issue that teacher candidates noted that was similar amongst students in both rural and urban schools was poverty. Kayla noted, “as a whole, the challenges that students face at my RUC placement school—poverty, apathy, limited resources, broken home lives—are the same challenges that students at my rural placement school face.” Morgan echoed Kayla’s sentiment when she said, “Rural poverty is somewhat different than urban poverty,



but poverty is poverty. Students of poverty face many of the same challenges in each environment, mostly due to their home life.” Tyler noted similarities and differences between urban and rural settings:

The biggest lesson I learned is that despite challenges students may face, a classroom environment can be tremendously successful in getting students intrinsically motivated to learn. Rural and urban schools have similar challenges based on the low SES of their population, like students whose families cannot afford necessities like healthcare or food, but they also have unique challenges. Rural students may have longer bus rides. Urban students may live in dangerous neighborhoods. While they may be different, the challenges faced by these students are more similar than not.

Ultimately, teacher candidates walked away from their urban field experiences with an understanding that the issues that the rural students at their placement schools face are relatively similar to the issues that the urban students at their RUC placement face. The teacher candidates’ RUC experiences enhanced their awareness of similarities and differences between rural and urban students and schools, an awareness they will be able to take into their future classrooms and share with their students.

### **First Teaching Position Location**

After they had graduated from our program, we were able to follow up with 13 of the 15 teacher candidates who participated in this study to determine where they had accepted their first teaching position. Only one had secured a position in an urban area while most had secured positions teaching in a rural or suburban setting. Three candidates had not yet accepted a job offer at the time of communication. A summary of teaching positions, candidates’ hometowns, and openness to teaching in an urban setting after their RUC experience is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Teacher Candidates’ First Teaching Positions

<b>Pseudonym</b>	<b>Hometown Classification</b>	<b>Openness to urban after RUC experience</b>	<b>First Teaching Position Classification</b>
Brittany	Rural	Yes	Rural
Alexis	Suburban	Yes	Suburban
Tyler	Rural	Yes	Rural

Jake	Rural	Yes	No job
Emily	Urban	Yes	Did not respond
Christopher	Suburban	Yes	Rural
Hannah	Suburban	No	Rural
Robert	Urban	Yes	No job
Ashley	Suburban	Yes	Rural
Andrew	Rural	Yes	Did not respond
Austin	Rural	Yes	Suburban
Kayla	Rural	Yes	Rural
Morgan	Suburban	No	No job
Megan	Rural	Yes	Rural
Olivia	Rural	Yes	Urban

The majority of teacher candidates took positions similar to their hometown classification or similar to the classification of the school in which their full-time professional internship was located. Five teacher candidates accepted a teaching position in a similar classification as they grew up in. Four of these five candidates grew up in and accepted a position in a rural area. The fifth candidate grew up in and accepted a position in a suburban area. Three candidates accepted a position in a school that was similar to their professional internship school. Three of the five candidates who grew up in suburban communities accepted a teaching position in a rural community. Only two candidates accepted a position in a district that was unlike the school they graduated from or where they had completed their professional internship. Of the two candidates who grew up in a rural community, one took a position in an urban district while the other accepted a position in a suburban area. Despite noting a changed disposition in willingness to teach in an urban setting and subsequently accepting positions in suburban and rural communities, candidates' RUC field placements are still important experiences to be had. Candidates' heightened awareness of racial and ethnic diversity can inform their suburban and rural curriculum decisions and aid in enhancing their future students' understanding of a world that they may not have yet explored.

### **Discussion and Recommendations**

This study explored how teacher candidates at a rurally located university were exposed to additional teaching experiences through an urban field experience. The RUC experience provided teacher candidates with an opportunity to observe and participate in ethnically and racially diverse classrooms that most candidates had not previously experienced. Like White (2017), our teacher candidates addressed and unpacked their negative assumptions about urban schools because of the RUC field experience. Without the urban field experience, it is possible that candidates would not have had the opportunity to overcome their preconceived notions about urban education. Only one teacher candidate had an experience that reinforced her negative stereotypes about urban education (Roselle & Liner, 2012; Smith et al., 2017). While 11 of the 15 candidates were open to working in an urban setting because of their positive RUC field experience (Szucs et al., 2019; Weber, 2017), our candidates' first teaching positions were consistent with previous findings, as they took teaching positions in districts that were either like the one in which they had grown up (Reininger, 2012) or like a district in which they had completed their professional internship (Krieg et al., 2016). The RUC experiences provided a platform for these rurally placed teacher candidates to experience what urban classrooms can actually be like, instead of relying on stereotypes to inform their perspectives on urban schools. Even if teacher candidates do not take their first position in urban settings, providing an urban field experience does heighten their awareness towards a more diverse curriculum in their future classrooms regardless of what community they teach in, as well as providing them with an opportunity to compose a more complex understanding of systemic issues like poverty across urbanities.

Ultimately, the mentor teacher with which candidates are placed often determines the teacher candidate's field placement experience. While classroom placement is typically beyond the control of the teacher educator, teacher educators can control what the candidates learn about urban education and their field experience before, during, and after their

placement. The following recommendations for teacher educators can serve to improve the experiences of rurally located teacher candidates as we strive for them to embrace more racially and ethnically diverse perspectives towards education and encourage them to incorporate them in their classrooms.

Teacher candidates should engage in critical classroom dialogue before, during, and after their RUC experience. Having critical discussions in the classroom can be used to explore questions that teacher candidates may have based on their experiences, give teacher candidates a space to examine their beliefs about their experiences, and to correct misconceptions they may have had about their urban placement school. Classroom dialogue can also provide a space in which teacher candidates can share their urban experiences to ensure that candidates have an understanding that classroom environments differ across schools and teachers. No urban experience is the same, just as no rural experience is the same.

Teacher educators should present diverse perspectives in their courses. They should be asking their teacher candidates, regardless of whether they aspire to teach in a rural or urban school, how they will incorporate diverse perspectives in their placement and future classroom. Examples of in-class activities include role-play scenarios that involve student pushback about including racially or ethnically diverse perspectives or requiring teacher candidates to identify resources that focus on multicultural education for the content area they are preparing to teach. Teacher candidates should have opportunities to fail and grow in a safe space before being expected to create their own inclusive classrooms.

Teacher educators can prepare teacher candidates better to succeed in the classroom by sharing their own professional experiences. Leveraging their knowledge from previous experiences, teacher educators can help teacher candidates become better prepared to incorporate a multicultural curriculum in their future classrooms, regardless of how ethnically

or culturally diverse the classroom is. It is the teacher educator's responsibility to ensure that teacher candidates are exposed to as many different school environments as possible.

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## Initiative in ESL Student Teaching: Three Perspectives

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### *Abstract:*

Initiative in ESL student teaching was studied. There were three sets of participants: two student teachers, two cooperating teachers, and two university supervisors. All participants were surveyed before student teaching; student teachers and cooperating teachers were surveyed afterwards. Results indicate that (a) initiative is seen as (very) important by all stakeholders and (b) that its importance increases over time. Although the overall ratings were generally very close, individual ratings were more varied. Participants' comments (a) help to explain their ratings and (b) reveal differences in their views. Results have implications for ESL teacher educators.

The 2019 Ohio TESOL conference has a three-part theme: “Collaborate! Educate! Initiate!” Over the years, a great deal has been written about collaboration, especially between ESL and content teachers (e.g., Davison, 2006; DelliCarpini, 2008; Pawan & Ortlof, 2011). Education, of course, is what TESOL professionals do: they may be in TESOL specifically, but they are in education generally. The third part of the theme, though, may give one pause: what is initiative, and what is its place in TESOL? Assuming from the conference theme that initiative plays a major role in TESOL, one might ask how it is viewed, or experienced, in a critical part of ESL teacher education, student teaching. A study was conducted the address this question.

A web search for the definition of *initiative* gets “about 595,000,000” results. The first result comes from Lexico “Powered by Oxford,” so it seems a good choice. Lexico lists four meanings of *initiative*, the first two of which seem most relevant: (a) the ability to assess and initiate things independently and (b) the power or opportunity to act or take charge before others do (*initiative* as defined at lexico.com). With no definition in the literature, we must rely on this one. Not only is there no formal definition or description of initiative in the literature, but very little has been written about the construct in TESOL or, for that matter, in education generally. Multiple searches on the topic yielded few results. Included in the search was the subject *professional dispositions*, under which the construct might expect to be found.

Three studies addressed initiative-related themes, two of them involving action or classroom research. Rinchen (2009) studied effects of “moving teaching and learning from teacher-centered classes to independent learning” in Bhutan. Participants were 28 first-year science student teachers, and data were gathered from a variety of sources. Rinchen (2009) found that participants were “more open to discussion and interaction,” and that their write-ups and views were “more analytical and reflective,” after the intervention. Roux and Valladares (2014) carried out a professional development (PD) needs analysis of secondary English language teachers in northeast Mexico and found that “stand-alone and degree courses” were the only PD activities that participants had experienced. Although most of the teachers indicated that training courses had a great impact on teaching, “some of them valued the impact of [PD] practices that involve autonomy, reflection and collaboration.” In a study of content area (CA) instruction in ESL student teaching, Micek and Spackman (2018) found initiative to be the single most important variable in teacher candidates’ preparation to deliver this type of instruction, with half of the participants indicating that, whether or not their cooperating teacher helped them, they had to prepare CA lessons on their own (p. 28).

Despite the lack of research into the topic, initiative has played a role in the evaluation of licensure candidates in the field. Praxis III: Classroom Performance Assessments for Beginning Teachers “comprises a system for assessing the skills of beginning teachers in their own classroom settings” (CGT&L, 2013). Praxis III has four interrelated domains, including Teacher Professionalism (ETS, 2000, p. 6). At my institution, education faculty changed that heading to Personal and Professional Qualities and developed five indicators for it (V. McCormack, personal communication, October 11, 2019), the second one being “Demonstrated initiative, responsibility, and self-directedness.” The evaluation was used in both early and methods field experience

Initiative, per se, is not part of student teaching evaluation in Ohio, but it is relevant. The Candidate Preservice Assessment of Student Teaching (CPAST) is “a valid and reliable formative and summative assessment” that is used by many educator preparation programs (EPPs) in the state. The assessment has two subscales, Pedagogy (13 rows) and Dispositions (eight rows), and each of the 21 rows contains detailed descriptors of observable, measurable behaviors to guide scoring decisions (TOSU, 2019). Within Dispositions, a number of different phrases are used to describe those behaviors, but only two of them, “Takes action(s) based upon identified needs while following district protocols” (part of Exceeds Expectations for T. Advocacy to Meet the Needs of Learners or for the Teaching Profession), and “proactively seeks opportunities for feedback from other professionals” (part of Exceeds Expectations for U. Responds Positively to Feedback), resonate with the idea of initiative.

Although initiative would seem to be important, then, very little has been written about the topic. The present study seeks to fill that gap in the literature by addressing the following questions:

1. How do student teachers, cooperating teachers, and university supervisors view initiative in ESL student teaching—and why?
2. How, if at all, do those views change over the course of the student teaching experience—and why?

## Method

### Participants

There were three sets of participants: two licensure candidates, or student teachers (STs); two cooperating teachers (CTs); and two university supervisors (USs). One candidate, Helen (like all names, a pseudonym) was a 35-year-old female. She was a non-native speaker of English (NNSE) who had eight years of experience teaching pre-kindergarten “and even younger students” and five years “mentoring preschool/prekindergarten teachers.” The other candidate, Edward, was a 28-year-old male. Like the remaining participants, he was a native speaker of English (NSE) who had 10 years of “part-time ESOL teaching, tutoring, and instructional assisting” experience. Both candidates were excellent students: each carried a GPA of 3.963 into student teaching. Helen did her student teaching at a suburban middle school, and Edward did his at an urban high school. Helen’s CT, Bev, was a 45-year-old female who had taught 16 years of middle school and high school ESL and Spanish. Edward’s CT was a 64-year-old female who had taught a variety of subjects, including high school Special Education (14 years) and ESL (19 years), for over 33 years. One university supervisor, Michael, was a 64-year-old male with 25 years of experience in ESOL teacher education. The other university supervisor, Angela, was a 70-year-old female with 35 years of experience teaching ESL and English and several years supervising student teachers. Only the former US was supervising student teachers during the semester studied; the other was included to expand university supervisor views of the topic.

### Materials and Procedure

Before student teaching, all participants were surveyed about their views of initiative in student teaching with a questionnaire. In addition to demographic information, the questionnaire asked participants to rate the importance of initiative in student teaching generally and on five individual criteria: Creating the learning environment, Planning for instruction, Delivering instruction, Assessment, and Professionalism. The individual criteria were drawn from four relevant TESOL assessments or standards: in alphabetical order, CCAST, edTPA (SCALE, 2016), Praxis III, and the TESOL standards for P-12 ESL teacher education (TESOL, 2010). (Except for the demographic section, the questionnaire is replicated in Results.) After student teaching, the STs and CTs were surveyed about the topic. Because only one of the USs was supervising that semester, no post-student teaching survey was administered to them. Results were analyzed for both general and individual ratings, including comments.

## Results

### *Student Teachers*

ST responses to the pre-student teaching questionnaire varied somewhat according to the type of criterion. On the general criterion, they were one score apart, with Helen giving it a 4 and Edward a 3. Helen's and Edwards's comments reveal both similarities and differences in the way they viewed initiative before student teaching. For Helen, student teaching involved initiative, but it also involved collaboration and transaction. The latter, however, would not occur without her taking initiative:

This is a bit of a subjective question. I take initiative with everything I do so this is natural for me. Student teaching is not about following directions and trying to adapt to the cooperating teacher's style. . . Student teaching is also about collaboration and exchange of knowledge. While there may be new things that I will bring to the classroom, my cooperating teacher will share her classroom experience with me and that is extremely valuable. Without me taking the initiative to ask questions and offer the latest educational perspectives, this exchange of knowledge may not happen. . . For Edward, student teachers must exercise initiative, but they must also take time to observe the classroom in which they have been placed:

Student teachers will get the most out of the experience if they take the initiative in asking questions of their CT and other school personnel, and initiating instructional activities with students, starting with one-on-one and small group activities, and eventually moving on to full classroom teaching. . .

However, . . . as someone who has done a fair deal of teaching without much observation, direction, or coaching from other experienced professionals, I am most eager to sit back and observe effective instruction from my CT...

Differences between candidate ratings of initiative are reflected in their views of the construct.

On the individual criteria, the candidates were closer, with Helen averaging 3.4 and Edward 2.9 (a difference of 0.5), yet they were two scores apart on two of those criteria, "Creating the learning environment" and "Professionalism." (Edward gave both a 2 and Helen both a 4.) Candidate differences on "Creating the learning environment" reflect their different understandings of the construct. "Without a question," Helen commented, "I want to make the

students feel positive and willing to learn when I am in their classroom.” Edward, on the other hand, includes physical aspects of the environment in his response:

If learning environment primarily means the classroom space and layout, then I believe I may take some initiative in this area, but not much. . .

If learning environment includes other things, such as fostering positive student attitudes towards learning, or facilitating cooperation and inclusivity in group activities, then I believe I have a far greater responsibility to exercise greater initiative in these areas. . .

It is not surprising that the ratings of the two STs were so far apart (two scores) on this criterion, given the different meanings they attached to the construct.

Because Helen made no comment, it is impossible to explain the difference between candidate ratings of “Professionalism” (two scores), but Edward’s comment explains why he gave it a 2:

I do not personally have much knowledge of how I can work on advocacy, communication, and professional development during my student teaching. I will initiate in asking questions of the CT and other school personnel about this, but at this time, I am unaware of what I can do to initiate professionalism. Of course, I have the full intention of fulfilling my responsibility to maintain professional standards of appearance, demeanor, and communication throughout my student teaching.

Clearly, lack of knowledge was responsible for Edward’s low rating of this criterion.

Results of the post-student teaching questionnaire were somewhat different. On the general rating, candidates were one-half score apart, with Helen checking 4, and Edward 3.5.

Comments indicate that the value of initiative depends on the CT. For Helen, it was productive:

Practicing initiative during student teaching is helpful and necessary. At the beginning, it helped me build rapport with my cooperating teacher and gain her trust. Seeing my confidence and independence in the classroom gave my CT reassurance that I am a partner she can trust and rely on. Having this type of relationship is important when you know that there is a whole semester ahead of you.

For Edward, however, initiative depends on (a) how one defines the term and (b) the relationship between the ST and the CT. “I’m a little unclear about these questions,” he begins, “because it depends on the definition of ‘initiative’ being used.” He gives the two Google definitions cited above and continues:

If the first definition is used, then I believe initiative is very important (4) to student teaching. . .

If the second definition is used, my answer may change to be somewhat less important (3 or less). If initiative is about power and taking charge before others, then I believe in certain student teaching experiences, this may be problematic. Some mentors may feel they want their class to operate a certain way, and if the student teacher “takes initiative” to change that, then there may be opportunity for conflict to arise. Other mentors may be more flexible, and even encourage student teachers to take initiative independently whenever they have the chance. It all depends on [whom] the candidate is working with, and in what context.

It may go without saying that for Edward, exercising initiative was “problematic.”

Results for the individual criteria were quite different: whereas Helen averaged 4, Edward averaged 2.8, a difference of more than a full score (1.2). Ratings were two scores apart on two individual criteria, “Planning for instruction” and “Assessment.” Candidates’ comments do little to explain differences on individual criteria: only Edward made them. For “Planning,” he wrote, “I tried to [initiate] planning for instruction but felt restricted by the demands of the cooperating teacher. In certain classes I was able to exercise more initiative, but not the full level of initiative I had hoped for.” For “Assessment,” he wrote, “I took initiative to build grading rubrics and assign score values to assignments. However, the requirements of those assignments were restricted to what the CT wanted.”

As Table 1 shows, ST ratings, both general and specific, changed relatively little over the course of student teaching. The general rating rose slightly, from 3.50 to 3.75, a difference of .25. Similarly, average scores on individual criteria rose slightly, from 3.15 to 3.40, also a difference of .25. One individual criterion, “Professionalism,” increased a full score from pre- (3.0) to post-student teaching questionnaire (4.0). This increase can be attributed to Edward, who gave “Professionalism” a 2 before student teaching and a 4 afterwards. This change is addressed below.



Table 1

*Pre- and Post-Student Teaching Questionnaires—Student Teachers*

Question	Pre	Post	Difference
1. On a scale of 1 to 4, with 1 being very little and 4 being a lot, how important do you think it is for candidates to exercise initiative in student teaching?	3.50	3.75	.25
2. Why do you think this is so? (Use as much space as you would like.)			
3. On a scale of 1 to 4, with 1 being very little and 4 being a lot, to what extent do you think you will exercise initiative in each of the following areas?			
a. Creating the learning environment	3.00	3.50	.50
Comment:			
b. Planning for instruction	3.25	3.00	-.25
Comment:			
c. Delivering instruction	3.25	3.50	.25
Comment:			
d. Assessment	3.25	3.00	-.25
Comment:			
e. Professionalism*	3.00	4.00	1.00
Comment:			
4. What else would you like to say about initiative in student teaching? (Use as much space as you would like.)			

\*This may include advocacy, communication, and professional development.

In his pre-student teaching questionnaire, Edward said that he knew little about how to “work on advocacy, communication, and professional development during [his] student teaching.” In his post- questionnaire, he explained his score as follows:

I took initiative to shadow at eight other schools in three districts as an opportunity for professional development at the end of my student teaching. I also found myself frequently advocating on students’ behalf when I found that they were not receiving the assistance they required. I also took frequent initiative to communicate with my CT and other school staff about a range of issues.

Interestingly, a significant portion of the initiative that Edward exercised in terms of professionalism appeared to occur outside, and at the end, of student teaching.

*Cooperating Teachers*

The CTs were fairly close in their ratings of initiative at the beginning of student teaching. They were one score apart on the general rating, with Bev giving it a 4, and Sue a 3. Their comments help to explain the difference between these ratings. Bev stresses the importance of student teachers believing in their teaching: “I believe [initiative is] so important because it’s hard to teach a lesson that isn’t your own. To be a good/engaging

teacher, I think it's so important to believe in what you're teaching; if you see the value, then the students are more likely to see it as well." Sue, on the other hand, sees the need for balance: "Student teaching is a time to learn and explore," she wrote. "There should be time to learn from the CT and . . . time to try new ideas and explore new ideas, technology, etc. Some routines should stay the same." Given their different views of initiative in student teaching, it is not surprising that Bev and Sue rated its importance differently.

The CTs were even closer on the individual criteria: Bev averaged 3.4, and Sue 3.6. They were never more than a score apart on these criteria, and they had identical scores (4) for two of them, "Delivering Instruction" and "Professionalism." (There was only one CT comment on the individual criteria. Bev, who gave "Creating the learning environment" a 2, wrote, "We were 1/2 way through the year, so the learning environment is already well-established.")

The CTs were also close in their ratings after student teaching. Their general ratings were the same (4), for reasons similar to the ones they gave before student teaching. Whereas Bev stresses engagement ("I think it is important for candidates to engage fully in the teaching experience"), Sue believes in balance ("I believe one of the best ways to learn is to ask questions and then try out the theory. Then adjust the process. This must be balance with listening and following advice"). Their individual ratings were similar, with Bev averaging 3.8 and Sue 3.4. They agreed on three of the five individual criteria, and they were only one point apart on the other two. They made no comments on these criteria.

As Table 2 shows, there was little change in CT views of initiative from the beginning to the end of student teaching. The general ratings increased by one-half score (from 3.5 to 4), and the averages of the individual scores remained the same, 3.5.

Table 2

*Pre- and Post-Student Teaching Questionnaires—Cooperating Teachers*

Question	Pre	Post	Difference
1. On a scale of 1 to 4, with 1 being very little and 4 being a lot, how important do you think it is for candidates to exercise initiative in student teaching?	3.50	4.00	.50
2. Why do you think this is so? (Use as much space as you would like.)			
3. On a scale of 1 to 4, with 1 being very little and 4 being a lot, to what extent do you think you will exercise initiative in each of the following areas?			
a. Creating the learning environment	2.50	3.00	.50
Comment:			
b. Planning for instruction	3.50	3.50	--
Comment:			
c. Delivering instruction	4.00	4.00	--
Comment:			
d. Assessment	3.50	3.50	--
Comment:			
e. Professionalism*	4.00	3.50	-.50
Comment:			
4. What else would you like to say about initiative in student teaching? (Use as much space as you would like.)			

\*This may include advocacy, communication, and professional development.

Final comments reveal differences between the student teachers as well as the cooperating teachers. Whereas Bev stressed the role of confidence (“My student teacher has so much confidence, and I think this confidence plays a part in exercising initiative”), Sue, again, wanted more balance (“I liked the initiative that was presented. I would have liked a little more listening. I feel he didn’t value some of my guidance”).

*University Supervisors*

The university supervisors agreed to a great extent about the role of initiative in ESL student teaching. Their overall ratings were the same (3), their reasoning was similar, and the averages of their individual ratings were close, 3.4 for Angela and 3.8 for Michael. Their scores were the same for four of the five individual criteria. The only criterion on which they disagreed was “Assessment.” Whereas Michael gave it a 4 and said, “I think [STs will do their own testing], but I have seen CTs get involved—and then there are standardized tests,” Angela gave it a 2 and said, “STs have quite a bit of freedom with informal assessments, but not much

[with] formal.” Angela’s final comment reveals the importance of both personality and team work in student teaching: “So much of the [ST’s opportunity] to use their own initiative depends on the personality of the CT and also how well they work together as a team, which no one can really judge accurately in advance. Some CTs are more willing to be flexible, others not so much.”

Michael made a similar final comment.

As Table 3 indicates, the importance of initiative increased slightly or somewhat for both student teachers (7%) and cooperating teachers (14%) over the course of student teaching. (Post-student teaching questionnaires were not administered to university supervisors.)

Table 3

*Differences Between Pre- and Post-Student Teaching Questionnaires—All Participants*

Participants	Pre-	Post-	Difference	Percent
ST	3.50	3.75	.25	7
CT	3.50	4.00	.50	14
US	3.00	--	--	--

Generally speaking, these differences are reflected in participant comments.

### Discussion

This study was conducted to investigate (a) how major stakeholders in ESL student teaching (student teachers, cooperating teachers, and university supervisors) view initiative and (b) how, if at all, those views change over time. Results indicate that (a) initiative is seen as (very) important by all stakeholders in ESL student teaching and (b) that its importance increases slightly or somewhat over time. (Although the overall ratings were generally very close, individual ratings were more varied, with some as much as two scores apart.)

Participant comments help to explain their ratings. They also reveal differences in the ways that major stakeholders view initiative in ESL student teaching. Before the experience, for example, the STs recognized the importance of initiative, but they also cited the importance of (a) “collaboration and exchange of knowledge” with, and (b) observation of the CT.

Afterwards, they wrote that the value of their initiative depended on (a) how the CT received it and (b) how the term is defined. Similarly, before student teaching, the CTs saw needs for STs to (a) believe in themselves and (b) balance their needs or desires with those of the CT.

Afterwards, they cited the importance of engagement as well as balance. The USs saw the same need for STs to balance their needs with those of their CT.

Because few related studies have been done, it is difficult to contextualize these findings, but they appear to confirm the work of Rinchen (2009), Micek and Spackman (2018), and Roux and Valladares (2014), especially the latter, who found that some teachers “valued the impact of professional development practices that involve autonomy, reflection and collaboration.” The same might be said of the participants in this study.

These results must be interpreted carefully, given the study’s limitations (and weaknesses). First, the main construct of the study, initiative, was not defined for participants, who were asked to respond to questionnaires about the topic. (Initiative was not defined in the study because it is not defined in the literature.) Having different definitions of the construct may have led participants to respond differently about it. Second, the study had a small number of participants—only two student teachers, two cooperating teachers, and two university supervisors. A larger number of participants would produce more robust findings. Furthermore, being graduate students, the student teachers are not representative of all student teachers: they are older and typically more mature than most undergraduate student teachers. Finally, although the responses of each participant must be taken seriously,

it is important to recognize that these responses reflect not just the individuals involved but the relationships between them, especially those between CT and ST.

Despite these limitations, these findings are important. Although dispositions are an important part of TESOL, and initiative would appear to be a disposition, little research has been done on the topic. This is a first look at the topic, and it may also serve as a blueprint for other dispositions. The study indicates that although the primary stakeholders in ESL student teaching—student teachers, cooperating teachers, and university supervisors—play different roles in the process, they have similar, though not identical, views of the role of initiative in the process.

Theoretically speaking, this study may have established a link between initiative and effective student teaching: both student teachers exercised a high level of initiative and both got A's in the course. It also raises questions about a variety of factors in ESL student teaching, including teaching philosophy, personality, and experience. Practically speaking, if TESOL educators are aware that (a) CTs and STs may view initiative differently, that (b) these views may depend, in part, on the relationship between these parties, and that (c) these views may change over time, they will be better prepared to mentor student teachers. Ultimately, these educators will be able to help their students “Collaborate! Educate! Initiate!”

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# What Teachers Want: Trust, Time, and Targeted Teaching

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*Abstract:*

This paper describes perceptions of teachers of children from infants through grade five, regarding challenges, supports, and lessons learned. Data sources include a survey of 17 teachers in Fall 2019 and interviews of 14 teachers from January – March 2020. Inductive analysis revealed several themes: Teachers feel confident in their ability, but teacher preparation programs did not sufficiently prepare them for challenging behaviors or working with diverse learners. Teachers love teaching, but are challenged by paperwork, low compensation, low appreciation, higher expectations, and increased mental health issues. Teaching is a difficult job to do with fidelity, and relationships are integral to success.

*Keywords:* teacher challenges, teacher perceptions, teacher supports

As recently as 2019, the Economic Policy Institute reported a shortage of teachers (García & Weiss, 2019a). Indicators of this shortage included decreasing enrollment in teacher preparation programs, teaching vacancies across states, and a gap between available teachers and the vacancies. A shortage of teachers has implications for the profession and for PreK-12 students. Without sufficient teachers, student needs may go unmet, and there may be instability in the workforce. Recruiting and training new teachers comes with an economic cost. In addition, teacher shortages influence the reputation of teaching and efforts to professionalize teaching. Factors, such as the

quality of teachers, need be taken into consideration and lead to the conclusion that the shortage is even more dire than anticipated (García & Weiss, 2019a). Credentials associated with effective teaching include certified teachers prepared in traditional programs, five or more years of experience, and an educational background in their primary teaching assignment. Higher credentials serve as a deterrent to attrition. The number of teachers who lack experience and have alternative preparation is growing. The impact of shortages is worse in high poverty schools. Teachers who stay in high poverty schools tend to be even less qualified (García & Weiss, 2019a).

Teacher recruitment and retention is an important issue. One factor in attracting teachers to the field and keeping them there is compensation. Taking into account education and experience, teachers earn less than those with similar education levels in other professions. This “teacher wage penalty” has increased over time and is more acute in high poverty schools (García & Weiss, 2019c). Working second jobs to make up for the monetary gap can be stressful. Some opportunities exist within the school system, such as mentoring teachers or coaching student activities. These “profession building” tasks can allow for building relationships with schools and colleagues. Jobs outside of the school system may result in more stress and disconnectedness from the school. Teachers who tend to leave the profession have lower salaries and fewer opportunities to earn additional funds through the school system (García & Weiss, 2019c).

School climate also plays a role in teacher shortages. The work environment and working conditions influence job satisfaction. Some issues are societal such as insufficient funding for schools, poverty, inequity, and the racial and economic segregation of schools (García & Weiss, 2019d). While prepared for many classroom challenges, some barriers teachers face fall outside of preparation and expectation. Absenteeism, challenges with family involvement, poor student health, and disengaged students pose challenges to school climate. Teachers feel stressed and unsafe with 1 in 20 indicating that the stress is not worth it, and 1 in 5 reporting having been threatened by a student in the school (García & Weiss, 2019d). Relationships also shape school climate. Less than

half of teachers felt supported by administrators, colleagues, or the community. Eighty percent identified that they did not feel that they have a voice in school policies. Often, with the poor school climates come low job satisfaction, motivation, and intention to stay in the profession. The work environment makes the profession less appealing. Research has shown that teachers who quit reported high stress, lower collegiality, and lower influence on decision-making (García & Weiss, 2019d). Additionally, poor school climate made teaching more challenging, keeping some from pursuing the profession and others from continuing in it.

Educators continued to face a series of crises in 2019 and 2020. In 2019, job vacancies, along with the declining availability of qualified applicants, high rates of teacher turnover, and teachers leaving the field altogether, created a crisis in staffing (García & Weiss, 2019b). Another crisis that emerged in 2020 was the COVID-19 global pandemic: “The health emergency forced the closing of schools all over the country, sending over 55 million K-12 students and about four million teachers home for the remainder of the school year” (Garcia, 2020). Teachers rose to the challenge and parents indicated an increased appreciation for the work teachers do (Garcia, 2020). However, the pandemic resulted in a loss of education jobs. Education employment is not where it needs to be to keep up with enrollment (Gould, 2020). Looking forward, cuts in school funding may lead to further decreases in supports and additional teacher shortages (Gould, 2020).

It may be a challenge to keep teachers who are in the field from burning out. There is a connection between teacher burnout and a range of factors including low self-efficacy, low job satisfaction, poor physical health and increased levels of intention to leave the profession (Arens & Morin, 2016). Teacher burnout may include emotional exhaustion, feelings of inefficacy, and indifference. Emotional exhaustion may lead to less effective classroom management, difficulty engaging students in positive relationships, and lower levels of academic achievement. Raising awareness for new teachers for coping strategies and prevention of emotional exhaustion may be important (Arens & Morin, 2016). In a review of 11 studies on self-efficacy and burnout, all showed

a negative relationship between self-efficacy and burnout, and 10 found a negative correlation with self-efficacy and emotional exhaustion (Brown, 2012). Teaching can be a stressful occupation; however, if teachers have high self-efficacy or confidence in their abilities related to student engagement, classroom management, and providing effective instruction, then the impact of that stress may be lessened (Collie, Shapka, & Perry, 2012). Perhaps information from in-service/current teachers can help aspiring teachers, as well as inform administrators and policymakers regarding what teachers want and need.

### **Methods**

Data sources included an anonymous survey of 17 teachers of children from infants through fifth grade, completed in fall 2019 and interviews of 14 teachers of children from toddlers through fifth grade interviewed from January – March 2020. Guest, Bunce, and Johnson (2006) found that after 12 interviews, no new themes or information arose. Morrow (2005) also identified 12 participants as a sufficient number in qualitative research where quality, depth, and variety are more important than sample size. In addition, fewer than 20 allowed for more in-depth interviews for inductive, exploratory research (Crouch & McKenzie, 2006).

Survey respondents and interviewees work in the greater Cincinnati area. Of the teachers surveyed, one attended an online program, and one received alternative certification. All others attended traditional teacher education programs. Survey participants included one male and 16 females, one black teacher, and 16 white teachers. Three of the teachers ranged in age from 21-30. Five ranged in age from 31-40. Three were 41-50, and six were 51-60.

All teachers interviewed were identified as female. The racial composition consisted of two black teachers, one biracial teacher, and 11 white teachers. 13 teachers taught in public schools, and all attended traditional teacher education programs. The number of years teaching ranged from less than 1 to more than 20 with the majority having more than 15 years of experience.

After transcription of the data, qualitative inductive analysis followed. Beginning with a thorough reading of the data, it was reviewed line by line and systematically coded. Coding included identification of frames of analysis and developing domains grounded in relationships within the frames of analysis (Hatch, 2002). Framing analysis around barriers and supports, domains within the frames of analysis included strategies (how), motivators/supports (why), and barriers/areas of advocacy (what). Units of meaning or themes were identified in order to find common patterns that emerged. By examining the answers to questions posed from the survey, abstractions were made through the analysis of the data (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

### **Results**

The key themes that emerged from the data are the love of teaching (motivator), the difficulty of teaching, insufficient preparation, overreliance on standardized tests, and the lack of trust in teachers (barriers/areas of advocacy), and the importance of relationships (both a strategy and a support).

#### **Love of Teaching**

Teachers emphasized both an enjoyment in the act of teaching and a belief that those who do not love it should not do it. Teachers were still teaching in the classroom because they loved it and could not imagine doing anything else. They enjoyed the variety and challenges they encountered and believed in their work. They wanted to advocate for children and make a difference. After schools closed due to the pandemic, one preschool teacher summed up her feelings of loss saying, “You don’t realize how much you love your job until you can’t do it anymore.” One piece of advice for new teachers that was given by a participant was to be clear about and to remember why they entered the profession: “It is not just a job.”

Because I love what I do. The physical act of teaching is so enjoyable. The physical act of being with these little people is so enjoyed. Yeah. That is just the most, wow. It. There’re very few things in life that I think can give you the joy of, like, how they stand up to give me a hug. –fourth grade teacher

Just can't imagine doing anything else. Like, yeah, I like that there's a structure to the day. Um, but I like that every day is different. Like, I can't imagine going somewhere and doing the same thing every day. –second grade teacher

I just feel like I do benefit a lot of kids. I feel like, especially in this district, they don't see black teachers, um, and they won't see many of them throughout. And so I do feel like it is a plus for them because they have a different perspective they're hearing from, um, you know, someone who has some, you know, different things to bring to the table. But that's making them stronger and making them, um, you know, more well-rounded. So that probably is what keeps me here in the classroom. Just knowing that I'm impacting so many lives in that realm because I know they're not going to get what I bring to the table from my experiences [otherwise]. –first grade teacher

“I stick around because I love it. I really believe in what I do, I believe in this center, I believe in the work that we're doing.” – preschool teacher

If you're in this track and you don't like it, you're never going to like it any more than, like, when you're learning to be a teacher, because you're still in college, which is awesome. Um, and you're getting to try teaching out don't have that full load yet. You don't have all of it on your shoulders yet. And so, if you don't like it when you're just trying it on for size, you're not going to like it when it's your full deal. –preschool teacher

As the participants noted, teachers continue teaching because they enjoy and value what they do.

Teaching is part of who they are, and doing another job is not something they can imagine. There is a passion for teaching and a pride in their profession.

### **Difficulty of Teaching**

While teachers love their jobs, they wanted people to know how challenging it is. The teachers identified that teaching was an around the clock job, a difficult job to do with fidelity, and stressful overall.

I just wish they can spend a day in my shoes and see. Yeah, it's hard. This is not easy work. If you're doing, if you're doing it with fidelity, it's not easy work. It could be really easy, but if you're doing it the right way, it's not going to be, and a lot of people were like, oh, you get the summers off, blah, blah, blah. Yeah. Okay. It's not just a job. It's also, like, an emotional toll as well as, you know, kiddos, the stress, and when they move away, it's hard. –second grade teacher

I think just being mentally prepared for how mentally draining it is. At the end of the day, I feel like my brain has run a marathon. I wouldn't change it, but just being mentally prepared for that. –first grade teacher

You have to be really, really passionate about it. Because that's about the only thing that's rewarding. It's hard to, like, even think, you know, high schoolers or children who are really going to deeply remember their teachers. You might get, you know, a visit back from a student or something. We're with them at the very start, and there's so much that I love about that. That's where I want to be. But there's no payoff there, at all. It's not like you get to watch them graduate... unless their family's kind of hold, hold the torch for you, they're going to forget you, and that's okay. Like it is not all about us... some of them will come back and visit you for the first few years, but then off they go. And I'm like, it's like starting a book that you'll never get to finish over and over and over again. –preschool teacher

[I wish people understood] what differentiation is and how when I go to work, I am not just going and teaching one lesson to the class. All day it's multiple lessons and different lessons and it's exhausting and a lot of work. People think it's a lot of fun and games. – anonymous survey respondent

Teachers also highlighted the difficulty of teaching by explaining their thoughts about the reasons for teacher shortages.

There's, you know, zero prestige. There's no agency, and it's an ungodly amount of stress. Like you're having to do emotional labor for like 20 people at a time, and you're managing every single child's emotional climate, their interaction with you, their interactions with each other, whatever interaction you have with any other teachers you're working with, any families that come in, any other providers that come in, the freshman who comes in for volunteering for an hour, like the amount that you have going on. It's intense. It's exhausting. –preschool teacher

The challenges they discussed included lack of compensation and appreciation, along with higher expectations, an increase of challenging behaviors in the classroom, and students' mental health issues without increased supports.

### **Insufficient Preparation**

Teachers feel confident in their abilities; however, they felt that their teacher preparation programs did not adequately prepare them to deal with the challenging behaviors they encountered or for working with the range of diverse learners in their classrooms. They wished they had learned more about or spent more time on the following: special education/special education laws, challenging behaviors/classroom management, dealing with trauma, deep reflection, social emotional learning, equity and inclusion, working with diverse students, and accommodating different needs/planning based what you know about students. Teachers explain what they wish they would have known:

So, I would say I wish I would have known, um, that there's more to teaching than executing a lesson plan. Like how to plan for the lesson based on what you know about your students. So, whether it's in case studies, methods, or experiences, I just really wish that there would have been more opportunities to practice getting to know a student to decide what they need to be taught and then actually getting to teach them. –second grade teacher

You have to treat social emotional learning just like you would be teaching reading, just like you'd be teaching writing. It has to be explicit and has to be intentional. It has to be broken down. And when you're dealing with K-2 or K-3 students, I feel like a lot of times we sometimes just take for granted that they know that skill or have that skill. But many times, they don't. –First grade teacher

I think understanding, like, if you're a K-3 certified teacher, understanding, um, at least the foundational content. Like what is phonics? What does phonemic awareness mean? What are phonemes? How do you blend sounds together? What is segmenting? Like those are things that I learned when I did my masters in literacy, but those were not things that I was equipped with when I got hired to teach first graders. All the subjects knowing like we don't carry, we don't borrow. That is not the second-grade math curriculum. They have to know tons of strategies, but they come in and they don't know any of those strategies. So, I think focus on course content for the primary grades or whatever your certification is. And because it's really impossible to plan a lesson based on student needs if you don't know what they need, like decoding strategies and teachers don't have that, right? You can do a running record analysis, but if you don't understand why, they're making the mistakes they're making or what type of mistakes they're making, it's hard to plan for future instruction. –second grade teacher

Teachers felt competent in skills developed over time but wanted more preparation on meeting student needs upon entering the field. This included differentiating instruction, supporting social emotional learning, and stressing the importance of content knowledge.

### **Overreliance on Standardized Tests**

Participants stressed that effective assessment should help teachers get behind a student's thinking. They could plan when it was clear why students were making mistakes and why they were succeeding. Teachers did not feel this kind of information came from standardized tests, and noted that there was too much emphasis placed on standardized tests.

Paying attention to what kids are doing and paying attention to what their next steps might be, whether it's because they're struggling or because they need to be challenged. – second grade teacher

Test scores aren't everything. You can't measure a child's success by a standardized test. – second grade teacher

The teachers focused on what they could do to support students. Reducing a child to a test score did not prove to be useful, informative, or accurate. They were instead interested in attending to students processes, attempts, and language.

### **Lack of Trust in Teachers**

Teachers explained that they wanted administrators, policy makers, and the general public to listen to them and include them in educational decision making.

As an administrator, do not ever forget what it's like to be the teacher in a classroom. And you can say 'student first' all you want, but it cannot be student first if it's not teacher first



too. Because if you don't give your teachers the support they need, then they're not going to be able to give the kids what they need. –fifth grade teacher

You know, from the policy perspective ... there's no trust in the teachers. Yeah. Um, there's no trust on the children. And so, there's no trust in the teachers. There's no trust in the families. There's no trust in any of it. –preschool teacher

Listen to the voices that are in the trenches. If you've lost your fire/passion, GET OUT.

Teachers need administrators that have backbones, who will stand up for the staff and the best interests of the kids in the building. Systematic changes are necessary and possible but will require a strong leader. If children cannot be blamed for the chaos of the world, every adult needs to evaluate what we're doing!" –anonymous survey response

Dear general population, just because you went to school, at some point in time, does NOT make you an expert on education. –anonymous survey response

Teachers wanted administrators, policy makers, and the general public to spend a day in their shoes in order to understand the efforts and energy that goes into effective teaching. They wanted to be heard, included, and supported. Teachers were frustrated about the decisions being made for them and about things being done to them instead of with them. They wanted to be trusted and viewed as experts in their field.

### **Importance of Relationships**

Not only do relationships matter, but they are also integral to success with families, students, other teachers, and other education professionals. Building relationships with colleagues helps teachers deal with stress.

You just, you have to find your group and it's got to be teachers because they're the only ones that get it. –fifth grade teacher

...working with friends, I think that's makes a big difference. That makes a huge difference. –second grade teacher

So, it's helpful to have coworkers you talk to about it .... you know, to say the insane things that are happening. Yeah. Out loud too. Like people who get it right. Like I tried to tell my husband at home, and he's just like, you know. If you're outside of your profession, people don't always get, like, why this is funny or why that was so intensely frustrating. –preschool teacher

Relationships with peers helped manage stress, and relationships with students helped teachers be effective. Small group instruction allows teachers to build relationships with their students. Students can get more targeted, thoughtful attention based on their needs and interests. This takes additional time, but teachers find it valuable. Teachers noted that small group work is impactful, and given more time, and resources, it is the strategy teachers would use more often.

Small group instruction, small strategy groups, and personalized learning were mentioned as effective strategies and favorite lessons. These favorite lessons were ones that were enjoyed by both students and teachers. They were generally active problem-solving activities that were collaborative and required building relationships among the children. Favorite lessons shared included hands-on science activities, mini society, personalized learning projects, series book club, active lessons, explain thinking, collaborating, and project work. Building relationships with students also helped with classroom management. Teachers noted that challenging behaviors required knowing children well and using a wide range of proactive strategies and logical consequences. Some thoughts from participants included:

Know that a child's misbehavior is never personal.

Can I just say not the color charts or the flip charts please? Yeah, that seems like common knowledge, but it happens so much. Not in this building, but I mean my son's school, in a different district. It's all over the place, and I don't understand why.

I think making sure that there are clear and consistent expectations to start with and never, like, revisiting the expectations. Um, sometimes ignoring works but not giving them the attention they're seeking. ... A warning, a logical consequence. We do a lot of Responsive Classroom and I would venture to say that in second grade, the logical consequences might look differently than the logical consequences that a kindergartener or a first grader might encounter."

One key thread throughout the data was the role of relationships. The teachers identified that it often began with their relationship with teaching as a profession. Teaching was part of who they were: they loved it, and they could not imagine doing anything else. Relationships with their students motivated them. Building relationship with students helped inform assessment, facilitate classroom management, and enable small group interactions. Relationships with families also helped teachers meet the needs of their students. Teachers' relationships with other teachers helped them feel supported and deal with the stresses associated with teaching. Connecting with colleagues is important because they are the only ones who "get it." Professional development was most appreciated within learning communities with other teachers or other professionals. Teachers valued positive relationships with school administration who provided opportunities for choices in professional development, rather than blanket professional development for all. Finally, positive

relationships with administrators, where teachers feel respected and heard, enabled them to feel supported.

### Discussion

The significance of this research is that it may serve to support preservice teachers. This study may add to the body of knowledge about factors that contribute to teacher retention and attrition. The study provided the participants with an opportunity to have a voice and to share experiences. Focusing on relationship building, as well as advocating for the time and space to grow as educators, may inform ways to provide supports for teachers.

Most of the data collection occurred before schools were closed as a result of the global pandemic. One teacher who interviewed a week after her school building had closed indicated how much she missed her students and that she loved her job, once again emphasizing the role of relationships. Despite the timing, lessons from teachers interviewed before schools closed intersected with lessons from teaching during the pandemic. Smaller group sizes continued to be preferred as teachers engaged students. Teachers called for less emphasis on testing and more emphasis on relationships. When school buildings closed, teaching did not stop. Teachers found ways to connect with their students.

Relationships remained paramount, and evidence from the teacher dialogue and engagement on social media during the pandemic echoes the thoughts shared by the teachers in this study. One of the teachers interviewed mentioned that the work of Dr. Brad Johnson resonated with her. On March 26<sup>th</sup>, a tweet with this statement, “Relationships before Rigor, Grace before Grades, Patience before Programs, Love before Lessons (Johnson, 2020)” received 1.4K likes and 818 retweets. The Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO, 2020) quoted Tabatha Rosproy, “Teaching fosters ingenuity and empathy. COVID-19 may have closed our doors, but we have the skills to continue connecting with our students. This isn’t ideal, but we are still teaching our hearts out.” On April 28<sup>th</sup>, in a National Teacher of the Year twitter chat, dialogue occurred around the following

question, “What are some of the lessons we have learned from this pandemic that can be used as we return to school?” (Robinson, 2020). Responses mentioned the importance of feedback, relationships, awareness of disparities, and the need for Universal Design for Learning. Consistent with the teachers interviewed for this study, there was pushback on the need for standardized testing. Chanda Jefferson, South Carolina Teacher of the Year 2020, noted, “Teachers all over the state and nation are working harder than ever to ensure that students are learning with fewer regulations, such as waived accountability measures. Perhaps, educational leaders and policymakers should consider relaxing some of those requirements forever” (Jefferson, 2020). One teacher emphasized the importance of schools saying, “Public schools provide vital community services like childcare, regular meals, counseling, social services, and even healthcare in addition to providing each child with a high-quality education, in a safe and nurturing environment. They are essential to our American way of life” (Sams, 2020). Perhaps the most powerful message from teachers before and during the pandemic is to trust them and listen to them: “Trust teachers. Trust students. Trust families. Collect the stories of what is working, and re-commit to those. Examine what isn't working and be okay with letting go of the things that no longer serve our [students]” (Rosproy, 2020).

### **Conclusion**

The crises continue to span the range from teacher shortages to global pandemics, and teachers continue teaching. The teachers surveyed and interviewed for this study expressed a love of teaching, the benefits of relationships to facilitate effective teaching, and the challenges faced by teachers, which may, in part, stem from the public not listening to or trusting teachers. Conversations on social media occurring after the study echoed similar themes. In consideration of *why this matters* and *what the next steps might be*, the silver lining perhaps comes with the notion of “possibility.” Love (2020) encourages us to consider what was suddenly possible during the pandemic. She noted how we were forced to trust teachers as states set aside standardized testing.

Districts provided laptops for students, and companies provided free internet. The public recognized and relied on teacher creativity and pedagogy. The public valued the importance of families.

Superintendents called for flexibility and compassion over compliance. Urging us to keep that same energy as we move into the future, Love emphasized that we cannot go back (Love, 2020). In a

YouTube conversation, Dr. Love asked some important questions: “Why did it take a pandemic to see the humanity in teaching? Why did it take a pandemic to see how extraordinary this job is? Why did it take a pandemic to see that we needed resources?” (Love, Muhammad, Simmons, & Jones,

2020). It may be difficult to address those questions, but teacher educators and school

administrators can examine the lessons from teachers and attempt to provide teachers with the tools, resources, time, and space. Allow teachers to do the work they love.

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# Elementary School Principal Perceptions of Multi-Optional Response Plans for Active Shooter Drills

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## *Abstract:*

Active shooter drills in public schools are mandated by state legislation. Elementary principals are required to prepare students and faculty for these potential risks. In certain states school districts may require principals to use a multi-option response plan for active shooter drills. There are two prominent multi-option response plans: Run-Hide-Fight or Alert Lockdown Inform Counter Evacuate (ALICE). This phenomenological research investigates the perceptions of principals on the use of multi-option response plans before, during, and after active shooter drills. The researcher determines six central themes from the qualitative study for ( $n = 7$ ) elementary principals. The six themes were the following: principals must communicate before, during, and after the drill, principals must collaborate with school resource officers, principals observe increased anxiety levels among students and faculty, principals support their staff with effective decision making during the drills, and principals need to determine what level of the active shooter drill is age appropriate. The culmination of all six themes results in elementary principals desire to have more training with executing a multi-option response plans for an active shooter drill.

## **Introduction**

One of the primary goals of any school principal is to create a safe learning environment for faculty and students, and ensuring that students and faculty are safe takes much time and effort. On

an annual basis, principals are mandated to create and facilitate fire, tornado, reunification, and bus safety plans and drills. Also, state legislators require school administrators to implement and practice active shooter response plans. The percentage of schools in the United States with active shooter response plans increased by 13 percent since 2004 (Musu et al., 2019, p. 110). Currently, over 90 percent of schools in the U.S. have safety plans and procedures in the event that a school shooting occurs (Zhang et al.). Changes in the emphasis for how schools prepare for an active shooter have motivated school districts to examine different models of active shooter response plans in conjunction with local law enforcement. Elementary principals are charged with training and coordinating active shooter drills with faculty, students, and other stakeholders.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Since 1999, U.S. schools have experienced three major mass shootings: Columbine, Sandy Hook, and Marjory Stoneman Douglas (Campbell, 2018; Hayes & Bohatch, 2018; Sandy Hook Advisory Commission, 2015). These shootings became the catalyst for educational leaders to evaluate their overall school safety plans and examine interventions or resources that could decrease stakeholder casualties and reduce fear among parents (Blad, 2018; Cuellar, 2018). To address stakeholder fear and attempt to limit casualties in a tragedy, many schools have adopted different models of active shooter response plans. States require principals to implement a traditional lockdown or a multi-option response plan (M.O.R.), such as Run-Hide-Fight or A.L.I.C.E., which is an acronym for Alert, Lockdown, Inform, Counter, and Evacuate. Both response plans have the same premise in mind: providing faculty and students with safety options. Although over 5,000 school districts in the U.S. have adopted a multi-optional response plan, some educational stakeholders have resisted or rejected using this type of approach for active shooter drills (Herron, 2020). The resistance among teachers has escalated to the point that some are pursuing litigation to cease active shooter drills. Recently, eight Indiana elementary school teachers filed a complaint against the White County Sherriff's Department for shooting staff with pellet guns, laughing, and

joking with them during an A.L.I.C.E. Drill (Herron, 2020). Teachers stated that this experience was traumatic and caused "emotional injuries" (Herron, 2020).

The other plan that is used as a response among stakeholders for an active shooter drill is a lockdown. A traditional lockdown plan is defined as removing students, staff, and patrons in a school building from an active shooter by “turning off all lights, move[ing] as far away from the doors, minimize[ing] physical exposure and seek[ing] protective cover, remain[ing] calm and quiet, wait[ing] for an all-clear from an established or credible source” (Trump, 2011, p. 213). As elementary school principals are charged with facilitating multi-option response plans for active shooter drills, scholars are unaware of the challenges and barriers these building leaders encounter among stakeholders.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to investigate the perceptions of multi-option response plans for active shooter drills among elementary school principals in Illinois and Ohio. Multi-option response plans for active shooter drills focus on training and providing staff and students with options to be safe with a goal to minimize casualties among stakeholders (King & Bracy, 2019). School principals in the Midwest are typically required to conduct at least one active shooter or law enforcement drill during the school year (School Emergency Management Plan, 2017; School Safety Drill Act, 2017). As 70 percent of school buildings conduct active shooter drills, some districts opt to pivot from a traditional lockdown approach to a multi-option response plan. This phenomenon warrants further investigation (Campbell, 2018; Jonson et al., 2018). This study attempts to describe elementary principals’ experiences. These leaders are responsible for coordinating and facilitating a multi-option response plan for an active shooter drill.

### **Literature Review**

In the literature related to this analysis of school safety, elementary principals are responsible for preventing potential school violence (Selekman & Melvin, 2017; Cowan et al., 2013). Elementary leaders believe that “working in an elementary school somehow protected” principals from violence (Baltes, 2013). However, after the tragedy at Sandy Hook, where 26 people were killed, 20 of whom were children, parents around the country demanded increased school safety measures (Blad, 2018). As a result, various educational stakeholder groups, including elementary principals, started to organize and formulate potential solutions to prevent future school shootings.

A Framework for Safe and Successful Schools (2013) was an examination by a team of education stakeholders including counselors, social workers, school resource officers, and principals to address safety concerns and improve mental health among students (Cowan et al., 2013). One strength of the Framework for Safe and Successful Schools emphasized the importance of school principals providing a safe learning environment. The scholars claim that principals should create school safety teams, identify gaps in services for students, and provide professional development on school safety (Cowan et al., 2013). However, what was missing from the Framework for Safe and Successful Schools was to define the action steps elementary principals should take to prepare faculty and students for an active shooter drill. To address the various gaps between current safety practices, professional development, and the compelling interest to prevent school shootings and minimize casualties, states created School Safety Task Force teams (School Safety Task Force, 2018).

In 2018, under Ohio Governor Mike DeWine’s leadership, a School Security Task Force was created in response to a school shooting at Chardon High School. The task force comprised police officers, school administrators, and mental health professionals (School Security Task Force, 2018). For that reason, the task force created an “Active Shooter Response Guide: An Administrator’s Guide” (School Security Task Force, 2018). As a result, the task force created 25

videos and response plans for school principals and other personnel to help schools appropriately prepare for a violent school shooting. The 25 videos and response plans are:

Planning with law enforcement, coded language, lockdown, lockout, shelter in place, evacuation, calling 911, duties of responding officers, reunification, recovery, window placards, barricade locks, duties of a rescue task force, what to expect when law enforcement arrives, stay safe, moving the injured, caring for the injured-bleeding, caring for the injured-airway, caring for the injured-tension pneumothorax, caring for the injured-hypothermia, school safety plan requirements, plan development team, vulnerability assessment, capability assessment, review and revise existing plans (School Safety Task Force, 2018).

The 25 action steps listed by the Ohio School Safety Task Force (2018) inserts specific language suggesting that faculty and students, under the leadership of principals, “should” practice barricading classroom doors and operate “stress-induced” drills with faculty and students. Specifically, response item 12 suggests that principals “should conduct drills with trained responders using barricade locks or materials available in the classroom to secure doors” (School Safety Task Force, 2018, p. 13). As governors mandate school principals to prepare students for an active shooter incident by suggesting that principals use a multi-option response plan, these educational leaders are challenged with balancing the school's academic mission while preparing faculty and children for a potential violent event. Specifically, school leaders will have to facilitate active shooter drills that may cause trauma to students and faculty, ultimately leading to resistance from teachers’ unions and parents. Robb (2020) claims that “students are being traumatized” by active shooter drills, which lead to increased anxiety. For that reason, teachers in Indiana who participated in a mandatory active shooter drill at school pursued legal action (Sawchuk, 2020). Teachers were shot with rubber bullets and suffered welts and bruises, along with experiencing post-traumatic stress disorder (P.T.S.D.) (Sawchuk, 2020).

The primary question that still needs to be explored was how school principals perceived implementing multi-option response plans for active shooter drills in the midwest region of the United States. This study satisfied the gap by using hermeneutic phenomenology, which structures building principal perceptions of using multi-option response plans for an active shooter drill.

Scholars have claimed that “active shooters in schools” have increased over the years, causing “psychological” trauma and death (Bonanno & Levenson, 2014). Consequently, legislators require elementary school principals to coordinate active shooter drills using multi-option response plans despite knowing that stakeholder groups may view such drills negatively, as they often cause more harm than good (Jonson, Moon, & Hendry, 2018; School Safety Task Force, 2018). The sample group of elementary principals for this investigation was selected due to the lack of research. By collecting insight from administrators that use a multi-option response plan for an active shooter drill, school districts can improve safety and hopefully support building administrators with additional training and support.

The primary question that warrants an answer is how elementary principals perceive multi-option response plans for active shooter drills in Ohio and Illinois. The research explores the gap by using hermeneutic phenomenology, which may help shape and construct the perceptions of elementary building principals.

### **Method**

A phenomenological method was the preferred approach. It met the investigator’s needs and provided information from elementary school principals who experienced leading active shooter drills while using a multi-option response plan (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Hermeneutic phenomenology research uses interviews to collect data (Lauterbach, 2018). The researcher used a constructivist structure to discover the perception of active shooter drills with a multi-option response plan among elementary school principals located in Ohio and Illinois. Phenomenology seems appropriate for the researcher and offers the best means to collect information from school administrators who have experience coordinating active shooter drills with a multi-option response plan (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

In this research, the investigator used a “social constructivist” perspective to help understand the “world in which” elementary principals “live and work” (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 8). This

investigation did not consider narrow meanings assigned to categories but the complexity of interpretations (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 8). The investigator did not begin the study with a theory in mind but looked for patterns or commonalities from the categories throughout the investigation. Research questions were left open-ended to allow elementary principals to share their views and create meaning of the circumstances. Once the investigator interviewed the elementary school leaders, the researcher interpreted statements shaped by principals' professional history and backgrounds. Qualitative research, at times, is interpretative. The investigator's "intent is to make sense of (or interpret) the meanings others have about the world" (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 8).

### **Research Questions**

According to Creswell & Creswell (2018), a "social constructivist" study desires to have "open-ended" research questions so that "individuals develop subjective meanings of their experiences" (p. 8). Participant interviews were semi-structured. The researcher used three primary epistemological questions to facilitate discussion and clarify questions if more explanation was needed (Saldana, 2016). In order to determine perceptions of using a multi-option response plan for an active shooter drill among elementary school principals in Ohio and Illinois schools, the following semi-structured interview questions were used:

1. How has the implementation of multi-option response plans changed your perceptions on school safety and response for an active shooter drill or event?
2. How has the implementation of multi-option response plans affected students, faculty, parents, or other patrons?
3. What other aspects would you like to share pertaining to your perspective on multi-option response plans for active shooter drills and school safety?

### **Participants**

Based on his experience as an elementary principal and teacher in an urban public school district that utilized multi-option response plans for active shooter drills, the researcher solicited urban public-school districts in Illinois and Ohio. The reason why these two states were selected were twofold. First, the researcher is a retired principal from Illinois and has a prior professional connection to six Illinois urban school district superintendents whose schools utilize a multi-option response plan for active shooter drills. All six superintendents were selected, but only one granted permission to allow the researcher to solicit elementary principals. As a current university professor in Ohio, the researcher was aware of 12 area urban school districts that used a multi-option response plan for active shooter drills. The researcher emailed 12 urban Ohio superintendents. Two of the superintendents granted permission to solicit elementary principals in their school districts. Next, the researcher emailed 33 elementary building principals in the three school districts. Seven principals agreed to be interviewed for the study. This certified that participant conditions in this study were met for each principal (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

All school administrators have at least one or more years' experience as an elementary principal and received training in a multi-option response plan. Four of the participants were males, and the other three were females. Two principals had over ten years of building leadership experience, and all seven principals were Caucasian. The principals' feedback was paramount when examining the implementation of multi-option response (M.O.R.) plans for active shooter drills in Ohio and Illinois.

### **Data Collection**

Data for this research were collected from seven urban elementary school principals in Illinois and Ohio. Participants were selected by the researcher based on school districts known to use a multi-option response plan, prior relationships, and convenience based on geographic location and access to conduct face-to-face interviews. All seven participants had at least one or more years of full-time principal experience and prior training using multi-option response plans for active



shooter drills. Their school districts previously trained all seven elementary principals in A.L.I.C.E. or Run-Hide-Fight multi-option response plans. More importantly, the building leaders experienced facilitating and conducting active shooter drills while using a multi-option response plan.

Participants' involvement was paramount when exploring M.O.R. plans for active shooter drills in urban elementary schools in Ohio and Illinois.

In their interviews, elementary principals shared the stories of their perceptions of M.O.R. implementation in urban public elementary schools. The investigator elected to use "member checking" to validate the study's reliability (Birt et al., 2016, p. 1802). Next, the researcher sorted elementary principals' words and phrases using Focused, In Vivo, and themeing the data (Saldana, 2018). These three coding methods correspond with phenomenological research (Saldana, 2018). The themes in the research aligned with the literature review. As the investigator was coding, he repeatedly assessed the phrases and statements to deduce six common themes.

## **Results**

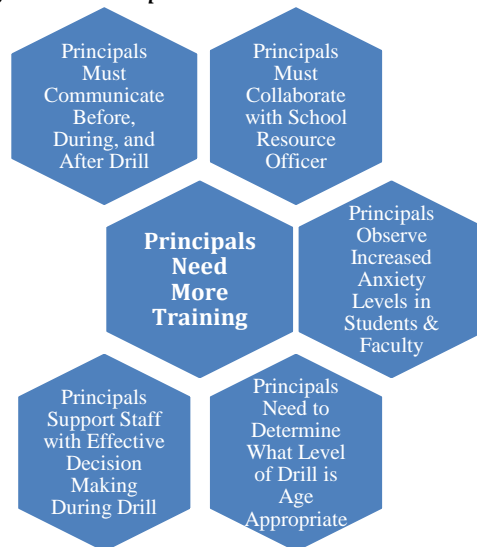
In this research, the investigator explored the perceptions of using multi-option response plans for active shooter drills among elementary school principals. The themes that surfaced from principals revealed that building leaders have immense responsibilities when conducting a multi-option response for active involvement. The information collected in this investigation helped to answer the three research questions that guided this study about how the implementation of multi-option response plans for active shooter drills alters principals' perceptions on school safety, affected students, faculty, and other patrons, and any other aspects that principals wanted to share regarding school safety.

The results from this research were supported by the literature related to the challenges and tasks that building principals confront with leading multi-option response plans for active shooter drills. Principals in this investigation revealed their experiences of their perceptions of M.O.R. implementation in Illinois and Ohio. The investigator's use of checking and sorting statements and

words using In Vivo, Focused, and theming the data helped verify the six themes present in the findings. Not all themes in this study aligned with previous research, as new themes emerged from the data. After the coding, the investigator analyzed the data. Six themes emerged from the data, as shown in Figure 1.

### Figure 1

#### *Six Common Themes from Principal Interviews*



*Note:* The six common themes among school principals result in school leaders requesting additional training in using multi-option response plans for active shooter drills.

### **Findings, Conclusions, and Implications for Elementary Principals and District Level Leaders.**

Elementary school principals have an obligation and duty to create a safe, positive, and achievement-oriented learning environment (Cowan et al., 2013, p. 10). In the first three months of school, Ohio principals are mandated to create a school emergency management plan in collaboration with law enforcement, parents, teachers, and unclassified staff and submit this document to the Ohio Department of Education. (Ohio Administrative Code 3301-5, 2017).

The most prevalent theme, principal communication, appeared to be the primary essential component for a multi-option response plan for an active shooter drill. In this study, elementary principals (n=7) devised communication plans for all stakeholders before, during, and after the drill. A healthy communication plan is essential for principals as they “communicate all the ways they

work to keep their schools safe and explain how safety-related decisions are made” (Blad, 2018, p. 5). The challenge for school districts and, more importantly, school principals is to ensure that every student, parent, faculty, and community member is informed about the purpose and the level of implementation of a multi-option response. Each principal in the study used multiple vehicles and platforms to communicate with their constituents ranging from voice blasts, e-blasts (emails), and social media platforms such as Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram.

The study’s evidence suggests that building principals may benefit from more in-depth training with multi-option response plans for active shooter drills. Current educational leaders receive minimal school safety training in principal preparation programs in higher education. School administrator programs at the university level typically focus on leadership areas on curriculum design, examining student achievement data, and instructional leadership (Davis, 2016). All areas mentioned above are essential to the effectiveness of building principals. However, gaps between preparation programs and the “real jobs” of principals remain. (Davis, 2016, p. 9). Researchers found, through a national survey of principals, that only 20 percent of elementary principals stated that university courses “related to” their current administrator role (Goldring & Taie, 2019, p. 21). To minimize the gap between university preparation and job performance, building principals may receive training from central office administration that pertains to school safety. Scholars have discovered that over 80 percent of principals participate in professional development; however, school safety as a professional development activity was not cited as one primary reason (Goldring & Taie, 2019, p. 4). The same researchers also discovered that over 90 percent of elementary principals perform drills and have written plans for an active shooter or lockdown (Goldring & Taie, 2019). However, research has demonstrated that most school principals lack awareness and expertise in implementing effective emergency plans and require additional support (Cray & Weiler, 2011). Goldring & Taie’s (2019) findings correspond with the

results from principal interviews in this study that additional training from experts in multi-option response for an active shooter drill is needed for all educational stakeholders.

In this research, elementary principals have experienced an increase among classroom teachers identifying students as a potential threat since implementing active shooter drills and multi-option response plans. The culmination of active shooter drills in schools increased media coverage of school shootings. An increase of teachers being threatened with physical harm by students deserves attention among school districts and building leaders (Musu et al., 2018; Long, 2019). Scholars have discovered that students threaten less than ten percent of teachers annually, but only 48 percent of teachers are trained to identify the “early warning signs” of students exhibiting violent behaviors (Musu et al., 2018, p. 17). When teachers identify students as threatening, they claim that the student has either made a threat toward another student or staff member or exhibited early warning signs such as listening to aggressive music, playing violent video games, and having an obsession with weapons (Sawchuk, 2019). Researchers have shown that schools using a threat assessment protocol may substantially reduce a severe threat from turning into action (King & Bracy, 2019). Principals and teachers need to use caution when determining what students warrant a threat assessment. Sawchuk’s (2019) study revealed that parents might have “concerns” about their child participating in the threat assessment process as it is a form of “profiling” (p. 7). For school leaders to reduce the negative stigma with a student threat assessment, principals genuinely have to focus on communication and develop positive relationships with parents and students (King & Bracey, 2019, p. 287).

### **Limitations**

The research is descriptive and makes an effort to express insights into elementary school principals (n=7) in two different states where multi-option response plans are used for an active shooter drill. One limitation of this study is that interviews rely on participants to provide candid

and factual answers to research questions. There is little assurance that the participants' answers correspond to the truth.

A second limitation of this study is that the sample size was relatively small. Increasing the number of elementary principals across the country and securing leaders from different educational settings, such as rural areas, may provide additional insight. The challenge with securing more school administrators for an interview is that many of them were consumed with leading a building daily. A third and final limitation to the study would be to include secondary school principals, specifically middle/junior high school principals, that use a multi-option response plan for an active shooter drill. Principals serving students at the middle/junior and high school levels may have other challenges, such as students making social media threats or posts (Rogers, 2019). Based on the principals' statements in this study, a student's age is a factor that determines the extent or level at which a multi-option response plan is used for an active shooter drill. The challenges for educational leaders implementing a multi-option response plan for an active shooter drill are limited as little research exists to support what "type of drill schools should endorse" (Jonson, Moon, & Hendry, 2018, p. 1). School principals have to determine what type of multi-option response level is reasonable or extreme while making sure that faculty and students are prepared for an active shooter (Dorn, 2013).

Regardless of the limitations, the research produced findings that warrant further investigation in the phenomenology of principal perspectives on using multi-option response drills during an active shooter drill. As new state legislative mandates for public education and school safety are adopted, school boards and superintendents will create policies and practices which building leaders must implement with faculty and students. When school safety policies are altered by the central administration and the board of education, principals must be consulted and provided an opportunity to discuss the impact that a policy change may have on the learning environment.

Scholars have claimed that school superintendents may support their building principals with policy

implementation by “understanding their experiences, perceptions, and concerns” (Derrington & Campbell, 2015, p. 14). School superintendents should collaborate with building principals as these leaders are the “cultural link for successful policy implementation” (Derrington & Campbell, 2015, p. 12). This study’s findings attempt to explore elementary principals’ perceptions and the impact that integrating a multi-option response plan for active shooter drills has on their leadership positions.

### **Conclusions**

All educational stakeholders, including law enforcement, are responsible for the safety and wellbeing of students in schools. The purpose and adoption of any school safety plan are to provide a school community where children can thrive. Every parent is confident that their child will return home to them at the end of a school day. When school districts decide to implement new safety measures such as multi-option response for an active shooter drill, school principals are responsible for the induction, training, and reporting of the safety measure. In reviewing elementary school principals’ perceptions when using a multi-option response for an active shooter drill, the evidence illustrates that principals have many tasks and responsibilities to consider before, during, and after such a drill. Principals have some autonomy concerning a multi-option response plan; however, they are mandated to perform such drills during the school year. The challenge for principals is to prepare their students, faculty, and school community for a mass shooting without creating fear and anxiety among their stakeholders. As school districts assess whether or not to continue with a multi-option response for an active shooter drill, it is paramount for school principals to participate in the discussion among central office administration.

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## The Global Impact of Teacher Development through International Immersion

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*Abstract:*

Teachers can meet the challenges of globalized classrooms with proper support, resources, and professional development. Teacher educators and teachers can productively collaborate to internationalize U.S. classrooms. This paper will describe the research of a Fulbright-Hays grant that focused on internationalizing K-12 and higher education classrooms. The author will share program goals, methods of data collection, and findings. The focus is on creating internationally-minded global educators.

*Keywords:* teacher development, internationalization, global classrooms, immersion

As student demographics in our classrooms continue to change due to the increase of English learners and international students, teacher education must play a crucial role in preparing pre-service and practicing teachers to meet the challenges of globalized classrooms. Shaklee and Baily (2012) write, “We limit the potential opportunities for U.S. teachers and subsequently students when we are not able to prepare them to understand the shifting political, economic, and social landscapes that are dominating this increasingly shrinking world” (p. 1). Going Global, the international immersion program described here, helped address that need.

The Going Global program was created to address several current issues in the field of teacher education: 1) At least 75 percent of teachers in the United States are white, Anglo-European females; 2) Less than 10 percent of teachers in the United States speak a language other than English; 3) Participation in study abroad is low for education students; and 4) Teachers cannot teach the capacities and dispositions of intercultural competence without first developing them themselves. Consequently, the goals and objectives for the program were as follows:

- 1) to expand participants' use and ability in a non-English language through intensive Spanish language study
  - a) to increase the use of non-English in reading, writing, and speaking
  - b) to increase the use of non-English in course revision
  - c) to identify strategies to address power and dominance in the relationship between indigenous and colonialist languages
- 2) to develop intercultural competence through immersive experiences
  - a) to increase intercultural competence
  - b) to build relationships with international colleagues
  - c) to recognize Peruvian history, cultures, and populations
- 3) to interrogate educational issues at home and abroad using critical pedagogy
  - a) to increase understanding of critical pedagogy
  - b) to increase understanding of internationalizing education
- 4) to internationalize education using a multiplicity of perspectives
  - a) to increase instructional strategies for international students
  - b) to increase types of assessments
  - c) to increase the number of perspectives addressed in course
  - d) to increase the number of resources used in course

This paper will describe the research framework and organization of Going Global, a recently received and implemented Fulbright-Hays grant from the U.S. Department of Education that focused on internationalizing K-12 and higher education classrooms. First, the author will describe the theoretical framework. Next, the author will describe the program and the methods of data collection. Lastly, the author will share their findings. The focus of the program was on creating internationally-minded global educators.

### **Theoretical Framework**

“Critical researchers have political intentions to transform social inequalities” (Willis et al., 2008, p. 52). This transformation cannot occur if one is globally unaware. Once one is aware, then one can interact across cultures. As the world becomes more interconnected, the educational challenges to develop individuals who exhibit intercultural competence is becoming increasingly more important (Branche, Mullennix & Cohn, 2007; Brewer & Cunningham, 2009; Gurung, 2009; Stearns, 2009). Consequently, contemporary students can be taught to examine beliefs, stereotypes, and values as they develop the capacity to negotiate, collaborate, and positively interact with their peers with various perspectives and backgrounds (Bartolome, 2002; Bartolome, 2004; Byram, 1997; Byram 2008; Deardorff, 2006; Garcia, 2004; O’Dowd & Waire, 2009). Educators of all levels must develop the capacity to address those educational challenges, leaving the obligation to teacher education programs. However, Shaklee and Baily (2012) suggest that although the last decade has shown an increased recognition for the need to internationalize teacher education programs, very little has been accomplished. This provides an opportunity for rich work to be done in internationalizing teacher education.

Because 75% of teachers are Anglo-European females and fewer than 10% are fluent in a language other than English (Shaklee & Baily, 2012), it is difficult—if not impossible—to

meet the needs of an increasingly diverse and global student population. This year-long program, which included a short-term immersion, began with university faculty and local K-12 teachers who were interested in exploring language study and cultural immersion in order to impact their classrooms. Kolar (2012) notes, “The internationalization of both pre-service and in-service teacher education requires the development of relevant curricula, pedagogy, and teacher educators who can nurture these capacities in the nation’s teacher corps” (p. 22). Consequently, the previously listed objectives addressed curricula, pedagogy, and capacities.

The development of relevant curricula, pedagogy, and capacities is evident in Snowball’s (2007) definition of an internationally minded educator. They are as follows:

1. An understanding of the international context of education, appreciating both the unique profile of each school and the diversity amongst education systems, as well as roles played by major educational organizations, regionally and globally.
2. A value for students’ multilingual abilities and demonstrated understanding of the processes involved in language acquisition and development in the first and subsequent languages.
3. The employment of strategies that facilitate the academic achievement of students from diverse cultural groups.
4. Familiarity with international student characteristics, including state theories of development, age-level characteristics, and student variability in learning; and
5. Sensitivity to the difficulties transition can cause and, in addition to handling personal stresses effectively, skilled in supporting parents and students.

The goal of the Fulbright-Hays program, Going Global, was to create internationally-minded educators by moving beyond traditional, local views of multicultural education to a greater emphasis on international perspectives. This has become a movement past local notions of race and class to global understandings of cultures, religions, and language. Teacher educators are keenly

aware that they are often preparing new teachers for classrooms that have changed drastically since they began their own teaching careers years ago: “Layering upon the already troubled nature of some schools, the complexity of immigration, the tensions that arise with students of multiple countries, perspectives, attitudes, and experiences, hampers teachers’ ability to teach effectively” (Shaklee & Baily, 2012, p. 3). This program offered an opportunity for K-12 teachers and teacher educators to work together, collaborating on identifying and implementing ways to internationalize university and K-12 classrooms to better meet the needs of students in both spaces. Teachers and teacher educators were able to learn symbiotically, each one informing the other. Through this program, participants hoped to examine educational issues such as assessment, socioeconomic differences, curriculum, pedagogy, and language learning through the lens of internationalizing our teacher education programs.

### **Methods**

The program was designed in collaboration with two universities, one in the United States and one in Peru. As the program director, I had previously partnered with the Peruvian university for a short-term study abroad program and a Collaborative Online International Learning (COIL) project. I had also visited the university a number of times. What follows is a description of the collaborating partners, the organization of the program, and the types of data collected.

### **Context**

Although many miles apart, both universities have much in common. Xavier University is a Midwestern, Jesuit university and part of the global network of approximately 189 Jesuit universities. The partner school in Lima, Peru, the University Antonio Ruiz de Montoya (UARM), opened in 2003, inheriting a long tradition of Jesuit education in Peru and Latin

America. Both are Jesuit Catholic universities rooted in the liberal arts tradition. The mission of both is to educate each student intellectually, morally, and spiritually. Driven by a commitment to the common good and to the education of the whole person, the universities challenge and support students as they cultivate lives of reflection, compassion, and informed action. Both institutions are committed to faith and justice, working for the excellence in human and professional formation in order to achieve a free, inclusive, and sustainable society. They promote open and free inquiry in order to prepare students for a world that is increasingly diverse, complex, and interdependent. They both offer a quality education focused on ethics, creativity, and social responsibility, which are supported by research, collective reflection, and committed actions intended to solve contemporary problems, while promoting individual and collective wellbeing.

### **Organization**

The year-long project consisted of three phases: pre-departure, overseas, and follow-up. Three pre-departure orientation meetings were held on Xavier's campus in the three months prior to departure and included an evaluation of intercultural competence. In addition, participants were provided reading materials and engaged in discussions about the texts. The four-week in-country phase took place at the University Antonio Ruiz de Montoya (UARM) with three weeks in Lima Peru, and one week in Cuzco, Andahuaylillas, and the Sacred Valley. The follow-up phase of the project included an evaluation of intercultural competence, three meetings on campus to debrief about the experience following the seminar, and collaboration on internationalization efforts with regards to course revision projects and dissemination events. The seminar aligned with the goals of the Fulbright-Hays Group Projects Abroad Project Type 1, which were to promote the integration of international studies into the social sciences and humanities curriculum throughout U.S. school systems at all levels, to increase linguistic and cultural competency among U.S. students and educators,



and to focus on a particular aspect of area study, specifically the varieties of cultures in Peru. The aforementioned goals were accomplished through K-12 teachers and teacher educators working together with a common goal.

With in-country support from the University Antonio Ruiz de Montoya, we conducted the short-term immersion experience in Peru, focusing on the role of culture and internationalization in education. The year-long study, including the four-week immersion, was offered to 12 participants. This group was comprised of 11 K-12 in-service teachers, two of whom were adjuncts at the university, along with one full-time Xavier University teacher education faculty member. No other teacher educators applied.

The itinerary was organized according to weekly themes. The first week's theme was the Local Cultural Context, which included university lectures and city tours. The second week's thematic focus was Educational Issues, which included school visits and meetings with K-12 teachers. Week three was the Internationalization Project when participants worked on course revisions and collaborated with colleagues. Because travel occurred during week four, the thematic focus was Multiple Cultures and Perspectives in Peru, which included travel to the Andes Mountains, time with an indigenous community, and visits to historical and cultural sites.

More specifically, the immersion began in Lima, Peru, a bustling city of over ten million people. For the first three weeks, participants lived with host families and studied different parts of Lima to get to know this urban, coastal city. The thematic focus for week one was that participants gain an understanding of the local context of UARM and then the larger city of Lima. Participants walked to UARM each day to engage in Spanish language study in the morning, and then spent the afternoon visiting different areas, sites, and schools. Participants attended lectures regarding various cultures of Peru and kept daily journals.

The thematic focus for week two was that participants closely examine the educational issues in Lima and their implications for teaching. Participants met with UARM teacher education

faculty and visited a variety of K-12 schools around the city, meeting educators to discuss schooling. They also continued their daily Spanish language study.

The thematic focus for week three was that participants concretize ideas they were having with regard to internationalizing education in the U.S. Participants continued to engage in Spanish language study and worked on their projects to revise courses. Participants chose a course or discipline and incorporated several hours into each day where they worked to internationalize their curriculum. This was time in which participants analyzed what internationalizing a classroom meant and how it would be implemented in their classrooms.

The thematic focus for week four was on the multiple cultures and perspectives in Peru. While continuing their language study, participants traveled to Cuzco to acclimate to the altitude of the Andes and to begin learning about indigenous cultures and the related educational challenges. They traveled to—and studied in—the rural village of Andahuaylillas, where they continued to learn about indigenous cultures and Jesuit social projects that impacted educational opportunities. Next, participants visited cultural and historical archeological sites throughout the Sacred Valley (e.g., Pisac, Ollyantaytambo, and Machu Picchu) in order to study the historical and cultural contexts.

### **Data Collection and Analysis**

The project's comprehensive evaluation plan consisted of both quantitative and qualitative data. Data were collected before, during, and after the program. For example, during the pre-departure phase, an outside evaluator administered the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI), which was used to measure participants' intercultural sensitivity, identifying each participant's location on the ethnocentric-ethnorelative continuum. The continuum ranges from Denial to Polarization to Minimization to Acceptance to Adaptation, which shows the range from a monocultural mindset to an international or global mindset. The IDI is a statistically valid, 50-item theory-based online tool and a reliable

assessment of intercultural competence. It was developed using rigorous psychometric protocols with over 5,000 respondents from a wide range of cultures. The IDI Group Profile helps one gain insight into how a group makes sense of and responds to cultural differences and similarities. The individual profile revealed how a person responds to cultural differences and provided a developmental indicator of each participant's level of cultural competence. The underlying assumption of the model is that as one's experience of cultural differences becomes more complex, one's potential competence in intercultural interactions increases.

In addition to the IDI, pre-program surveys were also used to evaluate participants' intercultural competence. Before leaving for Peru, preliminary language assessments were given to participants by the UARM instructors in order to get a basic idea of the group's proficiency in Spanish. This would help them decide which level of Spanish each participant would be learning and help UARM determine how many Spanish language educators to hire.

Additionally, during the in-country experience, the group participated in sessions devoted to ongoing reflection and evaluation four to five times a week. This allowed for the group to identify trends and changes in perceptions, to make connections to teaching, and to unpack cultural and social differences. With regard to language study, once in Peru, more in-depth language assessments were given to participants that included grammar, vocabulary, speaking, reading, writing, and listening. At the end of the in-country experience, participants completed a survey and provided feedback regarding all project personnel, guest lecturers, and key personnel in Peru, in addition to the language educators. I did not have access to the feedback collected by UARM. Also, before leaving Peru, post-language assessments were given to participants by the in-country instructors. I did have access to that data, which is explicated in the results section.

Upon return to the United States, the project goal of intercultural competence was measured by administration of the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI), measuring

changes in participants' intercultural sensitivity, identifying where on the ethnocentric-ethnorelative continuum the participants were positioned. As part of the follow-up sessions, there was a general meeting so that the evaluator could share the group results and discuss the IDI. She also offered each participant a debriefing meeting to capture the participants' perspective on their learning experiences.

To foster reflection and provide qualitative data, participants were asked to do a journal harvest, choosing four journal entries they had written during their immersion. They were then asked to write an explanation as to why they chose those entries. Using critical discourse analysis, I analyzed what themes emerged from their journal harvests. "Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is a form of discourse analysis that is inspired by the thinking of Derrida, Habermas, Gramsci, and Marx, among others," which highlights issues of power and structural inequalities (Willis et al., 2008, p. 52).

Six months after the program, participants self-generated a list of changes they had made in their classrooms/courses (instructional strategies, multiple perspectives, assessments, and new texts/resources). They then met to discuss the changes, how they shared new information with students, how they transformed their teaching, and where and with whom they disseminated what they had learned.

## **Results**

Each of the objectives were measured differently. While some of the original plans for measuring outcomes had to be revised for various reasons, I was able to analyze the participants' learning that occurred during the program. This section examines the outcomes of each goal.

### **Goal One**

*To expand participants' use and ability in a non-English language through intensive Spanish language study.*

- *To increase the use of non-English in reading, writing, and speaking*
- *To increase the use of non-English in course revision*
- *To develop strategies to address power and dominance in the relationship between indigenous and colonialist languages*

The first goal and objective established for this grant project was to expand participants' use and ability in a non-English language through intensive Spanish language study. This could be done by increasing the use of non-English in reading, writing, and speaking, increasing the use of non-English in course revision, and/or developing strategies to address power and dominance in the relationship between indigenous and colonialist languages.

The results for the first goal set of expanded use and ability in non-English language have been impressive and inclusive of each of the objectives within this goal. The immersive experience clearly resulted in an improved language ability in all participants. As a group, the mean of the overall Spanish Language Assessment increased significantly when comparing the pre- and post-assessments. The group mean increased from 47.25 (out of 100) to 66.83, an increase of almost twenty percent. While these results demonstrate a significant increase for the group, a review of the sub-scores on the examination reveal even more detail. Each of the sub-scores (Grammar, Reading, Listening, Writing, and Speaking) demonstrated a marked improvement by the group, ranging from a 7.4% increase to 32.8% increase in the individual sub-scores. The improvements were more than 20% for the group mean in Grammar, Reading and Speaking, which can be directly connected to language use during the immersive experience, while the other areas increased but at a rate of less than ten percent.

### **Table 1**

*Language Examination Sub-scores by Percentages*

Item	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Scale	Improvement	Percentage
Overall	47.25	66.83	100	19.58	19.58
Grammar	6.92	13.48	20	6.56	32.80
Reading	11.00	15.33	20	4.33	21.70
Listening	10.00	11.48	20	1.48	7.40
Writing	11.75	13.67	20	1.92	9.67
Speaking	7.58	12.67	20	5.09	25.45

This language growth in just one month of an immersive experience is noteworthy. According to recent estimates by the U.S. Department of Education, “More than five million school-age children in the United States (more than ten percent of all K-12 students) are English language learners” (National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, 2006). Since the majority of teachers in the United States do not speak a language other than English, and consequently do not truly understand the intricacies and challenges of language learning, the seminar participants engaged in three hours of daily intensive Spanish language learning at the host university Monday through Friday for the first three weeks, and then daily conversational language study during travel and excursions the final week of the seminar. The language learning was differentiated, depending on the participant’s prior knowledge, and also included cultural components. All participants demonstrated growth in their ability to use Spanish (Appendix A). These results are also reflected in a review of the individual scores on the assessments, where at both the overall scores and sub-scores, each participant showed no decrease in performance from pre- to post-score. Additionally, the objectives under the first goal were addressed through the use of journal entries by participants.

Moreover, the participants were exposed to the indigenous language of Quechua when working with children in Andahaylillas and when interacting with the communities that live in the Andes. The goal was for there to be an increase in the use of non-English reading, writing, and speaking in participants’ curricular projects. Moreover, the goal was to increase the use of

non-English in course revisions and to develop strategies to address power and dominance in the relationship between indigenous and colonialist languages in order to expand participants' use of and ability in non-English language through intensive language study. Few reported doing this in their course revisions, and, consequently, this goal was not met.

With regard to increasing their Spanish use, I calculated the number of Spanish words used in the journal entries submitted. The results are as follows:

**Table 2**

*Number of Spanish Words in Journals*

<b>Name</b>	<b>Number of Spanish Words</b>
Beth	100
Jimmy	100
Tori	30
Laura	972
Alex	40
Jill	600
Nina	300
Jen	40
Darius	300
Julie	200
Meredith	NA
Jamie	75

I found that 97 percent of the journal entries from the participants included non-English words, with the only entries which did exhibit non-English words coming prior to the onset of the experiences. The mean number of Spanish terms used in journal entries by the group was 260, including journal entries made prior, during, and after the experience. The use of Spanish terms in journal entries saw an increase of 40 percent when comparing pre- and post-immersion journaling.

The increased use of non-English in course revision was demonstrated through drafts submitted by the participants, with each participant submitting and revising curricular projects which utilized non-English terms. In addition, each participant conducted at least one

event to promote internationalization, which included language learning, upon returning from the experience. There were 19 events, and some participants partnered on events, with 342 participants for a mean of 18 participants per event. The final aspect of the first goal, to develop strategies to address power dominance and the relationship between indigenous and colonialist languages, was addressed by the participants both during and after the immersion experience. Each participant interacted with Quechua by speaking with students in the Andean School as well as by visiting historical sites in Cuzco and the Sacred Valley. The impact of these experiences was evident in the journal entries of the participants and the events they organized upon their return. Every participant discussed the interaction and differentiation between Spanish-speaking and Quechua-speaking educational experiences in their journals. In the events organized by participants, each event provided at least one mention of the experience differentiated between Spanish and Quechua students, while one-third did so in a more passing manner, two-thirds of the events approached the idea substantially and directly.

## **Goal Two**

*To develop intercultural competence through immersive experiences.*

- *To increase intercultural competence*
- *To build relationships with international colleagues*
- *To increase ability to recognize Peruvian history, cultures, and populations*

The second goal was to develop intercultural competence through immersive experiences.

This objective could be met when participants increased intercultural competence, built relationships with international colleagues, and increased their ability to recognize Peruvian history, cultures, and populations. As mentioned earlier, this was measured in multiple ways: the IDI triangulated with other data.



The second goal, developing intercultural competence through immersive experiences, and accompanying objectives were measured through the use of the Intercultural Development

Inventory (IDI). As previously mentioned, the IDI is a statistically valid, 50-item theory-based online tool which provides a reliable assessment of intercultural competence. It was developed using rigorous psychometric protocols with over 5,000 respondents from a wide range of cultures, and the IDI Group Profile assists in gaining insight about how a group makes sense of and responds to cultural differences and similarities. The IDI produces a result that is placed numerically on a scale from 55 to 145, which includes five areas:

- Denial – Score of 55 to 70
- Polarization – Score of 70 to 85
- Minimization – Score of 85 to 115
- Acceptance – Score of 115 to 130
- Adaptation – Score of 130 to 145

Also, any score within five points of the next area is designated ‘on the cusp’ of that area; for example, 110-115 would be on the cusp of acceptance.

In addition, IDI generates scores in two distinct areas labeled as “perceived” and “developmental.” The perceived score refers to how the group sees themselves and their cultural competence level. The developmental score refers to how the group demonstrates behaviors that bridge across differences. On the perceived measure, the group orientation scores from the pre- and post-experience testing moved from 122.49 (acceptance) to 128.27 (cusp adaptation), indicating a clear increase. On the developmental measure, the group orientation scores from the pre- and post-experience testing moved from 95.97 (minimization) to 107.73 (minimization). While this increase did not cause movement to

another level, it did cross the midpoint of the scale. While this may not seem significant, a wider review of the result proves to be revealing.

The result on the developmental measure of the IDI reveals a more robust impact on the development of the participants. On the pre-test, the highest score for any individual bordered on the cusp of acceptance, while some individuals were at the range of polarization. On the post-test, the highest scores were in the highest range of adaptation, while the lowest were on the cusp of minimization. The following table shows the results of 11 participants.

**Table 3**

*IDI Developmental Measure*

<i>Range</i>	<i>Pre-Test</i>	<i>Post-Test</i>
Polarization	1	0
Cusp of Minimization	2	1
Minimization	7	5
Cusp of Acceptance	1	2
Acceptance	0	1
Adaptation	0	2
Total Participants	11	11

Before the experience, the participants showed that they perceived themselves to be further along on the continuum than their behaviors suggested (Appendix B). The majority were in the minimization stage. According to the IDI evaluator, it is typical for participants to initially perceive themselves as being further along on the continuum than their surveys show. The IDI post-results showed that the team moved from seeing the world through a monocultural mindset in May 2017 to seeing the world through a more global/intercultural mindset in August 2017 as there had been movement of 11.76 points on the continuum (Appendix C). After the immersion in Peru, individually and as a group, participants improved their cultural competence according to the results of the IDI.

Participants developed their intercultural competence in four ways. First, during the pre-orientation phase, participants examined, reflected on, and discussed the cultural iceberg model (Hall, 1976) and the juxtaposition of the tourist versus the sojourner (Byram, 1997), which

encouraged the analysis of one’s cultural practices, products, and perspectives. During the overseas phase, the participants personally experienced the demands placed upon the learner as they were pushed out of their comfort zones to negotiate a new cultural learning context. Third, participants completed individual course revision/curricular projects that related to advancing the awareness of global learning in their K-12 and university classrooms, enhancing existing courses and perhaps designing new immersion experiences. Fourth, participants maintained a daily reflective journal and attended regular meetings to reflect together as a group in order to gain an understanding of the linguistic and sociocultural implications in the classroom and of the types of learning activities that lead to integration and transformation. Cushner (2012) argues:

There is every indication to suggest that the majority of today’s teachers and teacher education students fall on the ethnocentric side of this scale and may not, without further education, have the requisite disposition to be effective intercultural educators or possess the skills necessary to guide young people to develop intercultural competence (p. 45).

Therefore, participants worked to increase intercultural competence, build relationships with international colleagues, and increase their ability to recognize Peruvian history, cultures, and populations in order to develop intercultural competence through immersive experiences.

Additionally, the second goal, especially the third element (to increase recognition of periods of history and various cultures) was measured through the use of a pre- and post-experience self-assessments. In the areas of popular culture, familial norms, history, politics, poverty, and education, the post-experience surveys reported at least a 95% increase on the five-point scale. In the areas of Incan civilization, history, and religion, there was a smaller increase between 39% and 65%. The table below provides the results of 12 participants on a five-point scale (1 being the lowest).

**Table 4**

<i>Range</i>	<i>Pre Test</i>	<i>Post Test</i>	<i>Percent Increase</i>
Popular Culture	1.42	3.25	129.41
Familial Norms	1.58	3.83	142.11
History	2.17	3.58	65.38
Incan Civilization	2.75	3.83	39.39
Politics	1.42	2.75	94.12
Poverty	1.92	3.75	95.65
Education	1.42	3.75	164.71
Religion	2.17	3.41	57.69

The final element of the second goal (to build relationships with people from the host country) is apparent throughout the experiences reported by the participants. Each participant shared a personal biography with their homestay family and interacted with a number of teachers and students throughout the immersion period. However, the most powerful measure of the impact for the participants were the intentions mentioned in their journals. Each participant referenced detailed ideas for future uses of technology to support intercultural interactions. These ideas were not mere mentions of intent; these were concrete ideas for specific connections to future lessons and courses of study.

### **Goal Three**

*To interrogate educational issues at home and abroad using critical pedagogy*

- *To increase understanding of critical pedagogy*
- *To increase understanding of internationalizing education*

The third goal, to interrogate educational issues at home and abroad using critical pedagogy, was measured through a combination of a study of materials, visits during cultural immersion, and experiences upon return. Each participant reported that they read all of the material provided from the article “Rethinking Education as the Practice of Freedom” (Giroux, 2010) and the book *Internationalizing Teacher Education in the United States* (Shaklee & Baily, 2012). While the original assessment plan proposed to measure the number of pages read of

each work, the participants reported directly, as well as mentioned directly in their journals, that each of them had read all of the material. The manner in which these ideas were internalized by the participants was also apparent in the dissemination of learning events organized upon their return to the United States. Nine of the eighteen events organized used the phrase “international education” in the title and made direct connections in the overviews provided to participants. Two events used the terms “culturally responsive” and “culturally diverse approaches” while other events utilized the phrases “global education philosophy” and “Peruvian culture” in their titles. In each case, the events demonstrated a realistically applied understanding of both critical pedagogy and internationalization of education. As previously indicated, these 19 events had 342 total participants with a mean of 18 participants.

When analyzing the journal harvests, three themes emerged: personal growth, reflection, and culture. The majority of the participants focused on personal growth, using the term repeatedly. Jamie wrote, “Looking back on my journal entries, it was challenging to pick four. The commonality between the ones I chose is personal growth.” She then went on to discuss culture as well as describing how she helped an international student apply to high school once she returned. Jamie also wrote, “My cultural empathy was certainly increased. Before Peru, I would’ve been willing to help the family because that’s who I am, but post-Peru, I helped them because I knew it was an obstacle due to cultural differences—largely transportation and language.”

Jimmy combined all three themes in his explanation: “I chose these journals because I believe they show the thoughts I had about how I was changing as a person and my reflections on the cultural differences I experienced.” He experienced culture shock during the immersion and focused in on what he described as “intense moments.” He recognized it this way: “No

matter how I tried to rationalize my emotions and thoughts, they always came back to a difference in cultural values and expectations.” Having that perspective is what helped him move forward in his intercultural development.

Laura spoke of a limitation with regard to her personal growth: “I felt that my personal growth and understanding of the rich culture of Peru were stymied by an enormous language barrier.” She felt that her learning was sacrificed during the immersion because some tours and talks were in Spanish. She remained resistant to learning Spanish, struggling with the language throughout the immersion.

Meredith also wrote about personal growth: “The most profound thing I noticed as I reviewed my entries was my own personal growth over the course of this amazing month in Peru.” At first, she grew frustrated with her Spanish abilities and began to feel isolated. “It’s interesting, because right when I reached my peak feeling of isolation, I started to ease into another mode, and feel like I was exactly where I was supposed to be. All doubts went away, and the joy of being part of this incredible journey returned,” said Meredith. She was able to move past her frustration and adjust to the new demands of language learning and living abroad.

We held group reflections at the end of each day, and the participants learned to value that as a time to make sense of what they were experiencing. Jill mentioned how reflection helped her: “Because I was able to speak freely and listen with interest to my travelmates, I was able to keep my mind focused on the goals of the program. We were in constant discussion of what we were seeing, feeling, and thinking in terms of our abilities to adapt to the newness of the culture and language.” There was a practice to be in the moment and then reflect about that moment later.

Jimmy shared his response to a cultural difference with which he struggled: “I think because I had witnessed my peers going through similar struggles and had time to hear their

reflections on those experiences, I was able to be mindful in the moment of how meaningful that feeling was for me.” The fact that the group was going through this together was a support for the participants.

With regard to culture, Nina wrote about something she learned: “The idea of cultural capital made me even more aware of my advantages in life, the disadvantages of others, and ultimately what I can use to serve others. So rather than a pity-party, it seemed like it could be a more empowering thought.” She realized that rather than feeling guilty for being an English-speaking white woman from the U.S., she could use her cultural capital for good in her own classroom.

Darius shared his thoughts about a campus event that we attended at our partner university in Lima: “The second week saw me go deeper into attempting to understand the culture. Language study was going along fine, but I was touched by the Quechuan ceremony of the Sun God. I appreciated the pride that the students showed for their heritage and thought about similarities between their culture and our American culture.” He was able to make connections between indigenous practices in Peru and traditional cultural practices in the U.S.

The journals were written as the participants experienced the immersion, and they were asked to harvest what was meaningful. Consequently, they wrote more about their personal growth and experiences rather than how this would impact their pedagogy. There were examples which focused on power and structural inequalities, such as class differences and the tensions with the indigenous populations, but these examples were not necessarily the reason for the participants choosing those journal entries. However, Nina offered a view of using a critical lens in her own thinking, reflecting on an experience she had in the U.S.

This was an entry where I was being challenged by my perceptions of culture, especially cultures within my home country. Learning the subtleties of how people make choices (i.e. spending) is typically a cultural difference, and something that oftentimes simply needs to be addressed and recognized but not

judged. Even going to a wedding recently I was really surprised at the heavy drinking, and while drinking is medically not the best, I did come to terms with this. [Her critical approach] stems from a party culture, a tailgating culture, and a community that sees alcohol as a default sort of social activity. *I then asked “why” as one ought to, [my emphasis] and recognized that that was probably part of their coming-of-age social experience, family examples, friends that encourage and also participate, etc.*

She tried to understand the party culture through other perspectives, and instead of simply rejecting it, she asked *why* it was that way. This is a great example of examining the status quo from a critical lens.

#### **Goal Four**

*To internationalize education using a multiplicity of perspectives*

- *To increase instructional strategies for international students*
- *To increase types of assessments*
- *To increase the number of perspectives addressed in course*
- *To increase the number of resources used in course*

Goal four was about the classroom impact based on the curricular projects designed by the participants. Revising and building new curriculum occurred in order to offer multiple perspectives—not just to include voices from around the globe, but to offer students a deeper understanding of culture and its implications. Each participant chose a course in which they worked to revise the curriculum, specifically addressing the challenges of internationalization, culture, and linguistic diversity. K-12 teachers selected a specific discipline, such as science or social studies, or they chose a cross-disciplinary thematic unit. I argue that the teachers and teacher educators were better equipped to do this after having an opportunity to step outside of their own cultures and immerse themselves into another. During pre-departure, participants identified a course and/or subject they would like to internationalize. During the overseas phase, participants studied the language, culture, and education system of Peru in order to work on their project. They used this time during the third week of the immersion to work independently, consult with UARM



professionals in teacher education, and work collaboratively with other program participants.

Internationalizing curriculum is based on the willingness of participants to align curriculum by examining their purpose and direction, and identifying the texts, discussions, and pedagogical activities that will drive them. Participants increased instructional strategies for international students, types of assessments, number of perspectives addressed in the course, and number of resources used in a course in order to internationalize education using a multiplicity of perspectives.

The fourth goal (to internationalize education using a multiplicity of perspectives) was measured through a combination of the study of texts and instructional approaches pre-departure, visits during cultural immersion, and experiences upon return. Each participant read excerpts about critical pedagogy and learned how to teach from the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol method (SIOP) to reach English language learners. Each participant also developed a curricular project which included multiple assignments, assessments, and global perspectives. These projects were also referenced in the journals of each participant.

Moreover, the participants self-reported on this outcome specifically. Their answers regarding instructional strategies ranged from “I don’t have international students” to specific responses such as, “I use the SIOP model as a basis for my lessons.”

Participants also listed very specific assessments. One said that she was using “more project-based assessments with presentation components [and] more reflections used as an assessment tool.” Another participant said, “I used two informal assessments that were used in my Spanish language class at UARM. For example, I have incorporated the ‘hot potato’ activity where at each stop you peel off a layer of paper to reveal a review question.”

The participants demonstrated multiple ways in which they could increase perspectives in their courses, some of which included using virtual interactions such as the Global Read Aloud, Pen Pals Abroad, and the Pulsera Project. There was an explicit focus on

culture when addressing pre- and post-colonial cultures (Incan & Aborigines) and how their lives were changed by colonialism. Another participant adjusted a unit focused on identity that he did with middle school students to focus more on the role of culture in identity. Some participants met this outcome through their assignments. In her Montessori classroom, Alex used folktales of various North American cultures to explore the norms and values of those cultures. Tori required students to address classroom problems with research that had to incorporate international perspectives and issues.

Finally, participants located new texts in support of the development of the projects. The participants freely connected the experiences garnered from the sources and the impact these had on the creation of their activities as well as the potential for future uses in instruction. One participant hung a greater variety of art posters in her class and used more artifacts from other cultures. Many purchased and read more books by global authors and incorporated more texts that showed global perspectives. This was done through literature circles, read-alouds, and classroom libraries.

### **Significance**

While the first two goals were more easily measured and the results more obvious, I would make changes for goals three and four. The goals were much more long-term, and therefore collecting the data was more complicated. The participants were still in the process of revising and implementing instructional and curricular changes as the data was being collected the semester following the immersion. Realistically, this part could not be adequately measured until the end of the following school year. I would have spent more time before, during, and after the experience reading, writing, and explicitly discussing critical pedagogy. For goal four, I would suggest creating a reflective graphic organizer that would help the teachers collect data on instructional strategies and resources at the end of each quarter.

If I had the funding, I would definitely continue this program. It was beneficial for the participants and their students in numerous ways. I think the repercussions will be felt for years to come. Following the program, I have had four of the participants apply for graduate school or other positions in their district that address internationalization. One participant has presented at an international conference, and three have presented at regional conferences.

As the program director, I have presented about the program at multiple research conferences. I shared the program with colleagues at a School of Education meeting. The ultimate success of the experience can be found in our edited volume, *Internationalizing Classrooms: Going Global* (author, 2019) where eight of the twelve participants wrote chapters about their curricular work. I edited the volume and wrote the introduction and the first and last chapters.

The significance of this project is that teachers must be provided this type of international professional development if they are to acquire the dispositions and skills necessary to address the needs of all students. Moreover, teacher educators and teachers must be encouraged to collaborate to understand how they link together and can have maximum impact.

### **Conclusion**

Educational institutions have been called upon to prepare students for the challenges of a global work force, with technology and creative curricular design potentially playing a crucial role in meeting the demands of globalization (Stearns, 2009). Developing intercultural competence, engaging in language study, and studying schooling in other cultures can be added to the list. First,

however, the teachers must know how to change curriculum, what technology best meets their students' needs, how one develops intercultural competence, how language learning is embedded in culture, and what impact critical pedagogy can have in the classroom. "For teachers to develop these skills, the onus of responsibility lies with schools of education and teacher educators" (Shaklee & Baily, 2012, p. 6).

The progression toward intercultural competence is crucial for today's students to function productively and harmoniously in tomorrow's ever-increasing global society, but also in today's classroom in the United States because of the shifting demographics of students. "What might be different today is that people are not necessarily coming from one country or culture...yet lack of global awareness on the part of Americans leads us to group people into larger categories" (Shaklee & Baily, 2012, p. 3). Participants can be given the chance to learn about the differences between various cultures within one country and the tensions between those cultures with regards to education.

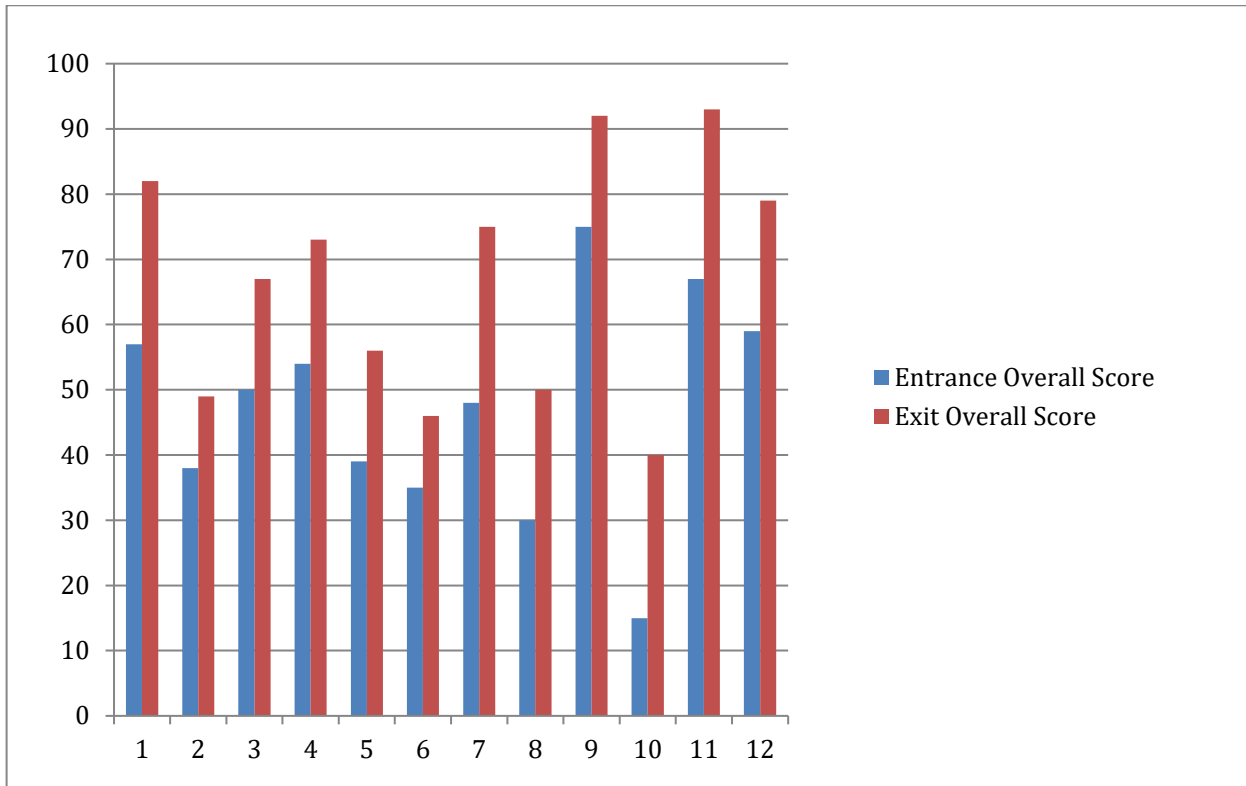
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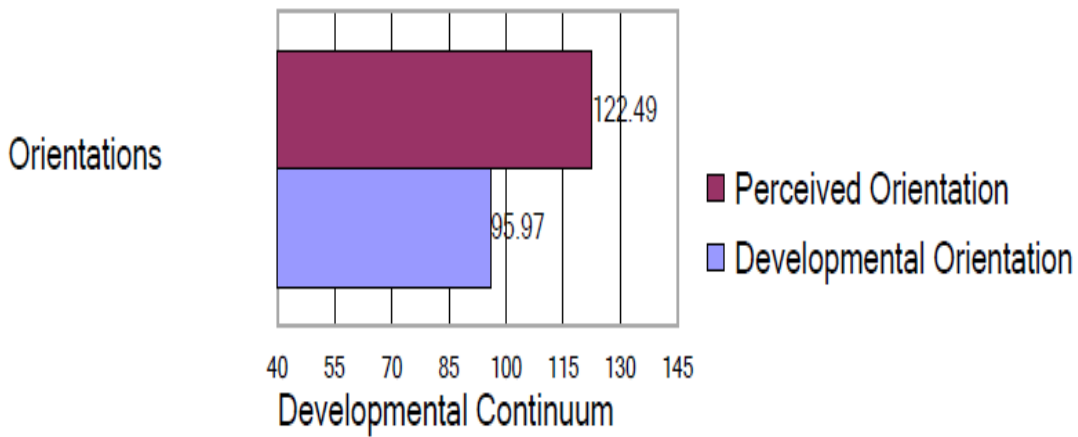
**Appendix A**

*Language Growth*



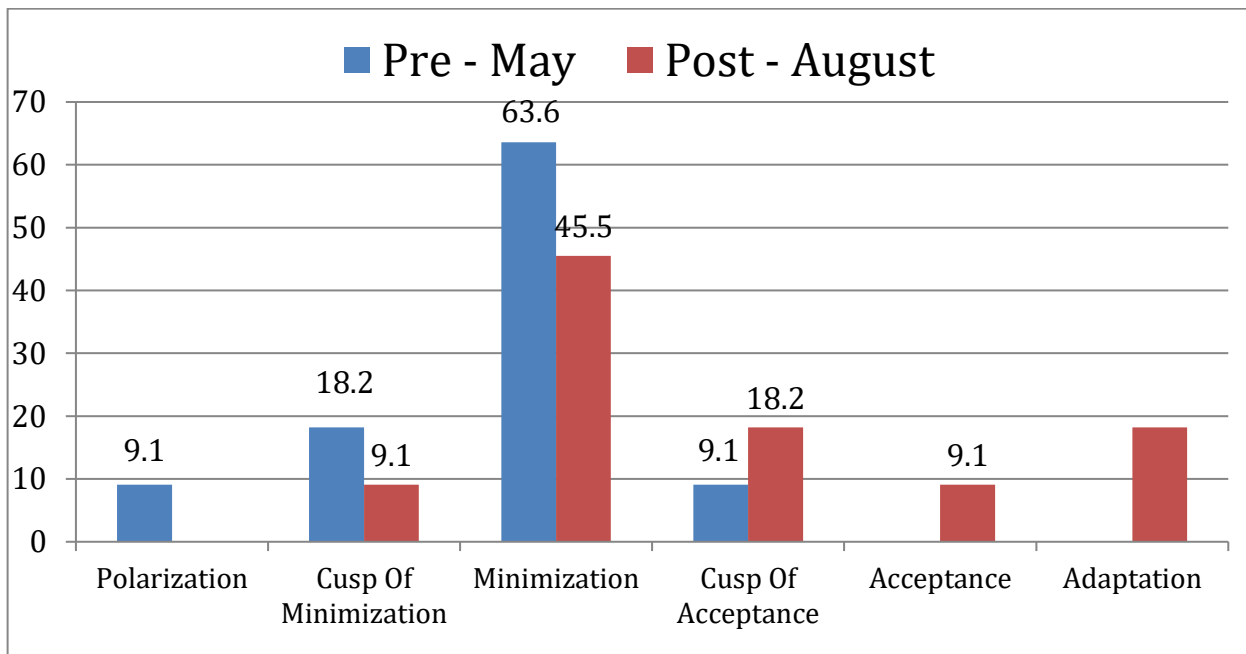
**Appendix B**

*Perceived Orientation Versus Developmental Orientation*



**Appendix C**

*Growth in Orientations*





# PUBLICATION GUIDELINES

for the OHIO Journal  
of Teacher Education

The following guidelines are presented for publication opportunities for OJTE (the OHIO Journal of Teacher Education).

The OHIO Journal of Teacher Education provides a forum for the exchange of information and ideas concerning the improvement of teaching and teacher education. Articles submitted should reflect this mission. Their focus should concern concepts, practices, and/or results of research that have practical dimensions, implications, or applicability for practitioners involved with teacher education. The journal is regional in scope and is sent as a benefit of membership in the Ohio Association of Teacher Education.

Manuscripts are subject to review of the Professional Journal Committee (co-editors and editor consultants). Points of view are those of the individual authors and are not necessarily those of either Association. Permission to reproduce journal articles must be requested from the editors.

## MANUSCRIPT GUIDELINES

**Content:** Journal issues may be “thematic” or “open.” Currently, all future issues are designated “open.”

**Length:** Manuscripts, including all references, bibliographies, charts, figures, and tables, generally should not exceed 15 pages.

**Style:** For writing and editorial style, follow directions in the latest edition of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association. Omit the author’s name from the title page. Include an 80-100-word abstract.

**Please do not use auto-formatting when preparing the manuscript!**

**Cover page:** Include the following information on a separate sheet attached to the manuscript: title of the article; date of submission; author's name, author's terminal degree; mailing address, e-mail address, business and home phone numbers, institutional affiliation; and short biographical sketch, including background and areas of specialization.

**Submission:** Submissions must be word processed using Microsoft Office Word (Microsoft Excel tables are permitted). Submit the manuscript as an attachment to an e-mail to [OJTE@xavier.edu](mailto:OJTE@xavier.edu)

### EDITORIAL PROCEDURES

Authors will be notified of the receipt of the manuscript. After an initial review by the editors, those manuscripts which meet specifications will be sent to reviewers. Notification of the status of the manuscript will take place after the deadline date for each issue. The journal editors will make minor editorial changes; major changes will be made by the author prior to publication.

Manuscripts, editorial correspondence, and questions can be directed to Dr. Thomas Knestrict at [OJTE@xavier.edu](mailto:OJTE@xavier.edu)

### IMPORTANT DATES OF NOTE:

**August 1, 2021** Closing date for acceptance of manuscripts for Fall Journal 2021

**Publication date:** October 1, 2021

**February 1, 2022** Closing date for acceptance of manuscripts for Spring Journal 2022

**Publication Date:** April 1, 2022

## MEMBERSHIP

Interested in becoming a member of OATE (Ohio Association of Teacher Educators)? Please visit the following website for current information: <https://sites.google.com/site/ohioate/home>

Additionally, information about OCTEO (Ohio Confederation of Teacher Education Organizations), Fall and Spring OCTEO Conferences, and presentational opportunities, can be found at the following site: <http://www.ohioteachered.org>.

Our organization looks forward to your interest in OATE and OCTEO in 2021.