

---

The OHIO  
Journal of Teacher Education



**SPRING 2008**

Volume 21 Number 1

---



The Ohio Journal of Teacher Education

Spring, 2008  
Volume 21, Number 1

Published by the Ohio Association of Teacher Educators

Sarah Cecire, Ph.D.  
George Metz, Ph.D.  
Jo Ellyn Peterson, Ph.D.  
Gayle Trollinger, Ph.D.

Editors

## Editorial Board

Savilla Banister, Ph.D.  
*Bowling Green State University*

Michele Beery, Ph.D.  
*Wilmington College*

Cynthia Bertelsen, Ph.D.  
*Bowling Green State University*

Denise Boldman, Ph.D.  
*Urbana College*

Linda C. Burkey, Ph.D.  
*Mount Union College*

Polly Collins, Ph.D.  
*Muskingum College*

Joy R. Cowdery, Ph.D.  
*Muskingum College*

Dorothy Erb, Ph.D.  
*Marietta College*

Charlotte M. Harris, Ed.D.  
*Wright State University*

Deborah J. Hess, Ph.D., R.N.  
*Wright State University*

Doris Johnson, Ed.D.  
*Wright State University*

Lynn Kline, Ph.D.  
*University of Akron*

Kaye Martin, Ph.D.  
*Ohio University-Lancaster*

Megan Wereley, Ed.D.  
*Wooster College*

Sarah Cecire, Ph.D.  
Technical Editor

## Contents

Message from the Editors .....	4
Enhancing Citizenship Education: Infusing Service-Learning into Social Studies Pedagogy .....	5
<i>Thomas A. Kessinger, Ph.D.</i> <i>Winston Vaughan, Ph.D.</i>	
Piloting a Field-based Methods Course in Teacher Preparation Program .....	14
<i>Joan Weinreich, Ph.D</i> <i>JoAnne Ferrara, Ed.D</i>	
Teacher Candidates' Perceptions of Urban Schools and Students .....	25
<i>Rachel Collopy, Ph.D.</i> <i>Connie Bowman, Ph.D.</i>	
Ohio's Alternative Route to Special Education Licensure: A Descriptive Study .....	31
<i>Clarissa Rosas, Ph.D.</i> <i>Mary West, Ph.D.</i>	
Ohio Association of Teacher Educators Membership Invitation .....	39
Journal Guidelines .....	41

Please accept our apologies for the incorrect listing the authors of "Using the Ohio Integrated System Model (OISM) to Promote Strategic Planning and Student Achievement" published in the fall 2007 issue of *The Ohio Journal of Teacher Education*. The correct listing is:

Sylvia J. Imler PhD (1<sup>st</sup> author)  
Sally A. Lewis PhD (2<sup>nd</sup> author)  
Marianne K. Dove PhD (3<sup>rd</sup> author)  
Kenneth L. Miller PhD (4<sup>th</sup> author)

-The Editors

## A message from the Editors

The Spring 2008 issue of The Ohio Journal of Teacher Education has an open theme. The articles cover a range of topics of interest to teacher educators such as service learning, field based methods courses, candidates' perceptions of urban schools and students, and alternate licensure routes for special education teachers.

The first article reflects a collaborative effort and examines the impact of infusing service-learning into two social studies methods courses. Kessinger and Vaughan describe how quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analyzed. They indicate that positive gains were achieved in four areas of development and led to enhanced citizenship education.

In the next article, Weinreich and Ferrara describe and evaluate a pilot study in a professional development school affiliated with their teacher preparation program. Their primary purpose was to determine the effects of placing a cohort group of undergraduate students enrolled in a literacy methods course in a primary classroom one half day per week where the children and the teachers are engaged in a balanced literacy program. They wanted to test the hypothesis that learning how to teach reading would happen with more authenticity if it happened in classrooms where children are learning to read.

The third article by Collopy and Bowman, investigated teacher candidates' preconceptions of urban schools and the subsequent impact of coordinated urban field experiences, course readings, and assignments.

Finally, West and Rosas share a descriptive study with a twofold purpose: to provide a demographic profile of students seeking an Ohio Alternative Educator License in Special Education from a small, private institute of higher education and to compare this demographic information with Ohio and national data on special education alternative licensure.

As part of an effort to engage more faculty from across the state, we are encouraging and inviting you to nominate yourself as a potential member of the editorial board. As you can see, we would welcome gender diversity among other aspects of expertise. Please contact Jo Ellyn Peterson ([peteronj@bluffton.edu](mailto:peteronj@bluffton.edu)) for additional information.

We hope you enjoy this issue of the journal, and we hope you find these articles to be informative and helpful in your various roles preparing teacher educators.

Sarah Cecire  
George Metz  
Jo Ellyn Peterson  
Gayle Trollinger

Spring, 2008

## Enhancing Citizenship Education: Infusing Service-Learning into Social Studies Pedagogy

Thomas A. Kessinger, Ph.D.

Winston Vaughan, Ph.D.

As one educates students in higher education for the twenty-first century, one must recognize that the demographics of society have changed; therefore, what occurs in our schools has obviously changed, too. If we are going to meet the needs of a changing society and schools, it becomes paramount that our students not only be aware of the changes but also be educated to function effectively in a changing society and be able to make rational decisions as valuable citizens. Furthermore, students need to be engaged in learning experiences that allow them to understand the structural and deep-seated inequities in our society. Thus concerns about racism, biases, injustices, oppression, poverty, and unearned privileges--coupled with compassionate and meaningful service to the community--should figure prominently as part of their learning experiences.

Based on the current research, scholars (Billingsley, 1994; Eads, 1994; Canada & Speck, 2001; Jacoby, 2003, 1996; Nieto, 2000; O'Grady, 2000; Rosenberger, 2000) argue that service-learning is an effective way of helping students to achieve the above-stated goal. The main focus is on action and reflection integrated with the academics to enhance student learning and meet community needs. In fact, Nieto (2000) elaborates and argues that students can provide service to the community while examining societal issues such as social power, privilege and oppression. Jacoby (1996) suggests that service-learning is a form of experiential education where students engage in activities that address human and community needs together with structured opportunities intentionally designed to promote student learning and develop-

ment with reciprocity and reflection as key components.

According to *Learn and Serve Ohio 2002 Annual Report* (Ohio Department of Education, 2003), service-learning brings together instruction and service to provide students the opportunity to learn and develop through active participation in thoughtfully organized service experiences that: meet real needs; are coordinated in collaboration with the school and community; are integrated into each student's academic curriculum; provide structured time for students to properly manage and amply reflect about what they did and said during their service activity; provide opportunities to use new academic skills and knowledge in 'real-life' situations in their community; enhance learning by applying it to help others; and, help foster the development of a sense of caring for others. (p. 4) *Learn and Serve Ohio 2006 Annual Report* (Ohio Department of Education, n.d.) further notes that "Ohio's graduates will be civic minded and informed citizens prepared for productive lives within their families and communities" (inside front cover).

The Alliance for Service Learning in Education Reform (1993) states that service-learning places curriculum concepts in the context of real-life situations and empowers students to analyze, synthesize, and evaluate these concepts through practical problem solving often in service to the community. Flannery and Ward (1999) suggest that students often encounter struggles between their cultural community and the academic community, and service-learning is a way to bridge the

gap between their campus and community lives as well as assist in linking theory to practice by making connections between multiple worlds. They feel that this is particularly important given that most college campuses are predominantly white.

According to the National Council for the Social Studies (2000), the prominent learned society or specialized professional association in the discipline, the primary goal of the social studies is to enhance citizenship; and, service-learning is an essential component of citizenship education. Battistoni (2002) argues that citizenship education can be a powerful foundation and outcome for service-learning, and community service experiences connected to courses centered on education for democratic citizenship can achieve the goal of educating young people about their responsibilities in a democratic society. A body of evidence (Battistoni, 2002; Eyler & Giles, 2000; Markus, Howard & King, 1993; Mendel-Reyes, 1997) suggests that service-learning can be a powerful civic educator when accompanied by proper preparation and adequate reflection.

On the other hand, a number of scholars in the field (Anderson & Guest, 1994; Battistoni, 2002; Berry, 1990; Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993; Waldock, 1995) offer concerns about strengthening rather than reducing stereotypes in students during their service experiences. They suggest although there is mounting evidence to show that service-learning has a positive impact on civic responsibility, there are also conversations within the community that service not only fails to connect students to public life, but it may reinforce student stereotypes about people who are different from the community being served. O'Grady (2000) warns that if service-learning is not organized and delivered with careful planning, it can easily reinforce oppressive outcomes. Racism, sexism, and/or classism can be perpetuated to the extent of reinforcing the idea of superiority.

The purpose of this article is to examine whether citizenship education can be enhanced through infusing service learning into two social studies undergraduate- graduate methods courses for pre-service teachers.

According to a literature review offered by Dynneson, Gross, & Berson (2003; reissued in 2007), the core value of social studies is citizenship education, as well as a variety of goals associated with knowledge, skills, and values related to the content of

the social studies disciplines. Saxe (1991) noted that from the beginning, the essence of the social studies curriculum has been concerned mainly with socialization and citizenship education. Gross (1990) linked citizenship education to the social studies and defined it as a total program that sometimes extends to related or cooperative experiences beyond the school. These programs contribute to the development of political or civic understandings, skills, values, and actions in individuals and groups. Finally, Morrisett and Haas (1982) earlier identified the following social studies purposes associated with content and process: knowledge, thinking skills, democratic beliefs, participation skills, civic action, problem solving, and social skills.

## Method

A quantitative research design incorporating survey research methods and descriptive statistics were the main source of data analysis used for this study.

Qualitative methodology was also used to further strengthen the quantitative aspect. Data was collected from open-ended questions along with selected comments and reflective journal entries. Enhancing citizenship education through service learning was the main focus of this study.

## Subjects

The subjects in this study were sixteen preservice teachers who were enrolled in two social studies methods courses, EDMC 354 (Middle Childhood Social Studies Curriculum, Pedagogy and Assessment) and EDMS 333/533 (Secondary/Multi-Age Methods, Curriculum and Assessment in Social Studies). All students, consisting of seven females and nine males, were Caucasian.

## Instrument

The instrument used in this study was the generally accepted and routinely-used "Checklist of Personal Gains (Service-Learning Version)" designed by Conrad & Hedin (1981) and modified with permission by Bradley (1994). This instrument consists of a 25-item, 5-point Likert scale, covering five areas of development (personal, social and interpersonal, values, academic, career) with selected responses ranging from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree) and six optional open-ended questions. According to Black, Bradley, and Laird (1998) the reliability data in the



Likert version of the checklist has a Cronbach's alpha of .9495.

### Procedures

During the semester, upon receiving a university-wide and competitive faculty development grant, two research professors amended their respective and aforementioned social studies methods courses (EDMC 354 and EDMS 333/533) by incorporating, and then piloting, a service-learning component. Essentially, the two professors collaborated to design, establish and execute a plan so that service-learning became a viable way to enhance and deliver more meaningful social studies instruction for preservice teachers at Xavier University during the semester. Both professors accomplished the following tasks in their respective courses. The necessary steps to infuse a service-learning component were outlined, so that each student selected and completed a service activity at an acceptable service-learning site; the model of P-A-R-C (**p**lanning, **a**ctivity, **r**eflection, **c**elebration) or P-A-R-E (**p**lanning, **a**ction, **r**eflection, **e**valuation) served as the overarching design for developing and executing a service-learning activity. Potential service-learning sites for eventual student placements were identified, selected and visited. A list of possible service-learning reflective activities was discussed, and an overview of service-learning (that is, definition and two models) was presented to the two methods classes. Also professionally-made student packets on service-learning that took the form of a "Service-Learning Resources" binder were developed, published, and distributed. The *Ohio Academic Content Standards for K-12 Social Studies* (2003) for faculty and student use were purchased and distributed; eight suitable texts on service-learning for use in both classes were reviewed and purchased, and both professors attended "Forging New Links", the annual statewide conference on service-learning.

This project was the outcome of a Wheeler Award, a university-funded faculty development grant, that the authors had previously applied for and received. During a subsequent semester, the two courses previously taught were revised to incorporate major aspects of service-learning. The authors collaborated to design, establish and execute a plan so that service-learning became a viable way to enhance and deliver more powerful social studies instruction for preservice teachers.

On the first day of classes, participants were

informed about the concept of service-learning and relevant expectations for the semester. During the semester students were introduced to and discussed the video, *Learning in Deed: The Power of Service-Learning in American Schools*. This video, which is produced by the W.K. Kellogg Foundation and the National Commission on Service-Learning, highlights the call for all children from K-12 to participate in service-learning as part of their curriculum and the importance of service-learning in education. Students were also given a set of professionally-prepared student packets on service-learning in the format of a "Service Learning Resources" binder. Students were required to complete an eight-part service-learning activity at sites selected jointly by the professors and students. They were required to use either the P-A-R-C (planning, activity, reflection, celebration) or the P-A-R-E (planning, action, reflection, evaluation) models of service-learning.

Students, in the two methods courses, were placed in and served at sites recommended by the professors and eventually selected by the students. Some local sites included: Crayons to Computers (a free store of supplies for teachers), Great American Clean-Up, People Working Cooperatively, Evanston Clean-Up, Burton Elementary, Over-the-Rhine (a Cincinnati neighborhood), 1000 Hands, St. Peter Claver School, Westwood Elementary. Each student completed an eight-part service-learning activity or project requirement by way of a scoring rubric (see Appendix).

Students were required to keep a log and reflective journals on their activities during the semester with constant feedback and guidance from the professors. On completion of their service, students spent a class session discussing and reflecting on their experiences. During this reflective period, students were asked to complete the "Checklist of Personal Gains" survey instrument recording their answers on the given questionnaires.

### Data

Quantitative and qualitative data were obtained from the students who completed the service-learning component within the two methods courses. For this article, due to the population size, it was deemed appropriate to consolidate or aggregate the results

of the students in both classes; hence, the total number of students in the population is sixteen (n=16).

The "Checklist of Personal Gains" was administered to each student at the conclusion of the two courses.

es. This checklist (survey-type) consisted of twenty-five questions covering five areas of development: personal, social and interpersonal, values, academic,

Table 1  
Mean Scores for the Five Areas of Development

Areas of Development	Items	N	Mean
Personal Development	1-5	16	53.8
Social and Interpersonal Development	6-10	16	67.5
Values Development	11-14	16	68.75
Academic Development	15-21	16	60.0
Career Development	22-25	16	39.1

and career. Students selected their responses along a 5-point Likert scale.

Table 1 reports the mean scores of the five areas of development and Table 2 shows the frequencies and percentages of responses--“strongly agree” and “agree”--for the aggregate group of students. Other, but optional, questions were included that permitted write-in responses by individual students. Finally, some demographic data was obtained as well. Thus, quantitative data consisted of descriptive statistics for student responses on the 5-point Likert type scale. Mean percent scores were determined within each area of development by calculating “strongly agree” and “agree” frequencies of responses. Qualitative data, on the other hand, was obtained from the optional student write-in responses which followed each set of area (by development) questions. These responses effectively supplemented the quantitative data.

### Results

Results indicate that there were positive gains (that is, more than 50%) in four of the five various areas of development, and the results are noted in these major findings: The aggregate group (n=16) showed positive gains, as denoted by “strongly agree” and “agree” responses, in four of the five areas of development; and, each individual course group demonstrated positive gains in the same four areas as well. Items 1-5 which dealt with personal development showed positive gains with a mean score of 53.8. Items 6-10 (social and interpersonal development) also showed positive gains at 67.5. Items 11-14 (values development) reported positive gains in the area at 68.8. Academic development, Items 15-21, at 60.0 also reported positive gains. Career development (Items 22-25) re-

Table 2

Frequencies and Percentages of Responses Who Selected \*SA or A by Question from the Checklist of Personal Gains (n=16)

Question	Number of *SA and A	Percent of Responses
1	8	50
2	7	44
3	6	38
4	9	56
5	13	81
6	10	62.5
7	9	56
8	11	69
9	13	81
10	11	69
11	12	75
12	8	50
13	12	75
14	12	75
15	7	44
16	8	50
17	8	50
18	10	62.5
19	13	81
20	12	75
21	9	56
22	7	44
23	4	25
24	10	62.5
25	4	25

\*Note: SA = strongly agree  
A = agree

ported (39.1) which is an indication of no positive gains (less than 50%).

To summarize, the positive gains, again as denoted by “strongly agree” and “agree” responses, were found in the following areas of development (in descending order): values, social and interpersonal, aca-

demographic, and personal. The strongest percent gains were in the values development (the mean percent score = 68.75%) and social and interpersonal development (mean score = 67.5%) areas; the weakest area was in career development (mean score = 39.1%).

The primary purpose of the qualitative investigations was to add depth and complexity to the findings of the quantitative analysis of “the Checklist of Personal Gains” survey. Therefore, the qualitative methods used in this investigation were primarily embedded within the framework of standard discourse. The qualitative data collection consisted of journal reflections, open-ended questions, optional student write-in responses and selected comments.

Data analysis was a guided process that began with reflections of factors investigated in the quantitative analysis. The qualitative set was content-analyzed to develop cues for specific themes, then similar themes were grouped together to develop major themes. In order to understand and analyze the positive gains in the selected categories mentioned in the quantitative analysis, it was necessary to reflect on the five areas of development: personal, social and interpersonal, values, academic, and career. Using Van Manen’s (1990) selective reading approach to isolating statements in themes, the journal responses, open-ended questions, and write-in responses were analyzed thoroughly, and statements and phrases that seemed particularly essential or revealing about the participants’ areas of development were identified. Certain themes recurred as commonalities or possible commonalities in the data set. All the data were therefore analyzed to discover commonalities or insights that could be used to develop text to add depth and complexity to the results found in the quantitative analysis.

#### *Values Development*

Results indicate that students developed various skills in working with inner city children, and helped to build on the various values and beliefs that already existed. Students also reported that there was a sense of hope in the students they worked with. Overall the exercise helped to strengthen their beliefs and values as citizens in a democratic society.

#### *Social and Interpersonal Development*

Students reported that the service-learning project helped them to relate to students with different backgrounds and to develop a better understanding of where people come from. This was a result of working

in situations in which they were unaccustomed. They also were pleased to have positive interactions with people of different races, social class and ethnicity and the ways they came together to work toward the betterment of society. Another important aspect was the fact that through interaction with people from different backgrounds, prejudices and misconceptions were broken down rather than reinforced.

#### *Academic Development*

Students reported that this activity or assignment helped them to apply the knowledge gained in class to real life situations, and to work with children from various cultures. It also strengthened their knowledge base with reference to societal issues in considering what could be done as a citizen to better society.

#### *Personal Development*

In this area students indicated that the service-learning experience was rewarding and helped them feel that they impacted the community by making a difference even though the effect was nominal. One student reported that working in the Great American Clean-Up bolstered her self-esteem and perceived self-worth, and such positive characteristics are essential for personal development. Apart from being a rewarding experience, students reported how they responded well in strange situations, made connections to children in the community, and adapted to the personal needs of students.

#### *Career Development*

Results suggest that this experience encouraged students to see some of the future possibilities in the career world. Students reported that doing service-learning can lead to a certain area of work you want to do as a career. Some reported that working with teachers gave them an idea of some of the other tools besides teaching that teachers must learn or use. And as teachers, they will be better prepared to talk about the needs, wants and desires of inner-city neighbors. It was also quite evident that working with the residents in disadvantaged communities allowed them to exercise interpersonal communications which are important in any long-term career.

In addition to the journal responses and reflections, a final question was asked: In what ways do you see your experiences in this project connecting with courses you plan to take in school and/or with what

you would like to do with your life?

The responses to this question tend to suggest that students used this experience to reflect on their future goals and careers. Students referred to the types of schools they would prefer to work in and with diverse student populations. They felt that various services should be provided for lower socio-economic disadvantaged children, and that working with diverse people, communicating effectively, and working toward common goals are critical skills for success. There was common agreement that this project provided opportunities to interact with people, develop interpersonal skills, and articulate ideas clearly when involved in the community. It also helped them to gain a clearer perception of their civic duty in the community when it comes to working with the disadvantaged in society.

In careful examination of the findings, it becomes quite evident that data suggest citizenship education was enhanced by infusing service-learning into social studies pedagogy.

### **Discussion**

Battistoni (2002) indicates that a case can be made for service-learning as a vehicle to civic education. According to Martorella, Beal & Bolick (2005) citizenship education within schools should take place within the formal and in the “hidden” curriculum, the policies, activities, norms and models that are provided outside the classroom. Furthermore, Oppenheim and Torney (1974) suggest that civic education does not merely consist of a body of knowledge, but it strives to inculcate certain shared attitudes, values such as political responsibility, the ideals of tolerance and social justice, and respect for authority. Both the quantitative and qualitative data, as noted above, demonstrate that positive gains can be made in various areas of development, and citizenship education is enhanced by infusing a service-learning component into social studies methods classes. Indeed gains are manifest in the frequencies and percentages of responses (“strongly agree” and “agree”) in four of the five areas of development. Furthermore, the selective comments, reflective statements, and journal responses from students indicate support of positive growth as well.

According to the National Commission on Service-Learning (2002), service-learning integrates community service with academic study to enrich learning,

teach civic responsibility, and strengthen communities. It has the following benefits: engages students and renews motivation; reinforces standards-based reform; promotes the public purpose of education through citizen development; supports the willingness of student participation in communities; and contributes to personal and career development.

From both the above-stated quantitative and qualitative data it can be seen that growth in four different areas (values, social and interpersonal, academic, and personal) of development occurred to students who were enrolled in the two methods courses and who had the opportunity to learn and practice a citizenship device known as service-learning. For many of these preservice teachers, they had never before experienced this technique of doing social studies. Battistoni (2002) argues that a properly designed service experience can be a civically transformative one because students are immersed in a community setting, potentially working with an organization or a school on an issue with public dimensions, and working with people coming from different backgrounds or with different interests in the issue.

Due to the small number of preservice teachers in this study, the researchers recommend that a second study should be conducted with a larger number of preservice teachers in the sample or population. Also, a similar study should be performed using a pre-test/post-test research design to determine if similar or dissimilar results are found.

### **Conclusion**

Through this pilot project, “Enhancing Citizenship Education: Infusing Service-Learning into Social Studies Pedagogy,” involving two social studies methods classes with a service-learning component, students at Xavier University became aware of the service-learning concept and its potential by means of a theoretical model and practical experience. Students actively involved themselves in a service activity or project of their own choosing. In the process, they exhibited meaningful and active social studies skills to satisfactorily complete the experience using a well-defined and prescribed rubric. Generally, students were pleased with the opportunity to participate in such an activity or project; and, students manifested growth in citizenship education as a result. The hope is that now these same students (or preservice teachers) will take what they learned and share it with their

students in classrooms at their local schools. These teachers now have a tool and method or procedure for enhancing citizenship education. They can now use it and involve their students in similar activities and projects locally. Hopefully, citizenship education will be enhanced for others.

**Dr. Kessinger's major research interests include: social studies education, service-learning, secondary education, and teacher education.**

**Dr. Vaughan's major research interests include: multicultural education, middle level social studies, reflective practices in teaching and learning, cooperative learning, and service-learning.**

### References

Alliance for Service-Learning in Education Reform. (1993). *Standards of quality for school-based service-learning*. Chester, VT: Author.

Anderson, J.B., & Guest, K. (1994). Service-learning in teacher education at Seattle University. In R.J. Kraft & M. Swadener (Eds.), *Building community service-learning in the academic disciplines* (pp. 141-150). Denver, CO: Compact Company.

Battistoni, R.M. (2002). *Civic engagement across the curriculum: A resource binder for service-learning faculty in all disciplines*. Providence: Campus Compact.

Berry, H.A. (1990). Service-learning in international and intercultural settings. In J.C. Kendall & Associates (Eds.), *Combining service and learning: A resource book for community and public service* (pp. 311-313). Raleigh, NC: National Society for Internships and Experiential Education.

Billingsley, R. (1994). Leadership training and service-learning. In R.J. Kraft & M. Swadener (Eds.), *Building community: Service-learning in the academic disciplines* (pp. 23-33). Denver, CO: Compact Company.

Black, S., Bradley, R., & Laird, M. (1998). *Final evaluation of Quest International's skills for action*. Newark, OH: Lions-Quest International.

Canada, M., & Speck, B.W. (2001). *Developing and implementing service-learning programs*. New York, NY: Jossey-Bass.

Dynneson, T.L., Gross, R.E., & Berson, M.J. (2003). *Designing effective instruction for secondary social studies* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Columbus, OH: Merrill Prentice Hall [reissued in 2007 by Waveland Press,

Inc.]

Eads, S.E. (1994). The value of service learning in higher education. In R.J. Kraft & M. Swadener (Eds.), *Building community: Service-learning in the academic disciplines* (pp. 35-40). Denver, CO: Compact Company.

Eyler, J., & Giles, D. (2000). *Where's the learning in service-learning?* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Flannery, D., & Ward, K. (1999). Service learning: A vehicle for developing cultural competence in health education. *American Journal of Health Education*, 23(5), 323-331.

Gross, R.E. (1990, Summer). Curriculum and instruction in social studies. Unpublished course manual.

Jacoby, B. & Associates. (2003). *Building partnerships for service-learning*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Jacoby, B. & Associates. (1996). *Service-learning in higher education: Concepts and practices*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Kretzmann, J.P., & McKnight, J. (1993). *Building communities from the inside out: A path toward finding and mobilizing a community's assets*. Chicago, IL: ACTA Publications.

Markus, G., Howard, J.P., & King, D.C. (1993). Integrating community service and classroom instruction enhances learning: Results from an experiment. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis* 15(4), 410-419.

Martorella, P.H., Beal, C.M., & Bolick, C.M. (2005). *Teaching social studies in middle and secondary schools*. New Jersey: Merrill Prentice Hall.

Mendel-Reyes, M. (1997). *Reclaiming democracy: The sixties in politics and memory*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Morrissett, I., & Haas, J.D. (1982). Rationale, goals, and objectives in social studies. In *The current state of social studies: A report of Project Span*. Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium.

National Commission on Service-Learning. (2002). Videotape. *Learning in deed: The power of service-learning for American schools*. Newton, MA: Education Development Center, Inc.

National Council for the Social Studies (2000). Posi-

tion statement. Service-learning: An essential component of citizenship education. *Social Education*, 65(4), 240-241.

Nieto, S. (2000). Foreword. In C.R. O'Grady (Ed.), *Integrating service learning and multicultural education in colleges and universities*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

O'Grady, C.R. (Ed.). (2000). *Integrating service learning and multicultural education in colleges and universities*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Ohio Department of Education. (2003). *Learn and serve Ohio 2002 annual report*. Columbus, OH: Author.

Ohio Department of Education. (n.d.). *Learn and serve Ohio 2006 annual report*. Columbus, OH: Author.

Oppenheim, A. N. & Torney, J. (1974). *The measurement of children's civic attitudes in different nations*. New York: Halsted Press.

Rosenberger, C. (2000). Beyond empathy: Developing critical consciousness through service-learning. In C.R. O'Grady (Ed.), *Integrating service learning and multicultural education in colleges and universities*, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Saxe, D.W. (1991). *Social studies in schools: A history of the early years*. New York: State University of New York Press.

Van Manen, M. (1990). *Researching lived experiences: Human science for an action sensitive pedagogy*. London, Ontario, Canada: Sunny.

Waldock, J.M. (1995). *Achieving cross-cultural understanding through service-learning in higher education*. Unpublished paper. Mankato, MN: Minnesota State University.

**Appendix**  
 Scoring Rubric for Service-Learning Component  
 in EDMC 354 and EDMS 333/533

Criteria for Service-Learning	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory
<b>1. Determined and Addressed a Community Need</b> [State Need: _____]	_____	_____
<b>2. Chose a Model (PARC, PARE, etc.)</b> [Note Model: _____]	_____	_____
<b>3. Selected an Appropriate Site to Execute the Model</b> [Name Site: _____]	_____	_____
<b>4. Obtained Permission to Perform Service at Site</b> [Name of Grantor: _____]	_____	_____
<b>5. Served a Minimum of Five (5) Hours</b> [Actual Hours: _____]	_____	_____
<b>6. Performed Service Satisfactorily as Confirmed by Service Supervisor</b> [Name and Phone No. of Site Service Supervisor: _____]	_____	_____
<b>7. Included Reflective Component</b> [Type of Reflection: _____]	_____	_____
<b>8. Log of Activities</b>	_____	_____

## Piloting a Field-based Methods Course in Teacher Preparation Program

*Joan Weinreich, Ph.D*

*JoAnne Ferrara, Ed.D*

### Background

In education, it is often the case that student teachers and even first year novice teachers are ill prepared for the challenges of the classroom. One explanation for this lack of readiness may be due in part to the fact that until recently most teacher preparation programs took place mostly in college classrooms, places disconnected from where the actually learning and teaching happen (Howey, 1996). School classrooms are where teachers face the real challenges of education that are at the very least pedagogical and social. "Effective teachers must have the understanding of the activity of teaching and have a greater understanding of the political and social context of schooling" (McIntyre, Byrd, & Foxx, 1999, p. 172). As our society's problems and stresses continue to build, and even many suburbs begin to look and sound more like the cities, the teachers' classroom responsibilities continue to grow. Many pre-service programs, both at the undergraduate and graduate level, still utilize college classrooms to teach the content and methodology, but as a result of the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and other accreditation agencies, there is a shift away from solely relying on student teaching practica for field experience.

The notion that coursework extant from classroom experience can adequately prepare beginning teachers to integrate and then effectively implement that knowledge "receives very little support from the research" (Wideen, Mayer-Smith & Moon, 1998, p. 151). Currently, there is a great deal of support for the idea that "teachers must

learn about practice in practice, all programs... should insure well-supervised practicum opportunities, closely connected to course work." Darling-Hammond & Baratz-Snowden, 2005, p.36). In addition, research in the field of teacher education reform addresses what Horowitz describes as the "range of concerns that are perennial in teacher education... little articulation between courses and clinical work" (Horowitz, Darling-Hammond, Bransford, Comer, Rosebrock, Austin, & Rust, 2006, p. 121).

After initial theoretical knowledge has been introduced to pre-service teachers, coursework must focus on pedagogy and its direct application to classroom practice. . . When instruction takes place exclusively in college classrooms without concurrent benefit of children and classroom teachers, teacher preparation suffers. It is critical for the college faculty to keep its pulse on how methods and approaches to learning and teaching shift and change over time Without classrooms and children to test methodologies, new teachers are less likely to reflect wisely on the applicability and relative values of various methods. Therefore, a good teacher preparation program should be mindful of the relationship between theory and practice, requiring prospective teachers to spend time in classrooms learning, evaluating, and applying new techniques (Holmes Group 1990, Goodlad, 1991). As Dewey wrote in 1903, new teachers must be encouraged to become "thoughtful and alert students of education," not just good technicians. Dewey added, "Immediate skill may be got at the cost of power to go on growing... Unless a teacher is such



a student, he may continue to improve in the mechanics of school management, but he cannot grow as a teacher, an inspirer and director of soul-life” (p.198).

In order for prospective teachers to become reflective practitioners as well as competent facilitators of learning a more field based, contextual experience is preferable. “Teacher education programs could be more useful and intellectually demanding if they closely integrated methods courses and actual classroom teaching” (McDermott, 1995, p.184). Wilson, Floden, and Ferrini-Mundi (2001) suggest in their comprehensive review of teacher preparation research that teachers see “clinical experiences as a powerful, sometimes the single most powerful element of teacher preparation” (p. 2). McIntyre, Byrd, & Foxx (1999) recommend that prospective teachers be placed in early field experiences because of their critical value in the teacher preparation process. More recently, Darling-Hammond and colleagues summed up the importance of “entwining carefully designed clinical experiences early and throughout a program. Many teacher educators argue that student teachers see and understand both theory and practice differently if they are taking coursework concurrently with field-work.” (Darling-Hammond, & Baratz-Snowden, 2005, p. 401) In view of current research that suggests teacher preparation is more likely to be effective in a field-based setting, it seems logical to expand the quality and quantity of the field-based experiences teachers-in-training receive (McDermitt & Gormely, et al, 1995; Perry & Power, 2004). It isn’t simply a question of expanding the field experience to include more hours or more diverse settings and experiences. What must be addressed is how the field experiences can be fused with the teaching of content and methodology more effectively so that *beginning teachers are not left on completely on their own* to make necessary connections between theoretical knowledge and application.

### **Purpose**

This paper describes a pilot program that began in spring, 2004 in a professional development school affiliated with our teacher preparation program. Our purpose was to see how we could effectively integrate classroom field experiences with teacher preparation coursework, to evaluate the effects of placing a cohort group of undergraduate students enrolled in a literacy methods course in a primary classroom one half day per week We chose the literacy course because it was the first in our sequence of methods courses, and with-

out doubt reading constitutes the gateway to all other learning. We wanted to find out if learning to teach reading would happen with more authenticity if it happened in classrooms where children were actively learning to read. This paper addresses the data compiled in this pilot. This pilot became the prototype for our current field based teacher education program.

### *Rationale*

After reviewing current research and examining the practice in our own teacher preparation program, we decided to field test a project that would help us evaluate some initial effects of placing undergraduate pre-service teachers in classroom apprenticeships. In our teacher preparation program all courses require between 12 and 16 field experience hours, as mandated by New York State. However, these hours are for the most part observational and not interactive. While some of these observation hours are tied to course assignments, too many hours are spent sitting in random classrooms with little purpose other than to clock state mandated hours. However in this pilot project, our cohort spent substantial time in classrooms with master teachers and children, tutoring, designing lessons, and doing informal assessments of reading progress. We anticipated that they would become novice teachers with many more skills and dispositions necessary for effective teaching. In addition we anticipated that they would better understand the culture of schools, best practice, and would demonstrate a level of comfort that would inform and enhance their interactions with school faculty, personnel, parents, and children. We selected our PDS because of our long-standing relationship with the school and its commitment to academic success.

The PDS was formed with the Thomas A. Edison Elementary School several years ago by one of the authors who serves as the college liaison. Analogous to the concept of a teaching hospital, the Professional Development School provides an arena for pre-service teachers, in-service teachers, and college faculty to conduct research and improve teaching practice. The Professional Development School successfully bridges the gap between theory and practice by providing pre-service teachers with early exposure to real classrooms (Holmes Group, 1990; Darling Hammond & Baratz-Snowden, 2005).

Located near the college, this elementary school also reflects the changing demographics in many suburban districts. Increasingly, poverty, rising numbers

of English language learners, and more population diversity are having an impact on suburban schools. Once considered an oasis, a haven for homogeneity, many suburban schools have recently begun to mirror their urban counterparts. These changes to suburban schools create challenges for suburban schools of education that have historically prepared teachers to teach white, middle and upper middle class students. These teachers are typically prepared to work with a student who is similar to themselves: white, middle class, and English speaking (Commins & Miramontes, 2006).

The Thomas A. Edison Elementary School has 440 children in grades K-5; 88% are Latino, 7% are African-American, and 2% are Caucasian. With more than 80% of its students eligible for free or reduced lunch, and approximately 38% English language learners, this school has been a model for successfully educating high poverty, minority students. Since 1997, the school has witnessed dramatic increases in achievement in all academic areas as measured by New York State assessments. Currently, over 90% of Edison students are at or above the passing rate on all state tests. Teacher candidates benefit from being trained in schools that have demonstrated success in working with high needs student populations (Foster, Lewis, & Onafowora, 2005).

## Methodology

### *Subjects*

In spring, 2004, when students were coming in to register for Fall, 2004 classes, we asked those undergraduates ready to take the first literacy class, (approximately 30 students), if they would be interested in being in a pilot project that would entail extra hours in classrooms with children. After considering their class schedules and other work responsibilities, 5 students self-selected for the field-based project. The others were randomly selected from the campus-based course. We met with the 5 female sophomore students and discussed the rationale for the project and the expectations for participation. We explained that they would be spending mornings, one half day per week at the elementary school during the second grade class's literacy block. They would be expected to work with small groups of students completing some of their college course assignments, as well as helping the classroom teacher with literacy instruction.

The campus-based group consisted of 5 undergraduates female sophomore students enrolled in the

same two sections of Literacy I; they were randomly selected. The literacy course required 12 hours of observation in classrooms during the semester; however, the contact the campus-based group had with children and schools was limited to only those 12 hours of observation. There is no teaching or tutoring during those required hours. Both the field-based and the campus-based groups complete the same specific course assignments, which include an article critique, an observational report, a midterm, a final, a demonstration lesson, and an un-graded dialogue journal.

The public school setting was a 98% Latino Title I school located in a suburb of New York City. The college at which we teach, has formed a Professional Development School (PDS) Partnership with this elementary school. One of the authors served as the College liaison in the PDS. In her role as college liaison, she was at the elementary school one and a half days per week to oversee the project and to facilitate a continued and growing partnership between the College and the school. The other author was the Associate Dean of Undergraduate Education and a professor in the teacher preparation program; she selected the students and has been involved with this project from its inception.

The classroom teacher was the second grade team leader. The literacy professors were trained and teach their courses in alignment with best literacy practices. In addition to teaching, these professors collected data on the group's course assignments. In a comparison of GPA's, the field-based and campus-based groups were nearly identical. The mean GPA for the field-based group (N=5) was 3.54. The mean GPA for the campus-based group (N=5) was 3.42. In looking at academic majors, the field-based group had 3 Psychology majors, 1 English, and 1 Sociology major. The campus-based group had 2 Psychology, 1 Art, 1 Italian, and 1 Sociology. All of the students, field-based and campus-based, majored in Education as well as an academic area. The pilot group spent, over the course of the semester, 48 hours with one group of second graders and their teacher, where they completed the course assignments *and* learned about the acquisition of literacy skills. As this was the first course in literacy in our teacher preparation program, neither group had any previous classroom experience in the teaching of literacy.

### *Procedures*

At the beginning of the fall, 2004 semester, we

met with all the students. We discussed the objectives of the project, the school setting, their responsibilities, professional dispositions, and the tools for evaluation. We explained that each member of the pilot group would keep a journal documenting her observations, her work with the children and the classroom teacher, and the relationship of these activities to course assignments and readings.

We also spoke with the literacy professors at the beginning of the semester and several times during the semester. Our interactions were confined to questions about the progress of the students in the literacy course. The feedback from the professors early on in the semester highlighted how beautifully the pilot group performed in the literacy course. Specifically, they participated more in classroom discussion and brought in relevant examples from their work with the children. During the semester, the PDS liaison met with the classroom teacher several times. She met once for a more formal discussion on the progress of the pilot group, and several times more briefly when she dropped in to visit the classroom. The classroom teacher reported that the pilot group interacted well with the students, took initiative, and asked good questions about the purpose and execution of literacy lessons. The pilot group also discussed course assignments with the classroom teacher and asked for her professional input.

At the end of the semester, we met with all the project participants. We discussed each participant's overall impressions of the first semester of this pilot project. The field-based participants were most enthusiastic about their experiences; they had developed strong bonds with the children and the classroom teacher. They commented that they observed a close "relationship between the textbook, the course content, and strategies modeled in the classroom." One literacy professor said "the field-based candidates participated more frequently in class discussions, and were often called upon to connect theory and practice by giving specific examples from their classroom experience." The classroom teacher reported that these candidates are "comfortable with my second graders and the children feel they can always go to the Manhattanville teacher-candidates for help."

### *Measurements*

In order to evaluate more specifically the progress and initial results of this pilot project, we examined the journals, teacher-candidate self-reflection,

(appendix A) (completed by both groups), literacy assignment grades for both groups, and the Evaluation form (appendix B) completed by the classroom teacher for each teacher-candidate enrolled in the pilot group and the literacy professors for both groups.

## **Results and Discussion**

### *Journals*

At the beginning of the project, the professors gave both groups the same three prompts to guide their journal responses. We reviewed the journals based on those prompts. They were:

Discuss your role in the classroom.

Discuss what you have learned about the teaching of literacy.

Discuss your thoughts and reflections about teaching reading and writing in the primary grades.

Our review of the journals highlighted several key themes. First, all our teacher-candidates began their role in the classroom as observers. But by the second week, the pilot group started working one-on-one or with a small group of children, either to help the classroom teacher or to conduct one of several literacy course assignments. Within a few weeks, the pilot group worked with students as needed. Second, as their journals addressed "learning about literacy," one teacher-candidate in the pilot group wrote that she was impressed with how important "sounding out hard words" was, and she was impressed by one second grader's need to read "slowly and clearly... Anytime I help her sound out a word, she makes sure to repeat the whole word and the sentence." Another teacher-candidate in the pilot group wrote, "During independent reading, I assessed J. using a running record. She had trouble with the longer words and tended to mumble them when she read. Mrs. R. said the next time I should ask her to repeat herself. Next time I choose a text for a running record, I have to be more careful to pick out something on the child's level." Third, the journals were replete with examples of the teacher-candidates' enthusiasm for their opportunity to work with a master teacher and children who were learning to read. Our pilot group seemed keenly aware of how the teaching of literacy and the acquisition of reading and writing skills are intertwined.

For example, one pilot group teacher-candidate wrote,

The Phonological Awareness Assessment was easier for the student. But she had some difficulty

with rhyming words. This was the first time I was able to assess a child, and I found it very interesting. I liked analyzing the results and thinking of ways to help the child in areas in which she is having difficulty.

Another example read,

Today, during Act I, one of the girls who usually reads to me, read me a chapter book for the first time. I was so proud of her, and she did a great job, and most importantly, she comprehended everything that she was reading.

Also,

Mrs. R told E that he could buddy read. No one else was doing this center, so he came over to me with a book about whales and said, 'I guess you'll have to be my buddy today.' He opened the book and began looking at the pictures. I said, 'What about all the words?' he replied, 'Let's take a picture walk first.' It's amazing how children use the

reading strategies they are taught.

Finally, we were impressed by how much of an impact a half-a day a week for one semester in a classroom with a master teacher and 21 second graders had on teacher-candidates' attitudes. The first semester yielded impressive results. Additional time in the classroom improved practice and reflectivity for the pilot group. As one teacher-candidate summed up: "It helped me tremendously ... I would not trade this experience for anything. I can't wait to go to next semester's placement."

All participants in the pilot program were asked to reflect on their semester's experience in the literacy I course. They answered 2 questions:

How much comfort do you have applying the theoretical knowledge learned in this course to a group of early literacy learners?

What level of comfort do you have working with a group of early literacy learners?

Table 1  
Teacher Candidate Self-reflection

Group	Description	Limited	Moderate	High
Field-based n=5	Question 1:			5
	Question 2			5
Campus-based n= 5	Question 1	1	4	1
	Question 2	1	2	2

These two questions were answered on a 3 point scale from limited (1) to high (3).

The following table gives the numeric results from both groups.

It is clear, in spite of the small number of field-based participants, this group uniformly felt more confident in its abilities to relate theory to practice. This group also felt most confident working with early literacy learners. The campus based group, on the other hand, was only moderately confident in its classroom abilities. In addition to the numeric indicators, we asked all teacher-candidates to provide any comments they felt were relevant. The field-based candidates did not add additional comments, possibly because they provided in-depth commentary each week in their journals. However, the campus based group provided comments. For example, one wrote, "I find just sitting in the corner observing is not enough. At

first, it helps you to get comfortable with the classroom, but after 4 hours, you want to do something." Another wrote, "This was a very comprehensive, informative class. I would not feel 100% confident teaching it yet, just because it is a lot of material to worry about." And finally, another wrote that the course would have been more helpful, "if there were some interaction with children."

Both groups completed several assignments. For the purposes of this project, we compared the observation report, the lesson, final exam, and the final grade.

From the grades reported here there seem to be almost identical outcomes, except for the lesson plan grades. There the campus-based candidates performed better. However, they prepared a lesson for non-existent children, thinking perhaps of the form and not necessarily the delivery of said lesson to real children. Every experienced teacher is aware that a lesson plan

Table 2  
Literacy Assignment Grades

Group	Description	Below B	B	A
Field-based n=5	Report	0	2	3
Campus-based n=5	Report	0	2	3
Field-based n=5	Lesson		2	3
Campus-based n=5	Lesson			5
Field-based n=5	Final exam		2	3
Campus-based n=5	Final exam		2	3
Field-based n=5	Final grade		2	3
Campus-based n=5	Final grade		2	3

is only a template to guide instruction, but the needs of the students in the class often dictate a different direction than the teacher originally planned.. The field-based candidates' lessons may have been more reflec-

tive of real experience in the classroom with real children; and therefore not perfectly conforming to the theoretical format desired by the literacy professors.

Table 3  
Evaluation Form: Classroom teacher's rating:

Group	Description	Needs More Experience	Needs Improvement	Effective	Very Effective
Field-based n=5	Professional Qualities			1	4
	Course Objectives			3	2

The evaluation form was a two part, four-point scaled (appendix B) that targeted the professional/teaching qualities and literacy course objectives. We asked the classroom teacher to evaluate the field-based candidates and asked the literacy professors to evaluate both groups on these two measures.

The classroom teacher rated two of the teacher-candidates in the field-based group *very effective*. Two of the remaining three field-based candidates were rated *very effective* on professional qualities, and one was rated *effective*. All three of these teacher candidates were rated *effective* on Course Objectives.

Table 4  
Literacy Professors' Pre Practicum Results: Literacy Professor's rating

Group	Description	Needs More Experience	Needs Improvement	Effective	Very Effective
Field-based n=3	Professional Qualities		1	2	
	Course Objectives		2	1	
Campus-based n=3	Professional Qualities			1	2
	Course Objectives		1	2	

One literacy professor rated two of the teacher-candidates in the field-based group *effective* on Professional/Teaching Qualities section. And one teacher-candidate in the field-based group rated *needs improvement*. In addition, one teacher-candidate in the field-based group was rated *effective* on the course objectives. And two were rated *needs improvement*. We were unable to obtain the data for the other two teacher-candidates in the field-based group; the professor did not cooperate.

It appears from the results of the evaluation as measured by the literacy professor and the classroom teacher that there is little agreement on their assessments of necessary professional skills or the attainment of course objectives. It is possible that what we are witnessing here is a schism between theory and practice being played out in the experiences of our field-based teacher candidates. One literacy professor rated two of the campus-based candidates *very effective* on Professional/Teaching Qualities. And one campus-based candidate was rated as *effective*. Two of the campus-based candidates were rated *effective* on course objectives. And one was rated as *needs improvement*.

Once again, the other literacy professor did not share the data.

As we began this pilot project, we became increasingly aware of a disconnect between expectations at the college and expectations in public school classrooms. We are concerned about this disconnect between college course expectations and how our teacher-candidates are expected by master teachers to perform in the classroom. The college professor and the classroom teacher have different perspectives on effectiveness and how one demonstrates teaching skill. This disconnect may be due in part to the fact that most education professors are physically and experientially distant from the daily realities of classrooms and children. They teach ABOUT learning to read; classroom teacher teach children to read.

### Conclusions

The pilot project provided us with a great deal to consider. We were quite pleased with the enthusiasm of our field-based teacher-candidates. We were excited by how quickly they integrated themselves into the real world of school, and with their enthusiasm for continuing their affiliation with this project. Four of the five field-based teacher-candidates subsequently

enrolled in the second literacy class which was held in an upper level elementary classroom with classroom teacher and input from the college professor.

Drawing any broad conclusions about how this pilot project influences the overall preparation of new teachers would be foolhardy. But we have begun to make some changes to our teacher preparation program. We have been able to enlist the support of the administration in our push to include more teacher candidates in the field-based methods courses. We now have several methods classes being taught in elementary school classrooms, where classroom teachers, teacher-candidates, and college instructors work together in the classroom to support the effective preparation of new teachers. We are confident, especially after working with classroom teachers and our teacher-candidates, that productive time spent in classrooms with children who are learning to read, do math, social studies, and science may be a more comprehensive, authentic, and integrated approach to the preparation of competent teachers.

*Joan Rudel Weinreich, Ph.D.* is an Associate Professor of Education at Manhattanville College. She is also the Associate Dean for undergraduate admissions and advising in the School of Education. Her areas of research interest include the preparation of effective teachers, literacy, and foundations; she has published several articles in these areas. *JoAnne Ferrara* is an Assistant Professor and Department Chair of Curriculum and Instruction she also serves as a Professional Development School liaison. Her research interest include professional development schools, full-service community schools, pre-service teacher education, and mentoring.

### References

- Darling-Hammond, L., & Baratz-Snowden, J. (Ed.s). (2005). *A good teacher in every classroom: Preparing the highly qualified teachers our children deserve.* (pp.5-36) California: Jossey-Bass.
- Dewey, John (1903). Democracy in education. *The Elementary School Teacher*, 4(4) 193-204.
- Commins, N. L., & Miramontes, O. B., (2006). Addressing linguistic diversity from the onset. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 57(3), 240-246.
- Goodlad, J. L. (1991). Why we need a complete redesign of teacher education. *Educational Leadership*, 49(3), 4-10

- Holmes Group. (1990). *Tomorrow's schools: Principles for the design of professional development schools*. East Lansing, MI: Author
- Howey, K. (1996). Designing coherent and effective teacher education programs. In J. Sikula, T. J. Buttery, & Guyton (EDS). *Handbook of research on teacher education*, (pp. 143-169). New York: Macmillan Library Reference USA.
- Horowitz, D., F., Darling-Hammond, L., Bransford, J., Comer, J., Rosebrock, K., Austin, K., Rust, F. (2005). Educating teachers for developmentally appropriate practice. In Darling-Hammond, L., and Bransford, J. (Eds.), *Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do* (pp. 88-125). California: Jossey-Bass.
- Knowles, J. & Cole, A. (1996). Developing practice through field experiences. In F. Murray, (ed.), *The teacher educator's handbook*, (pp.648-688). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- McDermott, P. Gormley, K. et al. (1995). The influence of classroom practica experiences on student teachers' thoughts about teaching. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 46(3), 184-191.
- McIntyre, J.D., Byrd, D. M., & Foxx, S. M. ( 1999) Field and Laboratory experiences. In J. Silula, T.J. Buttery, & E.Guyton (ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education*, (2<sup>nd</sup> ed., pp. 171-193.) New York: Macmillan.
- Perry, C. & Power, B. (2004). Finding the truths in teacher preparation field experiences. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 31(2), 125-136.
- Podsen, I. J., & Denmark, V.M., (2000). *Coaching & mentoring first-year & student teachers*. New York: Eye On Education.
- Wilson, S. , Floden R., & Ferrini-Mundy, J. (2001). Teacher preparation research: Current knowledge, gaps, and recommendation. *The Center for the study of Teaching and Policy*, University of Washington, Document S-01-1.
- Wideen, M. , Mayer-Smith, J. , & Moon, B. (1998). A critical analysis of the research on learning to teach: Making the case for an ecological perspective on inquiry. *Review of Educational Research*, 68(2), 130-178.

## Appendix A

### Self Evaluation

\*\*\* rate yourself on the following course objectives\*\*

**VE** = Very Effective      **E** = Effective      **NI** = Needs Improvement      **NME** = Needs More Experience

**NA/NO** = Not Applied/Not Observed

		4	3	2	1	
		VE	E	NI	MNE	NA
2.1	I understand the major theories of literacy learning					
2.2	I demonstrate knowledge of language development					
2.3	I understand the physical, cognitive, emotional and sociocultural factors that influence learning to read					
2.4	I know the developmental stages of beginning reading, writing and spelling					
2.5	I have the ability to teach reading and writing to students of diverse backgrounds					
2.6	I have the ability to construct environments that support literacy learning					
2.7	I am familiar with the NYS Student Learning Standards for English Language Arts (reading, writing, listening and speaking)					
2.8	I am familiar with techniques for assessing and monitoring student's progress in literacy development					
2.9	I am familiar with a wide range of children's literature (fiction and nonfiction) at appropriate levels					
2.10	I have an understanding of the use of technology as a tool in literacy instruction					



## Appendix B

### Evaluation Form -EDU 3367

Name of Candidate: \_\_\_\_\_

School: \_\_\_\_\_

Date Observed: \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher: \_\_\_\_\_

Please check the appropriate column to evaluate this student. Please return the form in the attached envelope.

#### PROFESSIONAL/TEACHING QUALITIES

**VE** = Very Effective      **E** = Effective      **NI** = Needs Improvement      **NME** = Needs More Experience

**NA/NO** = Not Applied/Not Observed

		4	3	2	1	
1.1	Demonstrates initiative	VE	E	NI	NME	NA NO
1.2	Demonstrates adaptability	VE	E	NI	NME	NA NO
1.3	Demonstrates cooperation	VE	E	NI	NME	NA NO
1.4	Demonstrates maturity and sound judgment	VE	E	NI	NME	NA NO
1.5	Demonstrates capability for learning	VE	E	NI	NME	NA NO
1.6	Demonstrates capability to teach students	VE	E	NI	NME	NA NO
1.7	Demonstrates capability to manage students	VE	E	NI	NME	NA NO
1.8	Demonstrates grasp of content	VE	E	NI	NME	NA NO
1.9	Demonstrates preparation for class	VE	E	NI	NME	NA NO
1.10	Demonstrates correct written expression	VE	E	NI	NME	NA NO
1.11	Demonstrates correct oral expression	VE	E	NI	NME	NA NO
1.12	Interacts in a professional manner with students	VE	E	NI	NME	NA NO
1.13	Interacts in a professional manner with school personnel	VE	E	NI	NME	NA NO
1.14	Adheres to school policies ( <i>i.e.</i> arrives at school on time, dresses appropriately, etc.)	VE	E	NI	NME	NA NO

**COURSE OBJECTIVES**

**VE** = Very Effective    **E** = Effective    **NI** = Needs Improvement

**NME** = Needs More Experience

**NA/NO** = Not Applied/Not Observed

		4	3	2	1	
2.1	Demonstrates knowledge of major theories of literacy learning	VE	E	NI	NME	NA NO
2.2	Demonstrates knowledge of language development					
2.3	Understands the physical, cognitive, emotional and socio-cultural factors that influence learning to read					
2.4	Demonstrates knowledge of developmental stages of beginning reading, writing and spelling					
2.5	Demonstrates the ability to teach reading and writing to students of diverse backgrounds					
2.6	Demonstrates an ability to construct environments that support literacy learning					
2.7	Familiar with the NYS Student Learning Standards for English Language Arts (reading, writing, listening and speaking)					
2.8	Familiar with techniques for assessing and monitoring student's progress in literacy development					
2.9	Familiar with a wide range of children's literature (fiction and nonfiction) at appropriate levels					
2.10	Demonstrates an understanding of the use of technology as a tool in literacy instruction					

**Overall my professional impression of this teacher-education student leads me to believe that his or her potential for developing into an effective teacher is:**

Fair                      Average                      Good                      Outstanding

Evaluator's Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Adapted from: Podsen & Denmark 2000

## Teacher Candidates' Perceptions of Urban Schools and Students

*Rachel Collopy, Ph.D.*

*Connie Bowman, Ph.D.*

The major challenge for teacher educators is the preparation of candidates to teach diverse students in diverse settings (Proctor, Rentz, & Jackson, 2001; Terrill & Mark, 2000; Wiggins & Follo, 1999; Zeichner, 2003). There is particularly a need for qualified teachers in high poverty, urban schools (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Ingersoll, 2003; Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2002; Trumbull, Greenfield, & Quiroz, 2003). Some of the urban teacher shortage is attributed to hiring processes and lower pay offered by large urban districts (Ingersoll, 2003; Jacob, 2007). However, the problem is exacerbated because fewer teacher candidates seek urban teaching positions. Studies have reported that teacher candidates hold negative perceptions of urban schools and diverse student populations and express a preference toward working in middle-class, suburban districts (Tiezzi & Cross, 1997).

Teacher candidates' backgrounds and prior experiences likely contribute to their negative preconceptions about high poverty, urban settings. The majority of teacher candidates are white, middle-class, monolingual and monocultural females under 25 years of age with little experience with urban or high poverty settings (Follo, Hoerr, & Vorheis-Sargent, 2002; Gomez, 1996; Proctor, Rentz, & Jackson, 2001; Terrill & Mark, 2000; Trumbull, Greenfield, & Quiroz, 2003). Teacher candidates' backgrounds contrast with the demographics of urban students who are increasingly racial and linguistic minorities as well as have high poverty rates (Pang & Gibson, 2001; Rong & Preissle, 1997).

Course readings, assignments, and field placements are common strategies used in colleges of education to address teacher candidates' preconceptions about diverse populations. There is a paucity of research on the impact of course readings and assignments specifically on candidates' orientation toward high poverty, urban schools. However, research on the impact of teacher education courses on candidates' views of ethnically diverse, urban students has shown mixed results (Hollins & Torres, 2005). One drawback to using only class readings is the potential of increasing and affirming candidates' stereotypes (McDiarmid & Price, 1993; Zeichner, 1996).

Field experiences have also been viewed as a valuable component of teacher education (Love & Kruger, 2005). They provide an opportunity to acquaint the candidate with students in high poverty, urban settings. Indeed, Rice (2003) found in the meta-analysis on teacher quality that field experience was by far the most reported result in the research as being critical in assisting candidates to be effective teachers.

Field experience can, however, have unintended consequences on candidates' perceptions of urban students. Haberman (1991) warns that oftentimes candidates see events that support their preconceived beliefs and it becomes difficult to change their beliefs. Wiggins and Follo (1999) and Weiner (1990) found that field experiences in urban settings increased preservice teachers' ability to teach in diverse settings, but decreased desire to teach in an urban setting.

Others such as Pagano, Weiner, Obi, and Swearingen (1995) and Wolffe (1996) found that preservice teachers who were successful with diverse learners in an urban school also had a positive view when it came to teaching in an urban setting, but field experiences without accompanying coursework on diversity have minimal impact on students' preconceptions and attitudes toward diverse populations (Deering & Stanutz, 1995; Tiezzi & Cross, 1997).

This study investigates the impact of a child and adolescence development course with integrated field experiences, readings and assignments on teacher candidates' beliefs and attitudes toward poor and urban students and schools. We hypothesized that these candidates would have predominately negative preconceptions of urban schools and students at the beginning of the semester. We further hypothesized that the integration of field experiences, course readings, and assignments would impact candidates' attitudes toward urban students and schools.

## Methods

### *The Teacher Education Program*

The setting for this study is a midwestern, private university that places 300 candidates per year for student teaching. The preservice teachers match the typical profile of teacher candidates (Follo, Hoerr, & Vorheis-Sargent, 2002; Gomez, 1996; Proctor, Rentz, & Jackson, 2001; Terrill & Mark, 2000). That is, the great majority are white, middle class, and monolingual.

Teacher candidates begin their field experiences during the first-year and then have a minimum of one field experience each year. A first-year course introduces the field of education and includes a 20-hour service learning component. The sophomore-level child and adolescent development course requires 20 hours of classroom field observations. An informal survey administered prior to this study found that at the beginning of a junior-year pedagogy course teacher candidates held predominately negative views of urban schools and students. Similar to previous findings (Deering & Stanutz, 1995; Tiezzi & Cross, 1997) these teacher candidates' views had persisted despite field placements in urban settings.

### *Course*

The semester-long sophomore level child and adolescent development class was redesigned to address

teacher candidates' preconceptions of students in high poverty, urban schools through integrated field experiences, readings, and course assignments. First, teacher candidates were specifically placed in high poverty, urban settings for 20 hours of classroom observations. During observations, teacher candidates were required to take observation notes related to physical, cognitive, social, personal, and emotional development. Depending on the classroom to which teacher candidates were assigned, they assisted the teacher by working with individual or groups of students to varying degrees. Middle childhood candidates were placed in one of several high poverty, urban middle school settings. All of the candidates seeking secondary licensure were placed in an early college academy, a high poverty, urban high school connected with the university and focused on preparing first generation college students. The school was open to all of the municipality's entering ninth graders who had at least a sixth-grade reading level.

Second, in addition to a child and adolescent development textbook for educators (McDevitt & Ormrod, 2006), readings on childhood poverty were assigned. The implications of the reading were discussed in class and considered in light of candidates' field observations. Topics included the magnitude of childhood poverty in the United States, the impact of poverty on child development, issues of generational poverty and education, and fostering resiliency (e.g. Child Trends, 2006; Children's Defense Fund, 2006; Evans, 2004; Habitat for Humanity, 2003; Institute for Research on Poverty, 2007; Krovetz, 1999; Payne, 2003).

Third, course activities and assignments were designed to ask teacher candidates to reflect on their own preconceptions of poor, urban students, to distinguish between descriptions and interpretations in their observations of urban students, to develop an understanding of the physical and psycho-social impact of childhood poverty, and to consider their responsibility as teachers for promoting resiliency and student success. The principal of high school in which many candidates would complete their field experiences principal provided an orientation to urban schools to students in the course. Drawing on research and her experience working in a variety of school districts, she explained the need for urban teachers, described the backgrounds and abilities of the students at her school in comparison to middle class suburban populations, read from student autobiographies, and elaborated on

the potential rewards of being an urban teacher.

Before beginning field observations, teacher candidates use text and video-based cases to learn how to take detailed observation notes on child development. In the field, analysis of observation notes became the basis for a developmental case study report on an individual student, a major course assignment. As a culminating assignment, candidates collaborated in small groups to design developmentally appropriate classrooms for a particular grade, subject area, and high poverty, urban school assigned by the course instructor.

### *Participants*

The participants ( $N = 56$ ) in the study were students in three sections of a semester-long sophomore level child and adolescent psychology class who completed both a pre and post open-ended survey. From this group 28 were in the Adolescent Young Adult (AYA) program, 25 were middle childhood majors and 3 were enrolled as religion majors. Of the 56 participants, one was African American and the rest were European American. There were 40 females and 16 males in the course. All of the participants were placed in urban and high poverty classrooms.

### *Instruments*

The instruments were open-ended surveys designed to gather information on candidates' preconceptions and attitudes about urban students and schools. The pre-survey was administered prior to field experiences and asked teacher candidates to describe their prior experiences with high poverty and/or urban youth and schools and what they thought of when they hear the term "urban schools." The post-survey was administered at the end of the semester following the completion of the field experience and asked candidates about their current thinking about urban schools, students from poverty, and how what they learned during the semester would affect them as a teacher.

### *Data Analysis*

A team of two researchers analyzed the candidates' responses from the surveys. Responses were recorded for each of the questions. Codes were generated from emerging themes and then categories were formed. Categories were refined and collapsed and entered into SPSS. When the categorization of responses was unclear, consensus was reached through

discussion between the two researchers.

The pre-survey responses were coded for candidates' characterizations of urban schools, teachers, and candidates' reported level of experience with urban and poor students. The post-survey responses were coded for candidates' orientations toward urban schools and students at the end of the semester.

## **Results**

### *Candidates' Prior Experiences*

The majority of participants had limited prior experience with urban or high poverty schools and students. Of the participants, 25% ( $n = 14$ ) had no prior urban experience and 37.5% ( $n = 21$ ) had no prior high poverty experience. An additional 17.9% ( $n = 10$ ) and 12.5% ( $n = 7$ ) of participants had limited experience with urban and high poverty schools including, for example, participating in a service project that brought underprivileged students to campus, attending a school to which urban students were bussed, playing in a basketball league that also included high poverty schools, and going on a brief mission trip to a high poverty area. More than a quarter of the participants had previously completed course-related classroom observations in urban (26.8,  $n = 15$ ) or high poverty (28.6%,  $n = 16$ ) schools. A minority of participants' prior experiences may have allowed them to form personal relationships with youth from urban (23.2%,  $n = 13$ ) or low socio-economic backgrounds (16.1%,  $n = 9$ ). Examples of such experiences could include being a camp counselor, tutoring, coaching, or participating in the Big Brothers/ Big Sisters program. Very few of the participants reported living in or being part of an urban (7.1%,  $n = 4$ ) or high poverty (5.4%,  $n = 3$ ) community. Only two participants reported having lived in a community that was both high poverty and urban.

### *Descriptions of Urban Schools*

At the beginning of the semester, the great majority of participants' descriptions of urban schools focused on differences between urban schools and their own school experiences or reflected a negative view of urban schools. For the purposes of this article we will only report the descriptions made by over 10% of participants. Nearly half of the candidates described urban schools as being in a city or inner city (50%,  $n = 28$ ). Schools were further described as under-funded (34%,  $n = 19$ ), providing lower quality education (11%,  $n = 6$ ), crowded (13%,  $n = 7$ ), located in a

rough or high crime area (13%,  $n = 7$ ), and having more discipline or behavior problems (18%,  $n = 10$ ). The student population was described as higher poverty (61%,  $n = 34$ ), majority minority (16%,  $n = 9$ ), and diverse (20%,  $n = 11$ ). From comments participants made on the end-of-semester survey, we suspect that many used the term diverse to mean a majority of minority and/or poor students, not racial or socio-economic diversity. Finally, candidates assumed that there was less concern for education in urban schools (19%,  $n = 11$ ) that was evident in that students lacked motivation to do school work (13%,  $n = 7$ ) and parents do not care as much about education (7%,  $n = 4$ ).

Two out of the 56 respondents noted that they lacked experience with urban schools and so their comments were based on stereotypes. Only 3 participants (5%) wrote about positive aspects of urban schools including the difference they could make in students' education.

#### *End of Semester Survey*

We coded participants' end of semester responses on a continuum of five orientations toward urban schools and students: a focus on differences, reduced stereotypes, awareness of students' backgrounds, recognition of teachers' responsibility, and increased teaching efficacy. Two participants focused on differences between urban students and themselves with a bias toward the candidate's own background and perspective being superior. For example, one wrote, "There are many opportunities and background information that I, as a suburban middle class raised individual, have been asked to know that urban students do not know. They have different base knowledge and are given less or different opportunities. It is my responsibility to understand that enough to provide them a 'want to' [learn]."

Candidates in the reduced stereotype category indicated an awareness that at least some of the stereotypes they previously held about urban students were untrue or exaggerated. Five participants reported that the class and field observations had challenged their preconceptions of urban students and reduced the stereotypes they held. Fourteen participants indicated they were more aware of students' backgrounds and willing to learn about students as individuals. Twenty-six candidates went a step further and discussed the responsibility of the teacher in ensuring students' success by adapting instruction to meet students' needs, holding high expectations, promoting resiliency, com-

municating with parents, and teaching cultural capital (e.g., hidden rules of the middle class, pragmatics, field trips, information about college). As one candidate stated, "I will have to recognize the needs of every child and strive to meet their needs. At the same time I will keep high expectations for all as I contribute to their learning experience."

Finally, nine students reported that they believed they would now be more effective working in urban schools. As one candidate wrote, "I know not to have the 'us-them' mentality when trying to foster development. I was born and raised in middle class Catholic school -- so to teach in an urban school, I have one of two feelings -- I'm here to help them or I fear the environment. This class gave me the tools and resources to be an effective teacher and create an environment conducive to learning for all of my students."

There was no clear pattern of relationship between participants' end-of-semester orientation and their licensure program or previous experience with high poverty or urban schools or student populations.

Nine participants included unsolicited information about their interest in teaching in an urban setting. Two said the course and field experience had reaffirmed their desire to teach in an urban school. One of these candidates had a responsibility orientation and the other an efficacy orientation. Five participants reported that they had not previously considered teaching in an urban setting, but would seek a position in an urban school. One of these students had a reduced stereotypes orientation, while the other four had a responsibility orientation. Finally, two participants, one with a reduced stereotypes orientation and the other with an awareness orientation, said they would be open to an urban teaching position.

#### **Conclusion**

The teacher candidates in this study were typical in many ways. They were predominately European American, middle class, and with little experience with urban schools or children of poverty. At the beginning of the semester nearly all had beliefs about urban schools centered on negative generalizations and the differences between urban schools and their own backgrounds.

The research literature suggests that field experiences are a powerful component of teacher education programs. However, field experiences can reinforce negative stereotypes and overgeneralizations. This

study suggests the importance of coordinating coursework to provide another lens through which candidates can interpret their observations. As stated by one of the candidates, "Observation last year showed me a lot, but class this year combined with observation showed me even more."

Teacher candidates in this study participated in a combination of field observations in urban and high poverty schools and coordinated course readings, discussions, and assignments. At the end of the semester, only two candidates (3.6%) focused on differences between themselves and urban students. An additional nineteen (33.9%) teacher candidates described themselves as holding fewer stereotypes or being more willing to learn about students as individuals. By far, the largest group was 35 (62.5%) candidates who as future teachers emphasized their own responsibility for ensuring their students' success or believed that they would now be a more effective teacher of urban youth. As one candidate wrote, "I think I will be more open to seeing reality and allowing my students to see and confront it in their own lives, take power over their own influences."

### Implications

As teacher educators we need to have our students working in diverse settings and engaging in readings that promote conversation about major issues surrounding urban schools and the challenges faced daily by teachers and students in these settings. From this one semester course, several candidates spontaneously volunteered in their post-surveys that this course had a positive effect on their beliefs of teaching in urban schools and working with students of poverty. One wrote, "I also loved seeing my observing teacher interact with the children, she had a much more wholesome relationship and I look forward to exhibiting a similar attitude. This class has made me excited to teach! . . . it wasn't till the end of this class that I realized how much I learned. I think I shocked my parents in how interested I have become in urban education and just education in general. I am glad I am finally excited about job possibilities."

Future research needs to consider whether the impact on teacher candidates' orientations found at the end of the semester is sustained across subsequent years. To this end we are developing a closed-ended items survey that can be used to assess candidates' attitudes and beliefs at several points. In addition, future research is needed to investigate the impact on

teacher candidates' beliefs about diversity and social justice if a systematic approach to field placements, readings and discussions were implemented across programs into all educational courses. By giving students multiple lenses to view observations, stereotyping and generalizations may give way to new insights and new beliefs about urban schools and students of poverty.

**Rachel M. B. Collopy PhD** is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Teacher Education at the University of Dayton.

**Connie L. Bowman PhD** is an Associate Professor and director of the Educational Field Office at the University of Dayton. Both authors are former urban teachers and are affiliated with the Adolescent to Young Adult Program.

### References

- Child Trends, (2006). *Child Trends social science research for those who serve children and youth*. Retrieved from <http://www.childtrends.org>
- Children's Defense Fund, (2006). *National and state data*. Retrieved from <http://www.childrensdefense.org/site/PageServer?pagename=Data>
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2000). Teacher quality and student achievement: A review of state policy evidence. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 8 (1). Retrieved May 1, 2007, from <http://epaa.asu.edu/epaa/v8n1/>
- Deering, T. E., & Stanutz, A. (1995). Preservice field experience as a multicultural component of a teacher education program. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 46, 390-394.
- Evans, G. W. (2004). The environment of childhood poverty. *American Psychologist*, 59(2), 77-92.
- Follo, E., Hoerr, B., & Vorheis-Sargent, S. (2002). Where will urban high school teachers for the 21<sup>st</sup> century come from? *American Secondary Education*, 30, 2-22.
- Gomez, M. (1996). Prospective teachers' perspectives on teaching other people's children. In K. Zeichner, S. Melnick, & M. Gomez (Eds.), *Currents of reform in preservice teacher education* (pp. 109-132). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Haberman, M. (1991). Can cultural awareness be taught in teacher education? *Teacher Education*, 4,

- Habitat for Humanity International (2003, April/May). Five things you should know about poverty in the United States. *Habitat World*. Retrieved from <http://www.habitat.org/hw/april-may03/takemeasure.html>
- Hollins, E., & Guzman, M. T. (2005). Research on preparing teachers for diversity. In M. Cochran-Smith & K. M. Zeichner (Eds.), *Studying teacher education: The report of the AERA panel on research and teacher education* (pp. 477-548). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Press.
- Ingersoll, R. (2003). The teacher shortage: Myth or reality? *Educational Horizons*, 81, 146-152.
- Institute for Research on Poverty. (2007). *Institute for Research on Poverty*. Retrieved from [www.ssc.wisc.edu/irp](http://www.ssc.wisc.edu/irp)
- Jacob, B. A. (2007). The challenges of staffing urban schools with effective teachers. *Future of Children*, 17, 129-153.
- Krovetz, M. (1999). Resiliency: A key element for supporting youth at-risk. *Clearing House*, 73(2), 121-123.
- Lankford, H., Loeb, S., & Wyckoff, J. (2002). Teacher sorting and the plight of urban schools: A descriptive analysis. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 24, 37-62.
- Love, A., & Kruger, A. (2005). Teacher beliefs and student achievement in urban schools serving African American students. *Journal of Educational Research*, 99(2), 87-98.
- McDiarmid, G., & Price, J. (1993). Preparing teachers for diversity: A study of student teachers in a multicultural program. In M. O'Hair & S. Odell (Eds.), *Diversity and teaching: Teacher education yearbook 1* (pp. 31-58). Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- McDevitt, T. M., & Ormrod, J. E. (2006). *Child Development and Education* (3rd ed.). New Jersey: Pearson, Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Pagano, A., Weiner, L., Obi, R., & Swearingen, J. (1995). How student teaching in an urban setting affects teacher candidates' career motivations. *Urban Review*, 1, 51-76.
- Pang, V. & Gibson, R. (2001). Concepts of democracy and citizenship: Views of African American teachers. *The Social Studies*, 92, 260-266.
- Payne, R. (2003). *A framework for understanding poverty*. Highlands, TX: Aha! Process.
- Proctor, T., Rentz, N., & Jackson, M. (2001). Preparing teachers for urban schools: The role of field experience. *Western Journal of Black Studies*, 25 (4), 219-227.
- Rice, J. (2003). *Teacher quality: Understanding the effectiveness of teacher attributes*. Washington, DC: Economic Policy Institute.
- Rong, S., & Preissle, J. (1997). The continuing decline in Asian American teachers. *American Educational Research Journal*, 34, 267-293.
- Tatum, B. D. (1992). Talking about race, learning about racism: The application of racial identity development theory in the classroom. *Harvard Educational Review*, 62, 1-24.
- Terrill, M., & Mark, D. (2000). Preservice teachers' expectations for schools of color and second language users. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 51(1), 149-155.
- Tiezzi, L., & Cross, B. (1997). Utilizing research on prospective teachers' beliefs to inform urban field experiences. *Urban Review*, 29, 113-125.
- Turnbull, E., Greenfield, P., & Quiroz, B. (2003). Cultural values in learning and education. In Belinda Williams (Eds.), *Closing the Achievement Gap: A vision for changing beliefs and practices* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed) (pp 67-98). Alexandria: ASCD.
- Weiner, L. (1990). Preparing the brightest for urban schools. *Urban Education*, 25(3), 258-273.
- Wiggins, R.A., & Follo, E. J. (1999). Development of knowledge, attitudes, and commitment to teach diverse student populations. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 51, 94-105.
- Wolffe, R. (1996). Reducing preservice teachers' negative expectations of urban field experience. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 23, 99-106.
- Zeichner, K. (1996). Educating teachers for cultural diversity. In K. Zeichner, S. Melnick, & M. Gomez (Eds.), *Currents of reform in preservice education* (pp.133-175). New York: Teachers Col-



## Ohio's Alternative Route to Special Education Licensure: A Descriptive Study

Dr. Clarissa Rosas

Dr. Mary West

"We know nothing helps a child learn as much as a great teacher. Great teachers are helping us reach our goal of having every child doing grade level work by 2014."

Secretary Margaret Spellings

### Introduction

The *No Child Left Behind Act* (NCLB, 2007) requires that all teachers of core academic subjects in the classroom be highly qualified. The requirements to be a highly qualified teacher (HQT) under NCLB include: (1) the attainment of a minimum of a bachelor's degree in the subject area taught; (2) a full state teacher certification; and (3) demonstration of knowledge in the subject(s) taught. In the special education field, the gap between a highly qualified teacher serving the general education population and a highly qualified intervention specialist (special education teacher) serving the special education population continues to grow.

Understanding the nature of the nation's "teacher shortage" is essential to meeting the mandates of NCLB. NCLB requires that not only every teacher be licensed in the area that they teach, but that they also have the content knowledge for each subject taught. At the middle and secondary levels, this requirement is compounded with the shortage of intervention specialists, particularly in regards to mathematics and science content. The mandate of having a HQT in every classroom is an impossible goal when there is a teacher shortage in poor communities and in certain subjects, such as special education, math, and science (Rotherham & Mead, 2003).

Data available from professional organizations (ERIC, 2001), United States Department of Education (USDOE, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2001), and the professional literature (AAEE, 2000; Boe, Cook, et al., 1998; Carlson et al, 2001; Carlson et al., 2002) indicate a severe, chronic shortage of special education teachers in the U.S.. Ninety-eight percent of the nation's school districts report special education teacher shortages (ERIC 2001; Fideler, Foster, & Schwartz, 2000).

The shortage of special education teachers has historically resulted in uncertified personnel teaching the most needy student population. According to USDOE data (1998, 2000), throughout the 1990s, more than 30,000 special education positions in the U. S. annually were filled by uncertified personnel. In the most recent data from USDOE (2003), 47,532 individuals filling special education positions in 2000-2001 (11.4% of all teachers) lacked appropriate special education certification. This 23% increase in uncertified teachers from the 1999-2000 school year is the largest ever reported by USDOE. Data from *Reports to Congress* (USDOE, 1998) suggest that a typical special educator teaches nearly 17 students on average (Carlson et al., 2001). Using this ratio for 2000-2001 and the most recent USDOE (2003) data indicate that a shortage of 47,532 teachers resulted in 808,000 students taught by personnel who were not fully certified. Projections show this situation worsening. The Bureau of Labor Statistics (1999) projected that between 1998 and 2008 there will be a need for over 135,000 special education teachers. As an example, in 2003 the Ohio Collaborative reported a 45.5% vacancy rate for inter-

vention specialists (Ohio Collaborative, 2003). The qualifications of uncertified teachers range widely: no degrees; college degrees in other concentrations (e.g., English, drama, home economics); and degrees in special education but certification to teach children with another type of disability (i.e., certified for learning disabilities but teaching children with visual disabilities). The Ohio Collaborative (2003) reported that 91.7 percent of teachers serving the most needy population (Mental Retardation/Developmentally Delayed) had temporary special education licenses. Regardless of the training level (or lack of training), these teachers are all considered to be *uncertified*, thus leaving students with disabilities with teachers who are unqualified and not meeting NCLB regulations of highly qualified teachers.

The shortage of qualified special education teachers is compounded when one considers the growth rate of students with disabilities. The growth rate of students with disabilities is almost three times greater than the growth rate of the general student population. For example, between 1977 and 1995, the general education population decreased by 2%, while the population of students with disabilities increased by 47% (Russ, Chiang, Rylance, & Bongers, 2001). If the proportion of students identified with disabilities continues to increase as it has since 1992, the result by 2010 will be an additional 1,256,000 students. According to the 22<sup>nd</sup> Annual Report to Congress (USDOE, 2000), this level of growth will result in the need for approximately 80,000 more special education teachers by 2010.

The shortage of special education teachers is a result of two major issues. The first issue is the attrition of special educators from the teaching profession (Boe, Bobbitt, Cook, & Barkanic, 1998; Ingersoll, 2001). The second issue is the limited number of graduates in special education programs from teacher preparation institutions (USDOE, 1998). The *20th Annual Report to Congress* indicated that "... graduates from teacher preparation programs must serve as the major source of supply (of special education teachers) in the future." Historically, the current number of graduates from traditional special education preparation programs in higher education have not met the growing demands of certified special education teachers.

The recent growing trend to meet the demands for special education teachers has resulted in alternative

paths for licensure. These paths are generically referred to as *alternative teacher education programs* (Rosenberg & Sindelar, 2000). The alternative path for licensure offers an alternative to the traditional university based, 2-3 years of graduate teacher education programs. Some alternative programs are designed to provide older, non-traditional students who may already have a bachelor's degree a means for entering the profession (Rosenberg & Sindelar, 2000; Zeichner & Schulte, 2001). Data from SPeNSE (2002) indicates that approximately 7% of all special education teachers earned their certification through an alternative route, compared to 4.5% of their general education counterparts. These investigators also report that the number of teachers in special education who are certified through alternative routes is apparently increasing, because approximately 10% of teachers who have been teaching less than five years were certified through one of these alternative routes.

The Ohio Legislature instituted the Alternative Educator License (AEL) in January 2000 in response to the critical shortage of K-12 intervention specialists (i.e. special education teachers). This alternative teaching route was designed to attract qualified individuals to the special education teaching field through an expedited process. The AEL license is a non-renewable, two year certificate which allows individuals to eventually earn a traditional special education license while teaching full-time in a school setting. To qualify for Ohio's Intervention Specialist (Special Education) AEL, individuals must have a bachelor's degree and complete 15 semester credit hours in special education coursework. After teaching for two years under the AEL, individuals can qualify for a traditional special education teaching license after completing additional Ohio Department of Education (ODE) requirements (ODE, 2006).

### **Purpose of the Study**

The objective of this descriptive study is twofold: (1) to provide a demographic profile of students seeking an Ohio Alternative Educator License in Special Education from a small private institute of higher education; (2) to compare this demographic information with Ohio and national data on special education alternative licensure.

### **Methodology**

Demographic information was collected from three populations: (1) students enrolled in a *Graduate*

*Program* at a small, private institution of higher education in southwestern Ohio; (2) all individuals in Ohio receiving an alternative educator license in special education; (3) national research studies on AEL. State and national data for this investigation was obtained from the Ohio Department of Education and national AEL research studies. This study included 129 participants enrolled in a special education *Graduate Program* at a small, private Ohio college from 2003 through 2006. Information was collected from surveys distributed to the 129 students as part of the program's ongoing assessment plan. The surveys were distributed during *Graduate Program* orientation meetings, permitting 100% student participation. The surveys included demographic information which included the highest degree completed and the district of employment as an AEL intervention specialist. Supplementary data was obtained from the Ohio Department of Education (ODE), which awarded 855 Ohio AEL Intervention Specialist licensures from 2000-2006. Ohio's District Typology and Socioeconomic Status (SES) information was obtained from the ODE website. In order to explore the demographic characteristics of the participants and the typology of hiring school districts, all data was analyzed with SPSS 12.0 and Microsoft Excel.

## Results

### *Intervention Specialist Licensure Areas*

Ohio special education teachers (i.e. intervention specialist) can earn licensure in five areas: Mild/Moderate Educational Needs, Moderate/Intensive Educational Needs, Visually Impaired, Hearing Impaired, and Gifted. The *Graduate Program* in the study permits students to complete coursework for licensure in one of two special education licensure areas: Mild/Moderate Educational Needs or Moderate/Intensive Educational Needs. Students complete their apprenticeship year in multiple classrooms which match their chosen licensure area, either as AELS teaching full-time or in an apprenticeship with a selected mentor teacher. In addition to the student population served under the selected licensure area, all students have experiences in early childhood (K-3), middle childhood (4-9), and secondary classrooms (9-12). Figure 1 presents the licensure areas selected by *Graduate Program* students. Figure 2 represents the Ohio special education AEL licensure areas. The proportion of Mild/Moderate versus Moderate /Intensive licensure areas (89%:11%) selected by *Graduate Program*

Figure 1:  
Graduate Program Licensure Areas

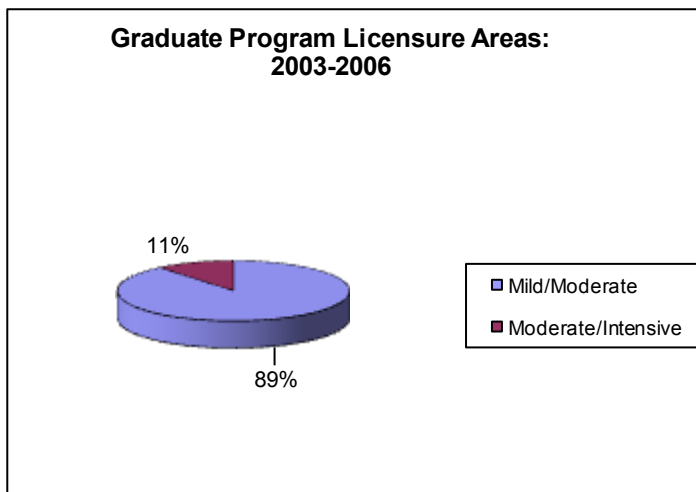
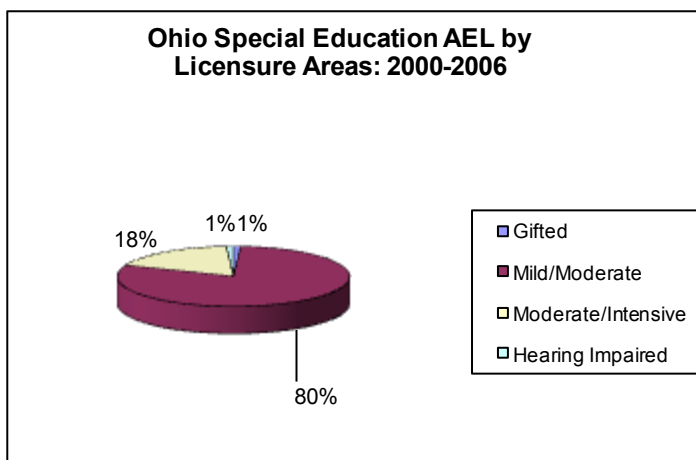


Figure 2:  
Ohio Special Education AELs by Licensure



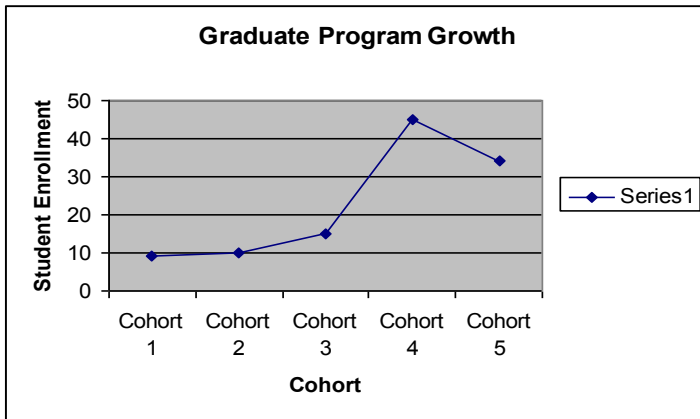
students is comparative to the proportion of Mild/Moderate and Moderate/Intense AEL licensure areas in Ohio (80%:18%).

### *Number of Participants in the Graduate Program*

A total of 129 students participated in the *Graduate Program*. These students were enrolled in one of five program cohorts from 2003-2006. The *Graduate Program* initially was funded through an Ohio Board of Regents Charter College Grant, in which partnerships with southwestern Ohio local school districts were established. Figure 3 presents the number of students enrolled in each cohort.

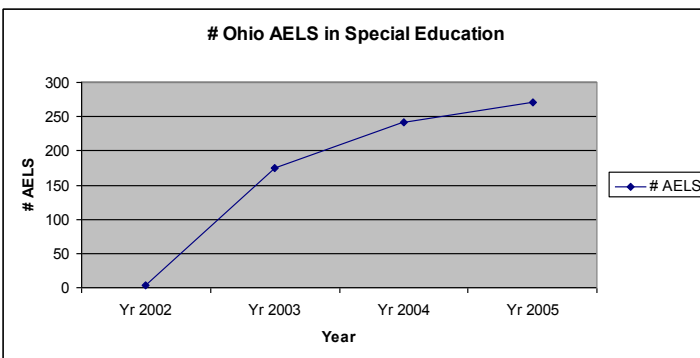
The growth of the program is reflective of the high demand for intervention specialists in Ohio and across the nation. Approximately 50% of Cohort 4 and Cohort 5 students received tuition scholarship monies

Figure 3:  
Graduate Program Cohort Enrollment



awarded by an ODE special education grant. The private institute of higher education in this study purposefully limited the number of students accepted into Cohort 5 in order to maintain the small faculty to student ratio in program courses. Over 75% of students entered the *Graduate Program* employed as an intervention specialist through a temporary Ohio licensure, such as an Ohio conditional permit or a long-term substitute license. On a national level, 8% of all secondary teachers are licensed under an AEL, in contrast to 14% of all AEL teachers licensed in the area of special education (Feistritzter, 2005). However, the critical

Figure 4:  
Ohio Intervention Specialist AELS



need for intervention specialists is still not being met. Figure 4 presents the number of Ohio intervention specialists licensed through an alternative route from 2002 to 2005.

In 2000, ODE began the alternative license for intervention specialists, and ODE data was available from 2002-2005. The data indicates a robust growth of AEL intervention specialist licensure in a short, three-year time span. This growth reflects the high need for

intervention specialists in Ohio classrooms which mirrors the national need. While the overall number of Ohio AEL intervention specialists has increased, the need for licensed intervention specialists in Ohio has not been met (Ohio Collaborative, 2003). Due to the critical shortage, the employment rate for the *Graduate Completers* is 100%.

### Demographics

Alternative licensure was designed to encourage older adults, minorities, and males to enter the teaching field in areas of teacher shortages. A survey was administered to 129 students in the *Graduate Program*. The information collected from the surveys included gender, ethnicity, age, and the highest academic degree held prior to their AEL.

**Gender & Ethnicity.** An underlying goal of the Ohio alternative license was to increase the number of under-represented populations in the teaching field,

Table 1  
Graduate Program Gender & Ethnicity

	Gender		Ethnicity	
	Female	Male	Caucasian	Persons of Color
<b>Graduate Program Students (N=129)</b>	88%	12%	85%	15%
<b>Ohio Intervention Specialists (N= 1014)*</b>	68%	32%	unavailable	unavailable
<b>Ohio Traditionally Prepared Teachers**</b>	76.7%	23.3%	92.6%	7.4%
<b>National AELs***</b>	63%	37%	68%	32%
<b>National Traditionally Prepared Teachers**</b>	75%	25%	85%	15%

\* Gilbertson, et. al., 2005

\*\* TQP OCTEO, 2007

\*\*\* Freistritzter, 2005

such as minority and male teachers. Gender and ethnicity of the *Graduate Program* students were reviewed in comparison to Ohio Department of Education data and national data. Table 1 presents the gender and ethnicity of the students.

Males comprised 12% of the *Graduate Program* student population. This percentage is significantly lower than the male population of all Ohio intervention specialists (32%) and national AELs (37%). However, the *Graduate Program* in this study is located at

a small, private college with a traditionally high proportion of female students (68% undergraduate and 78% graduate students).

Persons of color in the *Graduate Program* make up 15% of the student population. While this percentage is lower than the ethnicity reported for national AELs (32%), the *Graduate Program* recruits more students of color than traditionally prepared teachers in Ohio (7.4%) and recruits an equal percentage on a national level (15%). In addition, it is important to note that the *Graduate Program* recruitment is consistent with the ethnic profile of Ohio, in which 15% of Ohio citizens represent people of color (United States Census, 2007).

**Age.** The AEL originally was expected to recruit older, second-career adults. The data from the *Graduate Program* did reflect this expectation. In comparison with Ohio pre-service teacher survey data (Teacher Quality Partnership, 2006), the mean age of a newly-licensed teacher is 26.15 (n=5833,  $\alpha=6.29$ ). Therefore, the 36.69 mean age (n=129,  $\alpha=8.54$ ) of students enrolled in the *Graduate Program* was substantially higher than Ohio's traditionally-prepared teachers. Feistrizer (2005) found in national survey of AEL teachers that 72% of AELs were over the age of 30, while 47% of AELs were over the age of 40 and 20% of AELs were over the age of 50 years. Therefore, the age profile of students in the *Graduate Program* mirrors the national mean age of teachers certified

Licensure Focus	Age 20-30	Age 31-40	Age 41-50	Age 51-60	Total Per Licensure Area
Mild to Moderate	34	35	36	9	114
Moderate to Intense	6	6	3	0	15
Column Total	40	41	39	9	129

through an alternative educator license.

Table 2 presents the age range of students participating in the Graduate Program.

Table 2

AEL Intervention Specialist Licensure and Age

A small percentage (11.6%) of *Graduate Program* students elected to concentrate their program of studies in the licensure area of 'moderate to intense'. This reflects the national and state crisis in special education within the concentration of severe/profound disa-

bilities. In addition, on a national level only 12% of AEL special educators concentrated on licensure to teach the most challenging children with special needs, 'moderate to intense' (McLeskey & Tyler, 2003). *Graduate Program* students concentrating in the area of 'moderate to intense' tended to be younger than those pursuing the 'mild to moderate' licensure.

**Highest Academic Degree Held.** In the survey, *Graduate Program* students identified their highest academic degree earned. One of the admission requirements for the Program was an earned bachelor's degree in any field and from an accredited college or university. Approximately one third (32.7%) of students entered the program with a Bachelor's Degree in Education. The remaining students (65%) had earned a bachelor's degree in fields outside of education, which is similar to the national level of AEL teachers (57%) in all licensure areas with a bachelor's degree outside of education (Freistritzer, 2005). Of the 129 *Graduate Program* students 5.8% entered the program with a Master's Degree in fields outside of education.

**Employment.** Approximately 54% (n=99) of students in the Graduate Program previously were employed in some capacity in the education field. A total of 17% were employed full time as classroom teachers. Due to the severe shortage of special education teachers, general education teachers have been recruited to work with the special needs population. The *Graduate Program* provided an opportunity for such individuals to become highly qualified in special education. Upon entering the program, 13% were employed as intervention specialists under either a conditional permit or a long term substitute status. The *Graduate Program* enabled these individuals to remain employed as special education teachers while completing their Master's Degree and Special Education Licensure, thus meeting the HQT requirement under NCLB. The *Graduate Program* has been instrumental in addressing the critical shortage of intervention specialist in Ohio.

## Discussion

The purpose of this article was to provide a demographic profile of students seeking an Ohio Alternative Educator License in Special Education from one southwestern Ohio private institute of higher education. This demographic profile was compared to national data on special education alternative licensure. Since the inception (2000) of the Alternative Educator License in Ohio, the number of intervention specialist

licensed through the alternative pathway has grown exponentially. However, while the addition of the AEL route has been a success, a critical shortage of intervention specialists remains a reality in Ohio and the nation. In the *Graduate Program* studied in this investigation a large majority of students elected to focus in mild to moderate education (89%). This mirrors the Ohio and national trend as the majority of children with special needs are served in mild to moderate programs.

Data from the *Graduate Program* study revealed that the largest percentage of individuals seeking an AEL in special education were female (88%), which was a slightly higher percentage than Ohio's traditionally prepared intervention specialists (68%). Persons of color in the *Graduate Program* made up 15% of the student population, which was significantly higher than Ohio's traditionally prepared teachers in all licensure areas (7.4%). This finding was significant in that 15% of Ohio citizens represent people of color. The Ohio AEL was expected to attract second career adults, and the demographic profile of *Graduate Program* students did reflect this expectation. While the average age of an Ohio newly licensed teacher was 26 years, the average age of *Graduate Program* students was 36. Approximately 65% of the students entered the program with a bachelor's degree outside of the education field, which correlates with 57% of all AEL teachers in the United States. Interestingly, over half (54%) of students in the program were employed in the education field, either as teachers, teacher assistants, long term substitutes, or administrators. One goal of the AEL was to recruit second career individuals outside the field of education. However, approximately half of the students in the *Graduate Program* already were working within the field of education, seeking a second career in special education. Overall the *Graduate Program* served the students and the local districts by allowing students to gain or remain employed as intervention specialists while completing their license and master's degree.

Several areas for future studies include the exploration of gender and ethnicity recruitment in a small, private institute of higher education. Since a large number of students entered the program with previous experience in educational settings, a study of teacher effectiveness would be of value. Are AEL intervention specialists with prior education work experience more effective than those coming from non-education work backgrounds? Employment retention and dis-

trict recruitment of AEL intervention specialists would be an additional area to explore. In addition, future studies should include an analysis of the *Graduate Program* for possible implications in teacher preparation programs.

**Clarissa Rosas, Ph.D.** is the director of the TEAM Multicultural Special Education Program. As an associate professor, she has developed the curriculum and course delivery for the graduate hybrid online hybrid MSE Program. She has extensive background in curriculum development for general and special education from a teacher, district, and higher education perspective. Dr. Rosas holds a Ph.D. in multicultural/bilingual special education and an Ed.S. in Administration from the University of New Mexico.

**Mary West, Ph.D.**, is the director of the TEAM Adolescent & Young Adult Graduate Program at the College of Mount Saint Joseph. Dr. West earned her doctorate at The Ohio State University. Her research interests include issues in science education, educational technology and teacher thinking. She is an Ohio Board of Regents Math and Science Teacher Fellow and the recent recipient of a two-year teachOhio grant for the TEAM-AYA Program.

## References

- American Association for Employment in Education [AAEE]. (2000). *Educator supply and demand*. Columbus, OH: AAEE.
- Boe, E., Bobbitt, S., Cook, L., & Barkanic, G. (1998). *National trends in teacher supply and turnover* (Data Analysis Report No. 1998 DAR1). Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, Graduate School of Education, Center for Research and Evaluation in Social Policy.
- Boe, E., Cook, L., Bobbitt, S., & Terhanian, G. (1998). The shortage of fully certified teachers in special and general education. *Teacher Education and Special Education, 21*, 1-21.
- Bureau of Labor Statistics [BLS]. (1999). *National industry-occupation employment matrix: Occupation report-teachers, special education*. Retrieved August 23, 2001, from <http://www.bls.gov/opub/ooq/2000/spring/contents.htm>.
- Carlson, E., Brauen, M., Klein, S., Schroll, K., & Wilig, S. (2002). *SPeNSE: Key findings*. Retrieved June 4, 2003, from <http://www.spense.org/Results.html>

- Carlson, E., Schroll, K., & Klein, S. (2001). *OSEP briefing on the study of personnel needs in special education (SPeNSE)*. Retrieved August 24, 2001, from [www.spense.org/results.html](http://www.spense.org/results.html).
- ERIC Clearinghouse on Disabilities and Gifted Education. (2001, April). *Educating exceptional children: A statistical profile*. Arlington, VA: The Council for Exceptional Children.
- Feistritzer, C. (2005). Profile of Alternate Route Teachers. National Center for Education Information. Retrieved October, 2005 at <http://www.ncei.com/PART.pdf>
- Fideler, E. F., Foster, E. D., & Schwartz, S. (2000). *The urban teacher challenge: Teacher demand and supply in the great city schools*. The Urban Teacher Collaborative. Retrieved August 23, 2001, from [www.rnt.org/quick/utc.pdf](http://www.rnt.org/quick/utc.pdf)
- Gilbertson, S., West, M., Zigler, T., Wahrman, J., 2005. The Demand for Alternate Teacher Licensing in Ohio. Data collected as part of Ohio's 5-year longitudinal Teacher Quality Partnership study. *Ohio Journal of Teacher Education*, Fall 2005.
- Ingersoll, R. (2001). *Teacher turnover, teacher shortages, and the organization of schools*. Seattle, WA: University of Washington, Center for the Study of Teaching and Policy.
- McLeskey, J. & Tyler, N. (2003). The Supply and Demand for Special Education Teachers: A Review of Research Regarding the Nature of the Chronic Shortage of Special Education. Retrieved from Center on Personnel Studies in Special Education at <http://www.copsse.org>
- Elementary and Secondary Education (2007). *PL 107-110 The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001*. Retrieved October 23, 2007 at [www.ed.gov/policy/else/leg/esea02/index.html](http://www.ed.gov/policy/else/leg/esea02/index.html).
- The Ohio Collaborative (2003). Condition of Teacher Supply and Demand in Ohio 2003- A Report to the Ohio Department of Education.
- Ohio Department of Education –ODE (2006). Intervention Specialists Requirements (K-12). Retrieved from [www.ode.state.oh/GD/](http://www.ode.state.oh/GD/)
- Rosenberg, M. S., & Sindelar, P. T. (2000). *The proliferation of alternative routes to certification in special education: A critical review of the literature*. Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children, National Clearinghouse on Professions in Special Education.
- Rotherham, A.J. & Mead, S. (2003). *Teacher quality: Beyond No Child Left Behind, A Response to Kaplan and Owings (2002)*. NASSP Bulletin, 87 (635), 65-76.
- Russ, S., Chiang, B., Rylance, B., & Bongers, J. (2001). Case load in special education: An integration of research findings. *Exceptional Children*, 67, 161-172.
- SPeNSE. (2002). *Recruiting and retaining high-quality teachers (SPeNSE Summary Sheet)*. Available at [www.spense.org](http://www.spense.org)
- Teacher Quality Partnership (2006). TQP Graduate Survey Progress Report. Presented at the fall Ohio Confederation of Teacher Organization (OCTEO) Conference. Columbus, Ohio.
- United States Census (2007). Census 2000 Data for the State of Ohio. Retrieved on January 31, 2007 from [www.census.gov/census2000/states/oh.html](http://www.census.gov/census2000/states/oh.html)
- U. S. Department of Education [USDOE]. (1998). *20th annual report to Congress on the implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act*. Washington, DC: Author.
- U. S. Department of Education [USDOE]. (1999). *21st annual report to Congress on the implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act*. Washington, DC: Author.
- U. S. Department of Education [USDOE]. (2000). *22nd annual report to Congress on the implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act*. Washington, DC: Author.
- U. S. Department of Education [USDOE]. (2001). *23rd annual report to Congress on the implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act*. Washington, DC: Author.
- Zeichner, K., & Schulte, A. (2001). What we know and don't know from peer-reviewed research about alternative teacher certification programs. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 52, 266-282.





# Ohio Association of Teacher Educators

## Membership Invitation August 2008-July 2009

*The Ohio Association of Teacher Educators (OATE) is a state unit/affiliate of the Association of Teacher Educators (founded in 1920) and is also a member of the Ohio Confederation of Teacher Education Organizations (OCTEO). OATE promotes quality teacher education programs for initial preparation, induction, and continuing professional development opportunities for P-12 school districts, agency-based, and college/university teacher educators.*

**Prefix (Circle):** Dr. Mr. Ms. Mrs. **Name:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Institution:** \_\_\_\_\_ **E-mail Address:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Please include address (even if renewing) as a way to correct any possible errors in the database on a yearly basis.**

**Address:** \_\_\_ Home or \_\_\_ Office

(Street or Box) \_\_\_\_\_ (City) \_\_\_\_\_ (State) \_\_\_\_\_ (Zip) \_\_\_\_\_

Office Phone #: (\_\_\_\_\_) \_\_\_\_\_ - \_\_\_\_\_ Fax #: (\_\_\_\_\_) \_\_\_\_\_ - \_\_\_\_\_

<p><b>STATUS:</b> ___ Renewal ___ New Membership</p> <p><b>CATEGORY and DUES:</b>          ___ Regular (\$40)          ___ Retired (\$10)          ___ Student (\$5–full-time undergraduate or graduate)          ___ Agency Subscription (\$25) (i.e. library)          ___ Complimentary Member</p> <p><b>Make check payable to:</b> OATE; Dues for OATE are tax deductible.</p> <p><b>Are you a member of ATE?</b> ___ Yes ___ No</p>	<p><b>Employment:</b>          ___ (ES) Elem./Sec. School          ___ (HE) Higher Education          ___ (OD) Ohio Dept. of Ed.          ___ (PS) Pre-service/UG          ___ (G) Graduate Student</p>	<p><b>Professional Area:</b>          ___ (T) Teacher in E/S School          ___ (P) Professor in HE          ___ (A) Administrator          ___ (D) Director of ST/Intern          ___ (U) Undergraduate student          ___ (G) Graduate student          ___ (L) Library</p>
--	---	--

**Please indicate your AREA(S) OF INTEREST IN SERVING:**  
**OATE membership provides many opportunities for professional development, service, and research. YOUR involvement is KEY to the improvement of teacher education!**

**Name:** \_\_\_\_\_ **E-mail Address:** \_\_\_\_\_ **Phone #:** (\_\_\_\_) \_\_\_\_\_

<p><b>Individual Service</b></p> <p>___ Write an article for the Newsletter          ___ Serve as a Journal Referee          ___ Serve as Newsletter Editor          ___ Help with Publicity/Public Relations          ___ Other: _____</p>	<p><b>Committee Service</b></p> <p>___ Serve on the Conference “Call for Proposals” Selection Committee          ___ Serve on the Journal Committee          ___ Serve on the Standards and Legislative Committee          ___ Serve on the Membership Committee          ___ Serve on the Nominations and Elections Committee          ___ Serve on the Awards Committee</p>
---	---

**RETURN TO:**  
 Debra Weber, M.A.Ed. - OATE Membership  
 Shawnee State University, Teacher Education Dept., 940 Second Street, Portsmouth, OH 45662

## *Ohio Association of Teacher Educators Membership Invitation August 2008-July 2009*

### **Membership Benefits**

- 1) Subscription to the Ohio Journal for Teacher Educators (\$20 value - two issues/year at \$10.00 each). Three (3) complimentary copies for authors of articles published in the OATE Journal.
  - 2) OATE Newsletter.
  - 3) Fall and Spring Professional Conferences with OCTEO.
  - 4) Ohio Field Directors Forum.
  - 5) Annual Partnership/Connections Forum/Summit (Representatives from Higher Ed. and P-12 Schools).
  - 6) Annual Recognition Awards for Outstanding Cooperating Teacher, University Supervisor, Student Teacher, Field Experience Program, Mentor, and Service– A statewide winner and regional winners for each category (must be an OATE member to nominate).
  - 7) Membership Card and Lapel Pin.
- AND....**
- 8) Opportunities for dialogue and collective action on current issues affecting teacher education.
  - 9) Opportunities for individual professional growth and leadership.
  - 10) Dissemination of current information through OATE journals, newsletters, conferences, etc.
  - 11) Collaboration with other education entities sharing common interests.
  - 12) Legislative alerts and representation for teacher educators to provide a voice with state policymakers.
  - 13) Opportunities for networking with other professionals for innovative practices.

### **2008-2009 OATE Officers and Executive Committee**

President	Linda Billman
President Elect	Dora Bailey
Past President	Virginia Keil
Secretary	Rachel Wlodarsky
Treasurer	Sally Barnhart
Membership	Debra Weber
	Joy Cowdery
ATE Conference Delegates:	Gretchen Espinetti (2007)
	Jim Whiteman (2007)
	Lisa Huelskamp
Standards Chair	TBA
Journal Co-Editors	Gayle Trollinger
	Sarah Cecire
Awards Co-Chairs	Rebecca Waters
	Kay McVey
Newsletter Co-Chairs	Isaac Larison
	Howard Walters
Field Director Forum	Ellen Hill
Co-Chairpersons	Connie Bowman
ATE Board Member	Shirley DeLucia
(Ex-officio)	
Executive Secretary	Jim Whiteman

### **08-09 Conference Schedule**

#### **OCTEO/OATE Fall Conference Wednesday -Friday OCTOBER 22 – 24, 2008**

The Crowne Plaza Dublin Hotel, Columbus

#### **ATE National Conference February 15-18, 2009**

Hyatt Regency  
Dallas, Texas

Visit the Ohio Confederation of Teacher Education  
Organizations Website ([www.ohioteachered.org](http://www.ohioteachered.org))  
for details.

***OATE INVITES YOU...to attend and participate in  
conferences and/or submit a proposal for presenta-  
tion of your research or project to OATE and/or  
ATE.***

---

---

*You are invited...*

---

---

To share your research and ideas  
with other teacher educators!

---

---

The Fall 2008 issue of  
*The Ohio Journal of Teacher Education*  
will be a topical issue focused on articles  
and research related to Value-Added Progress  
Dimensions for Educator Preparation Programs

---

---

Submission guidelines are on the last page of this issue.

---

---

## *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 and editorial 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 a 30-word abstract. Please do not use autoformatting when preparing the manuscript! When preparing the list of references, please use the hanging indent feature. Do NOT press Enter at the end of each line and tab in to create the second line indent. Use of the Enter and Tab keys when formatting the reference list, creates an editing nightmare when transferring the manuscript into the publishing program.

**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 three copies of the manuscript and a 3.5” disk, *or* submit the manuscript as an attachment to an e-mail to [trollinger@bluffton.edu](mailto:trollinger@bluffton.edu).

**Note:** It is assumed that all manuscripts submitted to the editors have received local IRB approval. Any manuscripts that do not follow the above procedures will be returned.

### **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.

**Deadline for Fall 2008 submissions is May 30, 2008.**

Manuscripts, editorial correspondence, and questions can be directed to Gayle Trollinger, Ph.D., The Ohio Journal of Teacher Education, Bluffton University, 1 University Drive, Bluffton, OH 45817, (419) 358-3341, [trollinger@bluffton.edu](mailto:trollinger@bluffton.edu).