



# **The CCTE Spring 2021 Research Monograph**

Published by  
the California Council on Teacher Education

Containing Research Presentations  
from the CCTE Spring 2021 SPAN Virtual Conference



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**Published by the California Council on Teacher Education**

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## **Introductions from the CCTE Research Committee Chair and the CCTE Executive Secretary**

### **From the CCTE Research Committee Chair**

As the California Council on Teacher Education (CCTE) continues to engage in virtual conference formats, including our most recent 2021 SPAN Conference, we are fortunate to be able to provide ongoing modalities for members of our community to share their research. Our research call for SPAN was embedded in the theme of the conference: anti-racism and distance learning, with 11 proposals accepted and video presentations posted to a CCTE GoReact platform. We were also fortunate to have a live research roundtable during the SPAN Conference featuring researchers from the California State University Educator Quality Center, the California State University's Next Generation of Educators Initiative, the University of California's California Teacher Education Research and Improvement Network (CTERIN), and the Learning Policy Institute. We are excited to offer this *CCTE Spring 2021 Research Monograph* in which you will find articles by several of our accepted research presenters as well as the presentation slides from our four roundtable research teams. Among the articles you will find Nicole Homerin who walks us through "Teacher Burnout and Compassion Fatigue in Special Education" while Lara Ervin-Kassab, Karen Escalante, and Daniel Soodjinda pose "Critical Questions: Can the CalTPA Advance Critical Conversations about Programs and Policy?" The *CCTE Spring 2021 Research Monograph* helps to keep the work of CCTE and SPAN at the forefront as we continue to impact teacher education here in California and beyond.

## *Introductions*

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Also a wonderful reminder that if you have not had an opportunity to view the video presentations on the GoReact platform, they have now been moved to our CCTE YouTube channel. We hope you enjoy our *Spring Monograph* and we encourage you to submit your own research proposal for the CCTE Fall 2021 Conference.

Happy Reading & Happy Researching,

—Karen Escalante, Chair, CCTE Research Committee  
California State University, San Bernardino  
karen.escalante@csusb.edu

### **From the CCTE Executive Secretary**

One of the primary goals of the California Council on Teacher Education (CCTE) is to promote, support, and disseminate research about teacher education as a service to teacher education faculty, students, and programs across the state. A key part of such efforts for many years has been the opportunity for both faculty and students engaged in such research to submit proposals to present their work at our Fall Conference in San Diego and our Spring SPAN Conference in Sacramento. Accepted proposals result in presentations at concurrent sessions, roundtable sessions, or poster sessions at the conferences, thus providing an opportunity for the conference attendees to listen and learn from the presentations, many of which are then also written up as brief articles in *CCNews*, the CCTE quarterly newsletter, and later in more detail if accepted for either of our CCTE scholarly journals, *Teacher Education Quarterly* and *Issues in Teacher Education*.

In the shadow of the recent pandemic, as our CCTE conferences have necessarily become virtual events, we have both altered and expanded the manner in which such research is presented and disseminated. Rather than face-to-face presentations, we have instead asked those whose proposals are accepted for conference programs to prepare a video report, and those videos have been posted to a CCTE GoReact platform for viewing, comments, and interaction with the authors of the research. Following each conference the research videos are then moved to the CCTE YouTube channel where they remain for further viewing. Then also following each conference we have provided the additional opportunity for research authors to prepare articles for monographs such as this one, which are published in PDF format and emailed to all CCTE members and delegates. After the publication of each monograph we have scheduled virtual meetings for in-depth discussion of the research, hoping thereby to expand further the impact of the various studies and grow overall research agenda in teacher education.

We are also anticipating that some of these newer developments which have been necessary during the pandemic will become part of our ongoing efforts to promote and share research even when we return to face-to-face conferences.

## *Introductions*

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This is the third research monograph published following one of our conferences. The first was in the spring of 2020 when the SPAN Conference was switched to a virtual event at the last moment, and accepted research proposals that could not be presented in person were published in the *CCTE Spring 2020 Research Monograph*. That approach proved popular, so following the Fall 2020 Conference when the research presentations were initially presented in video format, those also became articles in the *CCTE Fall 2020 Research Monograph*.

Now we continue this new tradition with the *CCTE Spring 2021 Research Monograph*, this time with two sections. The first section contains articles based on the accepted research proposals which were available on the CCTE GoReact platform and now moved to the CCTE YouTube channel, while the second section presents materials from the research roundtable which was part of the CCTE 2021 SPAN Virtual Conference. In that section you will find the power point presentations from the roundtable session, including an article based on one of those presentations.

We encourage you to read and enjoy this current research from the CCTE community and as you engage in your own research to be sure to share it by submitting proposals for future CCTE conferences.

—Alan H. Jones, CCTE Executive Secretary  
alan.jones@ccte.org



## **Are We There Yet?**

### **Teacher Testing Takes a Toll on Traffic**

**By Emily Bogus & James Kozinski**

On the road to licensure, an educator must pass one or more standardized content knowledge assessments. These tests often act like tolls required before the state will grant an educator license. The current climate, largely impacted by COVID-19, has limited educators' ability to take these tests. This has created an opportune time to reexamine the effectiveness and necessity of these tests. This paper is a brief endeavor to examine that overlay by first, looking at what assessments do; second, understanding how COVID-19 has impacted candidates' ability to take assessments; third, studying some alternatives to assessment before finally, offering suggestions for further research related to assessment, student achievement, and workforce diversity.

First, it may be worthwhile to understand the context surrounding the title of this paper and its accompanying presentation. When we talk about traffic, we are referring to the teacher pipeline. The more flexibilities, or lanes, offered for teacher certification in a state, the more likely their pipeline will flow in terms of employing the number of certified teachers needed across the state with a level of diversity among the teacher workforce that may positively affect student achievement. The

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more lanes a state has, the more robust and diverse their pipeline will be. Tolls have to do with the barriers that impact the flow of the pipeline and, consequently, workforce diversity. If barriers prevent BIPOC candidates from becoming certified, then not all students can be taught by teachers who are racially or ethnically similar. Tolls also affect teacher mobility. If additional assessments are required for a teacher to certify in another state, that puts a bottleneck on the pipeline. Furthermore, content knowledge assessments are costly. For example, it can cost a prospective math teacher \$300 to register for the CSET content knowledge subtests.

Over the last several years, teacher preparation across the United States has shifted its focus to ensure that all aspiring teachers reach high standards of demonstrating how to be learner-ready teachers. To that end, the Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC) arm of the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) developed the model core teaching standards for states to adopt or adapt. California has well-established common standards and program standards developed with teacher performance expectations in mind that teacher candidates must achieve as part of growing into a learner-ready teacher. Research suggests students taught by fully certified teachers achieve at a level higher than those taught by non-fully certified teachers. As Linda Darling-Hammond, et al. justify, “teachers’ effectiveness appears strongly related to the preparation they have received for teaching” (Darling-Hammond, et al., 2005).

While preparation standards and requirements vary by state, there has been ubiquitous adoption of standards across states defining the knowledge and skills beginning teachers must demonstrate. Typically, states often measure the content knowledge aspect of these standards with standardized assessment. Most states require some form of a standardized content knowledge assessment for full teacher certification, such as the California Subject Examinations for Teachers (CSET) or the Praxis Subject Assessments.

Standardized content knowledge assessments are a barrier to licensure for BIPOC candidates on a significantly disproportionate level and perform as an impediment to recruiting and retaining BIPOC teachers (Carver-Thomas, 2017). This barrier to BIPOC teacher recruitment and retention evolves into a barrier to student achievement when we consider that workforce diversity is strongly linked to student achievement by recognizing that student achievement—along with later outcomes like college graduation and earnings—is strengthened when teachers are of the same race as their students (Egalite et al, 2015 and Grissom et al., 2020). Standardized content knowledge assessments can also be a barrier to teacher mobility when teachers, either provisionally or fully certified, want to move to another state. The Economic Policy Institute estimates that the annual teacher shortage reached 110,000 in the 2017-2018 academic year (García and Weiss, March 2019). The Learning Policy Institute estimates 316,000 new teachers will be needed annually by 2025 (Sutcher, et al., 2016). Both estimates were developed prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, so the estimates may very well be higher now. To address

### *Are We There Yet?*

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these numbers, it is imperative that states take action to remove barriers to teaching. Most states have provided prospective teachers with opportunities to defer their state assessment requirements for certification because of the inability to take content knowledge exams due to COVID-19. Here are a few examples. Utah developed a limited license for educator preparation program completers who met all licensure requirements except for the content knowledge assessment(s). This license gives completers the ability to teach in a Utah classroom with a year of additional time to pass their exam(s) (M. Hite, personal communication, May 29, 2020). New Jersey developed a temporary Certificate of Eligibility for candidates seeking an initial teaching certificate that requires the passage of a content knowledge exam. This certificate of eligibility allows the holder to work in New Jersey public schools until July 31, 2021, by which time they must have taken and passed the required test(s) to continue employment (New Jersey Department of Education, 2020). The examples from Utah and New Jersey highlight one of the most noteworthy patterns of COVID-19 emergency policies: states reconsidered asking educator preparation programs to assure candidate competency for recommendation for licensure. Within the profession, it prompted educator preparation programs to be collaborative with their own faculty and staff and outside preparers of candidates. States and licensure agencies depended upon other means to assure the quality of candidate preparedness. This single step enhanced the collaborative relationships with states, schools, and EPP leadership to build a more unified trust in the preparation process and profession to ensure teacher candidates have the knowledge and skills necessary to be learner-ready teachers.

While Utah and New Jersey provide good examples of temporary alternatives offered in light of COVID-19, some states already had options in place prior to the pandemic for candidates who have not yet passed content knowledge assessments. These states offer temporary or provisional certificates that allow the holder to work in a school for one, two, or three years by which point they must have taken and passed the required assessment(s) to fully license. For example, Nevada offers a Provisional license—valid for three years—for educators who have not yet met an assessment requirement (Nv. Rev Stat. § 391, 2019). Florida offers a similar license to Nevada; their Temporary Certificate is valid for three years and is available to program completers who have not yet passed the Florida Teacher Certification Examination, or FTCE (Florida Department of Education, n.d.).

Even fewer states offer flexibility, or alternatives, to passing standardized content knowledge assessments for full teacher certification. Washington state offers a case-by-case exception for content knowledge assessments. This exception allows candidates who took the content knowledge assessment but did not pass it to go through an exceptions process—via a committee established in their teacher preparation program—to have multiple measures of their performance reviewed to determine if they have proved competency in the content knowledge area. This is a new development in Washington that became effective late December 2020

(Washington Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, 2020). Hawaii allows teacher licensure applicants to show content knowledge competency via exam, but they also allow competency to be shown by holding a master's degree or having 30 semester credit hours or a content major in the license field (Hawai'i Teacher Standards Board, n.d.). While California does not yet offer alternatives to passing standardized content knowledge assessments for full teacher certification, proposed legislation seeks to add flexibility for meeting content knowledge requirements beyond passing CSET exams. Bills AB 320 and AB 437 include language to offer flexibility and are supported by the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CTC) (2021). These bills would allow for subject matter competence to be demonstrated through completion of an approved program, passage of a subject matter assessment, completion of coursework at a regionally accredited institution addressing subject matter domains, or a mix of assessment subtests and described coursework (AB 320, 2021 and AB 437, 2021).

Clearly then, many states have offered standardized content knowledge exam deferment or other temporary license options to maintain a teacher pipeline in their respective states. However, none of these temporary certificates do anything to help with teacher mobility. States who agree to the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification (NASDTEC) interstate agreement or another reciprocity agreement typically do so with the expectation that the educator is coming to their state as a fully certified teacher. The temporary licenses do not remove any tolls on the interstate highway.

The outlook for the pandemic being under control this year may be getting better, but the teacher workforce will be impacted for many years to come. It is important to ask what contingencies teacher preparation programs and agencies such as The Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CTC) should put in place so that the teacher workforce is not negatively affected should a pandemic occur in the future. Can CTC work with NASDTEC or the Council of State Governments (CSG) to develop an interstate compact to facilitate teacher mobility without the need for demonstration of content knowledge via standardized assessments? Can state statute language be amended to suggest that evidence of content knowledge may occur through multiple measures rather than via testing alone? If not, it may be the case that a Washington or Hawaii professional teaching license-holder who needs to move to another state will once again have to pay a toll in the form of passing a costly and inequitable standardized content knowledge assessment.

Finally, the current climate has opened opportunities for further research on the relationship between standardized content knowledge assessments and teacher effectiveness. COVID-19 has placed many new teachers in the workforce who are working on permits or certificates that did not require passing a standardized content knowledge assessment. It may be worthwhile to study whether the students of these new teachers are achieving at the same level as beginning teachers who did pass standardized content knowledge assessments. Suppose it turns out that

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student achievement is the same across both categories of teachers. Might such evidence be the impetus for more states to implement what Washington and Hawaii are doing—and what California is proposing—to allow more flexibility to become a fully certified teacher without the need to pass a standardized content knowledge assessment? Additionally, if more states adopt such flexibility, does it lead to an increase in workforce diversity?

This article has attempted to provide an overview of the standardized content knowledge assessment requirements that exist, both pre- and post-COVID-19, for teacher certification. These requirements impact teacher shortages, teacher diversity, teacher recruitment—especially BIPOC teachers—and teacher mobility. We hope this overview has given the reader an opportunity to question how states, especially California, might preserve and develop processes and procedures to assure a prepared teacher workforce that is representative of the students they educate to strengthen student achievement.

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*Emily Bogus & James Kozinski*

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## **Critical Questions**

### **Can the CalTPA Advance Critical Conversations About Programs and Policy?**

**By Lara Ervin-Kassab, Karen Escalante, & Daniel Soodjinda**

#### **Introduction**

...the language and logic of accountability have become so deeply embedded in the everyday discourse and practice of teacher education that they are now difficult to discern as policy and practice alternatives. Instead they are often presumed to be self-evident and inevitable, more or less a “baked-in” part of teacher education.

—Cochran-Smith, Carney, et. al, p. 15

At the beginning of the 2020-2021 academic year, three faculty from different California State University campuses embarked upon a research journey to explore how the California Teaching Performance Assessment (CalTPA) might be an avenue for cultivating anti-racist teaching pedagogies. We have been conducting

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a document analysis (Bowen, 2009) using a critically reflective (Brookfield, 2017) lens. While we started with an open-coding process, we quickly found that many of our codes reflected specific terminology used in the CalTPA, which was designed to assess performance on several of the California Teaching Expectations (TPEs) or more commonly, preliminary teaching standards. The current conversations we are having center on how standards language, utilized in the CalTPA, is shaped by state and national policy and how research on standards in education and being a reflective educator converge to create opportunities for teacher education programs to examine their own practices in pursuit of social justice, anti-racism, and equity. Research into how teaching performance assessments (such as the EdTPA) can claim to be tools for change points to the role of the program in contextualizing the changes in professional learning of candidates (Cochran-Smith, et. al., 2018). CalTPA leadership has consistently provided professional support to programs including virtual office hours, webinars, and in-person support trainings. These supports are invaluable, however they must lead to program-wide and personal reflections and conversations to explore how the assessment aligns with program missions and goals. To this end, the research question we are currently exploring is:

In what ways do we see the CalTPA providing a “common language” for discussing our programmatic practice and for critical reflection on educational policy?

Professional teaching standards are situated in neo-liberal policies and approaches to globally reforming teacher education (Cali, 2018; Lewis, Savage, & Holloway, 2020; Mockler, 2020). However, some research has found that teacher candidates find professional teaching standards useful as a “common language” for conversations about teaching practice. (Loughran and Ellis, 2016). The critiques present in this monograph are created from discussions around the CalTPA, however we want to recognize the constraints faced by the developers due to the need for TPE language being used as a foundation of the assessment. It is in the spirit of engaging in common language, while exploring the systemic issues of race entrenched in this language, that we present in this monograph today.

### **Common Language and Confronting Race in Language Acquisition**

Within the U.S. Department of Education there is an office of English Language Acquisition. In federal, state, and local conversations around bi(multi)lingualism, the common parlance tends to be centering English as the goal language for academic success. As Flores and Rosa (2019) call attention to, this framing fosters extremely deficit thinking about multilingual students of color. Both the TPEs and the CalTPA promote asset-based approaches to connecting with and teaching students, however the persistent use of “English Language Learner” as a student descriptor could directly confront this asset-based approach. One of us teaches a course in building

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### *Critical Questions*

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learning communities, and was inspired by our collaborative conversations to create an activity in which teacher candidates read Flores and Rosa's (2019) article, then have a rich discussion about how we might shift our own thinking and practice by utilizing the term "multilingual" when thinking about, planning for, and discussing our "English Language Learners." A separate study specifically on this will be forthcoming in 2022.

#### **"At-Risk Student" and "Student Placed at Risk"**

Teacher candidates select three "focus students" who will function as "bell-weather" students for exploring and developing student-centered practices in cycle 1 of the CalTPA. The first two focus students provide candidates opportunities to learn about, design for, and reflect upon their practices in teaching multilingual learners and students with dis/abilities or "gifted" designations. The selection of the third focus student (FS3) is less straightforward and provided us with a rich opportunity to unpack deficit-centered descriptions of FS3 as influenced by the TPEs. Our conversation led us to refining the description in the CalTPA from a list of potential qualities to realizing that FS3 is a student who is *placed at risk* by macro, meso, and micro contextual factors (see Table 1 below).

We discussed the importance of helping teacher candidates see beyond the situation to the person, to encourage connecting with students in order to not only connect them with services but to create a classroom community that is a truly

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**Table 1**  
**Examples of Factors Placing TK-12 Students at Risk**

Macro (society writ large, national level)	White Supremacy Sexism Ableism Nationalism Religious Persecution Homophobia Capitalism Immigration
Meso (local and school community) \ 	Homelessness School Policies Community Conflicts Lack of Representation Bullying/being a bully Community Marginalization
Micro	Hunger Abuse Neglect Exclusion

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safe environment socially, emotionally, physically and academically. As we move forward in our own programs we are exploring the ways in which we can join our candidates in learning to cultivate genius and joy (Muhammad, 2020).

### **Implications and Recommendations**

As we have come together to discuss our findings, we have all grown as teacher educators. The opportunity to work across universities has led to us realizing that while we have a “common language” in the CalTPA and the TPEs, how each program operationalizes and interprets that language can vary widely. Our willingness as both a program and as individual teacher educators to be self-critical and to confront the assumptions we make about our educational system and students are essential to seeing the CalTPA as an opportunity to engage in anti-racist conversations. When we “push back” on almost invisible cultural norms, we are able to see ourselves and our students as agents of change. When we seek opportunities for collaborative dialogue, we can continue to wrestle with daunting challenges facing programs that value anti-racist, socially just, and abolitionist (Love, 2019) teaching and learning.

We may find ourselves pushing against foundational principles of our programs, such as social emotional learning and asking how to make these foundational principles inclusive, anti-racist, and empowering rather than a perpetuation of white norms and values. These conversations are critical in order for us to rethink not only the theory, but our candidates’ resulting actions and experiences in confronting systemic racism in their future teaching. How are we equipping our candidates to push against, for instance, SEL programs in districts that are more “white supremacy with a hug” (Simmons, 2019) and to create spaces in which SEL is culturally sustaining (Alim & Paris, 2017; Simmons, 2021)?

To these ends, we share the following framework and practices we have found useful in our collaborative dialogues:

Be purposeful in inviting all voices, and specifically the voices of those who have been historically silenced, to the table and ensure that they are heard as you define the terms and concepts in the TPE/TPAs.

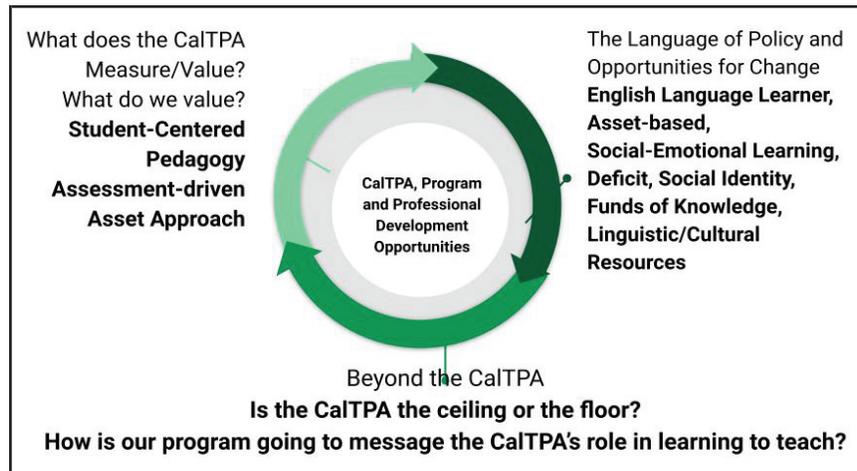
Recognize the tension of utilizing a state- or nationally-generated common language while operationalizing and defining language and how you/your program will critically confront and determine how to use common language.

Using Brookfield’s (2017) framework of assumptions and how they interact with being a reflective educator was a helpful lens for unpacking “implicit bias” and internalized racism/sexism/ableism/etc. present in the ways we currently interpret and use common language in the CalTPA and TPEs.

## Critical Questions

We also designed this framework for planning program dialogues (see Figure 1):

Figure 1



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## **Preparing Anti-Racist Educators During a Time of Pandemics**

**By Karen Escalante**

### **Introduction**

In a recent interview, Dr. Gloria Ladson-Billings (2020) suggested that in this current time and space we are facing not one pandemic, but four. We are all acutely aware of the COVID pandemic, yet Ladson-Billings goes on to discuss three others: systemic racism, economic anxiety, and climate change. Each of these pandemics impact every facet of education, requiring a clear consideration of how we move forward. Darling-Hammond and Hyer (2020) argue that this situation is daunting for even the most experienced teacher, thus suggesting that new teachers need explicit skill sets centered around trauma-informed teaching and Social Emotional Learning (SEL). When implemented with a socially-just stance, trauma-informed teaching and SEL are core components of an anti-racist framework (Simmons, 2020). As we prepare new teachers in this age of pandemics, during a time when instruction is remote and teacher candidates are engaged in “alternative activities” rather than hands-on classroom learning and fieldwork with PK -12 students, how do we support them in becoming anti-racist educators?

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### **Framework**

In preparation of a new course I was asked to teach in Fall of 2020, I reflected on interwoven components: the killing of George Floyd, multiple pandemics, and the pervasiveness of white supremacy within our educational systems. As a starting point for developing the syllabus, I turned my attention to Critical Race Theory (CRT). Critical Race Theory emerged in the 1970s as a way to view political discourse that grounded law and the legal system in “whiteness”—understanding racism to be the norm, not the exception (Ladson-Billings, 1998; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). Scholars of CRT examine the ways in which white supremacy is infused throughout literature, law, medicine, education, government, and other facets of daily life, thus reinforcing invisibility, self-doubt, and subordination by people of color (Ladson-Billings, 1998; Solorzano & Yosso, 2001). CRT allows for a deconstruction of “whiteness” by challenging oppressive structures and interrupting current practices (Ladson-Billings, 1998).

As the syllabus took shape and I began teaching the course, the curriculum embodied more of a social justice/anti-racist stance using the works of Django Paris, Bettina Love, Gholdy Mohammad, Dena Simmons, and April Baker Bell. The underpinnings of white supremacy were infused into every class discussion, while also celebrating the assets and joys of our teacher candidates of color and our PK-12 students of color. In conjunction with our course, teacher candidates needed to complete their early fieldwork hours as required by the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing. To support our efforts in moving along an anti-racist continuum, I guided candidates in selecting “alternative activities” grounded in social justice and anti-racism. Alternative activities were required due to COVID, as little to no teacher candidates were placed in a PK-12 virtual setting during fall of 2020.

Using the work of Dena Simmons (2019) and Glenn Singleton (2014), my colleagues and I have operationalized an anti-racist teacher as someone who actively works to confront white supremacy while dismantling the structures, policies, institutions, and systems which create barriers and perpetuate race-based intersectional inequities for BIPOC through the enactment of daily pedagogical practices, classroom management strategies, and critical self-reflection (Escalante, Ervin-Kassab & Soodjinda, 2020).

### **Inquiry Question**

How do we use “alternative activities” to support teaching candidates in becoming anti-racist?

### **Methodology**

Prior to the beginning of the Fall 2020 semester, candidates were asked to respond to a survey question about being “colorblind” when it comes to teaching.

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Candidates again completed this same survey and colorblind question at the end of the semester. Additionally, candidates kept a record of all “alternative activities” they engaged in over the course of the semester. This record included the name of the activity, the length of time, and what was learned as a result of the engagement. At the end of the semester, I began coding the alternative activity records using qualitative data analysis: (1) data condensation, (2) data display, and (3) conclusion drawing/verification (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2013). Conclusion drawing and verification is ongoing.

#### **Results**

Results from the colorblind survey found that at the beginning of the semester, 71% of the students in my course identified as being colorblind when it comes to teaching. At the end of the semester, 38% of the students responded as being colorblind when it comes to teaching. While a shift is noticed, results indicate more work needs to be done to support teacher candidates in celebrating and uplifting the students in their classrooms from different cultures, races, identities, and intersectionalities.

Results from the “alternative activities” find that candidates engaged in anti-racist webinars, podcasts and videos; they read books and articles written by anti-racist/abolitionist/social justice leaders; and they attended virtual race discussions on campus. While I suggested and encouraged many of the alternative activities, the data show candidates discovered and shared with their classmates anti-racist podcasts and webinars without me knowing. This collaborative stance taken by my teacher candidates suggest they will enter the profession ready to share ideas, brainstorm with fellow educators, and be able to engage in conversation around white supremacy and moving along an anti-racist continuum.

#### **Significance to the Field of Teacher Education**

With over 80% of the teaching force identifying as white, teacher preparation programs have an obligation to embrace a proactive stance on preparing anti-racist educators. Teacher preparation curriculum and frameworks must be grounded in anti-racist ideas in order to dismantle and disrupt the white-washed curriculum that is synonymous with PK-12 education. We do not know how long these pandemics will last. History suggests some will regrettably be here for an extended period of time. It is our obligation to identify what “alternative activities” support teacher candidates in moving along an anti-racist continuum and embed those into our preparation programs.

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## **The Need for Culturally and Linguistically Responsive AAC for Latinx Students**

**By Lauren Fischbacher & Anna Osipova**

### **Introduction**

Alternative and Augmented Communication (AAC) is a means for individuals with limited verbal skills due to developmental disabilities to communicate. AAC ranges from low-tech tools (e.g., Picture Exchange Communication System (PECS)) to high-tech devices (e.g., speech generating device (SGD)). AAC devices have been used for the last 40 years for children with complex communication difficulties (Beukelman, 2012). In the home, parents and caregivers have a central role as a communication partner with their children (Parette & McMahan, 2002). Children who use AAC, such as SGD, in the home show benefits in spontaneous communication and social skills (Almirall et al., 2016; Meadan et al., 2016).

According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2019), Latinx are the fastest growing minority group, doubling in schools from 8.8 million in 1996 to 17.9 million in 2016. Due to this increase in population and the passage of IDEA (1990) that included

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assistive technology as a related service for children with disabilities in schools, research concerning Latinx children with disabilities' and families' communication needs began in the 1990s (Maestas & Erickson, 1992). Diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds impact the way practitioners should approach AAC when working with Latinx families (Kulkarni & Parmar, 2017; Soto & Yu, 2014). There are many barriers for all families to adopt AAC for their child, including a negative stigma associated with AAC and difficulties in access to training and support (Delaney et al., 2012; Marshall & Goldbart, 2008). Culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) families in the United States also face language and cultural differences which in combination with diversity of AAC symbols make AAC access and use more difficult (Marshall & Goldbart, 2008; Kulkarni & Parmar, 2017). Thus, the purpose of this article is to explore current research focused on Latinx students' and families' experiences with AAC.

### **Theoretical Framework**

This research is grounded in Vygotsky's Social Development Theory (1978) and, by extension, Bandura's Social Learning Theory. Social Development Theory emphasizes the relationship between learning and communication (Vygotsky, 1978): vital learning (i.e., formation of concepts) happens during cooperative dialogue. Cooperative dialogue occurs when a parent or teacher engages in a dialogue with a child. The internalization of cooperative dialogue is how the child guides their future interactions. These interpersonal processes transformed into intrapersonal ones are central to child development. In order for a child with developmental disabilities to participate in cooperative dialogue, teachers, speech-language pathologists, and parents require the skills and tools (e.g., AAC and AAC training) to communicate and respond. In accordance with this theory, studies have shown that when parents of children with developmental disabilities respond verbally and nonverbally to their children's communication acts, expressive language in toddlers and preschoolers improves (McDuffie & Yoder, 2010; Haebig, McDuffie & Weismer, 2013).

Social Learning Theory in turn postulates that it is essential that children experience reciprocal social interactions in order to learn (Bandura & Walters, 1977). For communication to be reciprocal for young children with developmental disabilities who have difficulty using verbal speech, AAC needs to be used. Therefore, a child who is missing out on social interactions at home or school because adults around them are unsure how to respond using AAC also misses many early learning opportunities. Hammond (2015) posits that children are able to adequately learn and process instruction only when teaching methods are closely aligned with their cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Therefore, in order to ensure that all students' rights to education as secured by *Brown v. Board of Education* are fulfilled, it is imperative that Latinx students who need AAC and their families are taught in a way that is culturally and linguistically appropriate.

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### **Aims**

Diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds of Latinx families impact the way practitioners should approach AAC when working with this population (Bridges, 2004; Kulkarni & Parmar, 2017; Soto & Yu, 2014). Due to the cultural and linguistic differences of Latinx children there is a need to explore perspectives of Latinx families on AAC. The literature review investigated the following research questions:

- (a) What are the benefits and challenges of the current implementation of AAC when working with Latinx families and children?
- (b) What research has been done using AAC with Latinx families?

### **Method**

This literature review aimed to provide a deeper insight into the perspectives of Latinx families using AAC. The articles included in the review were a) peer-reviewed, b) published in or after 2000, and c) focused on the use of AAC by Latinx children and families. A search was conducted on EBSCO using Academic Search Complete, ERIC, Education Full Text (H.W. Wilson), PsycINFO, Communication & Mass Media Complete, and MEDLINE. The search that focused on the use of AAC by Latinx children and families yielded a total of five results. The second search that used the same databases and focused on Latinx children's and families' perspectives and attitudes regarding AAC identified 124 more articles. Out of 129 articles found during the two searches, only five met the inclusion criteria (see Figure 1). Three of the studies were qualitative and explored perspectives of families who used AAC. Two remaining studies were single case design studies that explored parent-mediated intervention using AAC.

### **Results**

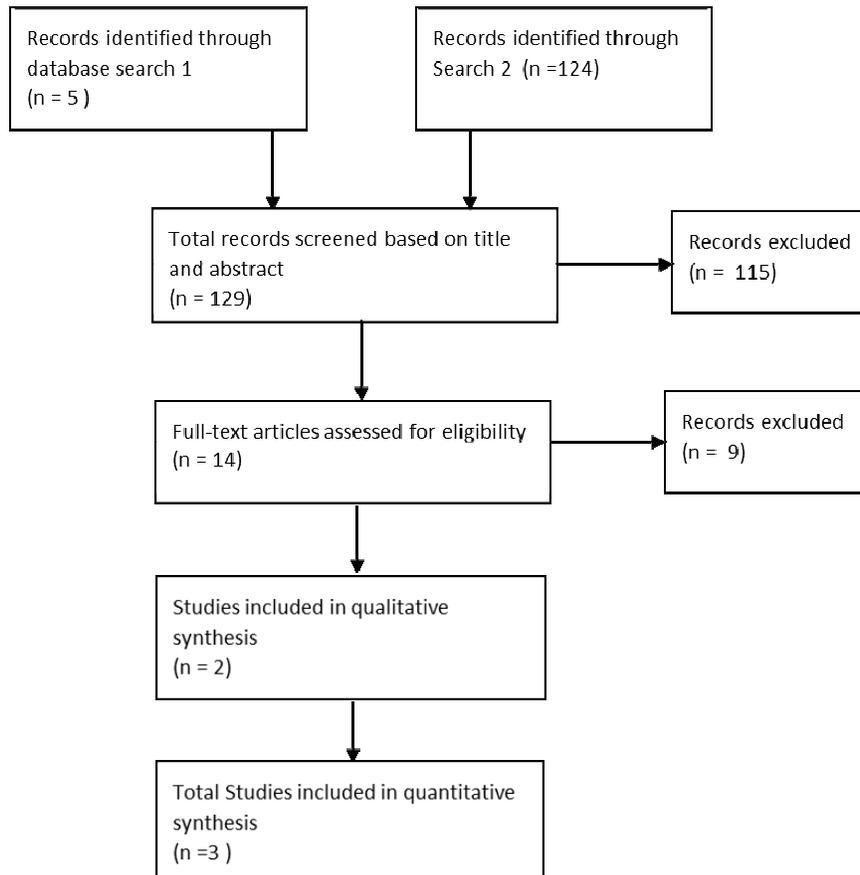
#### ***Research Focused on Using AAC Interventions with Latinx Children and Parents***

Two studies (Binger et al., 2008; Rusa-Lugo & Kent-Walsh, 2008) used AAC with Latinx children and their parents. Both studies used single case design to determine effects of a parent-mediated AAC intervention for the Latinx parents and their children. Both focused on teaching parents how to support their children in communicating through multi-symbol production on AAC using an intervention designed by Kent-Walsh in 2003. The intervention used parent-child storybook reading as a setting to practice communication using AAC. A total of five parent-child dyads participated in both studies: three dyads (n=6) in Binger et al. (2008) and two dyads (n=4) in Rosa-Lugo and Kent-Walsh's study (2008).

Binger et al. (2008) conducted a focus group discussion prior to the intervention. The focus group deliberated the ways in which the cognitive strategy turn-taking

approach originally created for Caucasian and African American children could be made culturally appropriate for the Latinx participants. Based on the focus group discussion the authors made a few changes to the intervention. These included: terminating the eye-contact element in expectant pauses (since intent eye-contact is used when disciplining children in Latinx culture), using books that contained “everyday themes”, using the term “instructional program” instead of “training program,” and presenting the benefits of AAC in relation to Latinx culture when discussing with the parent-participants. Rosa-Lugo and Kent-Walsh (2008) used storybook reading as well for parents to instruct their children using AAC. This study was more in line with the original intervention by Kent-Walsh (2003) except

**Figure 1**  
**Study Selection Flow Chart**



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for one alteration—the books used had to align with each child’s cultural background. While both studies used the same intervention, they measured different dependent variables for the children and both measured the accuracy of interaction strategy steps implemented by parents. Binger et al. (2008) measured the amount of multi-symbol messages created by the children. Rosa-Lugo and Kent-Walsh (2008) measured the children’s communicative turns. The parents in both studies demonstrated high fidelity of implementation.

### ***Latinx Families Perspectives on AAC***

Two studies examined the Mexican American families’ perspective on AAC (Huer et al., 2001; McCord, & Soto, 2004), while the third article was a preliminary study examining how families perceive AAC symbols (Huer, 2000).

The two qualitative studies that examined Mexican-American families’ perspectives on AAC (Huer et al., 2001; McCord, & Soto, 2004) had findings that could help practitioners approach families who could benefit from AAC. Huer et al. (2001) found that families felt that “aided techniques” were helpful in settings other than home. Similarly, McCord and Soto (2004) found that families perceived AAC devices not helpful to use within the family because of the differences in language and culture. For example, the devices typically used English, and the speed of the device did not match the speed of language in the home. Therefore, SGDs were found difficult to understand. However, the study by Binger et al. (2008) suggests that this attitude may shift if practitioners approach AAC in culturally responsive ways by connecting the use of the device to culturally relevant storybook reading parent-child experiences (2008).

Both studies found that while participant families believed that AAC devices may not have a place in the home, they are needed and helpful in the schools (Huer et al., 2001; McCord, & Soto, 2004). Additionally, Huer et al. (2001) reported that the Mexican American families in the study believed that, “(a) Children understand the nonverbal communication of persons around them; (b) aided techniques are useful outside of the home; (c) families have great respect for professionals; (d) there is a need to focus on the human condition; (e) there is a preference for shared responsibility between the extended family members and professionals; (f) emphasis should be placed on the performance of simple tasks; and (g) devices in Spanish are needed. Emphasis is placed on qualitative research strategies that can provide cross-cultural awareness for practitioners providing AAC services (pg. 197).”

In 2000, Huer conducted a preliminary study investigating how different cultures perceive AAC symbols. The results suggested that all the cultural/ethnic groups, including first-generation European-American, Mexican, Chinese, and African American individuals, perceive the graphic symbols on different AAC devices differently.

## **Discussion**

Latinx parents' perspectives revealed in the studies indicate that while the parents found AAC to be generally useful, they did not think it could be beneficial in the home (Huer et al., 2001; McCord, & Soto, 2004). However, research on interventions shows that when Latinx parents are involved in using AAC with their children in their home during storybook reading, parents and children both benefit communicatively (Binger et al., 2008; Rosa-Lugo & Kent-Walsh, 2008). It is still unclear how the different types of AAC symbols (e.g., Blissymbols, DynaSyms) are perceived by Latinx families.

According to Social Learning and Social Development Theories, children need social experiences to learn (Bandura & Walters, 1977; Vygotsky, 1978). Latinx children with complex communication needs must have access to AAC and culturally and linguistically responsive training to have equitable educational experiences. However, the literature search of the last 20 years revealed the paucity of research (n = 5) that investigates the effect of AAC interventions with Latinx families and their perceptions of AAC.

### ***Implications for Practice***

When practitioners intend to use AAC with Latinx families and children, there is very little research for them to use as a resource. It is known that practitioners need to be culturally responsive, however, there is a need to establish culturally and linguistically responsive evidence-based practices for special education teachers and speech-language pathologists to meet the needs of their students (Marshall & Goldbart, 2008; Kulkarni & Parmar, 2017; Soto & Yu, 2014).

Based on the identified research, the use of culturally relevant storybooks or practices encourages AAC device use in the home (Binger et al., 2008 & Rosa-Lugo & Kent-Walsh, 2008). The studies also suggested a need for bilingual devices (Huer, et al., 2001; McCord, & Soto, 2004). Since the time of the research, bilingual Spanish/ English SGD devices, such as the NOVA, have been released. Practitioners should try their best to ensure that bilingual Latinx children and families have access to these devices.

### ***Implications for Future Research***

There is a need for more qualitative and quantitative research to help identify evidence-based practices for Latinx students with developmental disabilities who have complex communication needs. More research needs to be done using the culturally and linguistically responsive interactive approach using storybook reading that was investigated in the included studies, as well as other interventions that use AAC. There is a need to better understand how Latinx families perceive different AAC symbols. Research should also be done on interventions using bilingual AAC to help students use AAC at home as well as at school.

### Conclusion

To ensure that Latinx children with developmental disabilities who live in the United States have equal access to language and learning, it is imperative that culturally and linguistically responsive best practices are implemented with the use of AAC. There is a high need for more research that explores different types of AAC and AAC interventions with Latinx children and families and their perceptions of AAC and AAC graphic symbols.

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## **Examining the Critical Issue of Teacher Burnout in Special Education**

**By Nicole Homerin**

### **Abstract**

The field of special education is currently experiencing a crisis of teacher shortage and high rates of teacher attrition (Council for Exceptional Children, 2020). Recent studies have sought to investigate the factors that lead to attrition in special education. One notable theme across much of the literature is teacher burnout. While many studies have analyzed the issue of teacher burnout in relation to Maslach's (1986) Burnout Inventory Scale, few studies have addressed the pillars of burnout in relation to basic human needs. Therefore, a review of the literature on special education teacher burnout was conducted and analyzed through the lens of Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs. Specifically, the current study sought to investigate the main reasons contributing to special education teacher burnout. The distinct concept of compassion fatigue and its relation to burnout and attrition is highlighted. Implications for practice and future research needs are discussed.

*Key Words:* special education, burnout, compassion fatigue, stress, literature review

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## Introduction

The issue of teacher shortage in special education has been highlighted as a grave concern in several recent studies (Cowan et al., 2016; Hagaman & Casey, 2018; Kaff, 2004). Currently, 48 states and the District of Columbia report teacher shortages in special education for the 2020-2021 school year (U.S. Department of Education, 2020). In addition, the rate of teacher attrition in special education is almost twice the rate of attrition in general education (Council for Exceptional Children, 2020). One factor that has been posited as contributing to special education teachers leaving the field is teacher burnout (Bettini et al., 2017; Brunsting et al., 2014; Garwood et al., 2018; Hoffman et al., 2007; Robinson et al., 2019; Williams & Dikes, 2015). Teacher burnout is a psychological condition caused by a build-up of stress that becomes so insurmountable that typical coping strategies are no longer effective in managing distress (Brunsting et al., 2014). Maslach, Jackson, and Schwab (1986) are known for examining and defining the components of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment.

While Maslach's (1986) Burnout Inventory is utilized to measure teacher burnout in general, it does not contain survey items that specifically address unique aspects of teacher burnout in special education. Researchers have posited that special education teachers may be more prone to burnout in comparison to general education teachers due to such factors as a plethora of roles and responsibilities (Hamama et al., 2013; Park & Shin, 2020), workload (Bettini et al., 2017; Williams & Dikes, 2015), unmanageable caseloads (Park & Shin, 2020; Williams & Dikes, 2015), and student-related challenges (Brunsting et al., 2014; Hamama et al., 2013; Park & Shin, 2020; Ziaian-Ghafari & Berg, 2019).

## Theoretical Framework

Abraham Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs provides a framework for understanding the nuanced issue of special education teacher burnout. Maslow's hierarchy consists of five stages that build upon one another. Maslow proposed that at the basis, individuals must first satisfy *physiological needs*, *safety*, *love and belonging needs*, and *esteem needs*. Maslow (1943) contended that if individuals were able to satisfy the first four levels of needs, they could reach the fifth and final level, *self-actualization*. Self-actualization is the state where individuals feel they have reached their full potential and, thus, results in individuals feeling fulfilled. Thus, it is critical to probe what needs special education teachers feel are not being met and what supports need to be in place in order for them to reach their fullest potential, or self-actualization, in the field.

## Purpose of the Study

Based on the work of Maslow (1943), it is clear that individuals must fulfill lower-level basic needs in order to reach their fullest potential.

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Thus, a review of the literature was conducted in order to answer the following research questions:

Question 1: What are the main reasons that special education teachers report as contributing to burnout?

Question 2: What do special education teachers need in order to feel supported and confident in their abilities to fulfill all the responsibilities of the job?

Question 3: What systemic changes need to be made in the field to decrease teacher burnout?

### **Methods**

Three databases—Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), PsycInfo, and Google Scholar—were searched utilizing combinations of the terms *special education*, *teacher*, *burnout*, *stress*, *compassion fatigue*, *attrition*, and *support*. Inclusion criteria included publication in a peer-reviewed journal between 2000 and 2020 and articles specifically addressing special education teachers and job satisfaction, burnout, or compassion fatigue. Exclusion criteria included dissertations, international studies completed in countries with different special education systems when compared to the system in the United States, and studies that did not specifically address teacher burnout or compassion fatigue in special education. In total, 12 articles met inclusion criteria, including one literature review and one meta-analysis.

### **Results**

#### ***The Complex Issue of Special Education Teacher Burnout***

Existent literature illustrates a plethora of issues that special education teachers highlight as contributing factors to experiencing burnout (Bettini et al., 2017; Hamama et al., 2013; Hester et al., 2020; Kaff, 2004; Park & Shin, 2020; Williams & Dikes, 2015; Ziaian-Ghafari & Berg, 2019). Special education teachers hold many roles and responsibilities in addition to supporting students with disabilities in the classroom. In their qualitative study analyzing the responses of 334 special education teachers from 34 states, Hester and colleagues (2020) found that special education teachers cited many responsibilities on top of teaching students in the classroom, including collaborating with general education teachers to support students in inclusive settings, communicating with parents, scheduling, and supporting paraprofessionals. The participants described that these numerous responsibilities contributed to increased job stress. Garwood and colleagues (2018) specifically analyzed burnout in rural special education teachers and found that lack of clarity regarding special education teachers' roles as well as numerous components to special educators' roles contributed to burnout. The plethora of roles and responsibilities

special education teachers hold take them out of the classroom and away from their students, leaving little time for special education teachers to build strong rapport with their students. As Brunsting et al. (2014) summarized in their synthesis of the literature, this expectation-reality mismatch of responsibilities contributes to higher emotional exhaustion and decreased personal accomplishment.

Along similar lines of roles and responsibilities, several studies have found that unmanageable workloads contribute to special education teachers experiencing burnout (Bettini et al., 2017; Hester et al., 2020; Robinson et al., 2019). The study by Bettini et al. (2017) specifically analyzed perceptions of workload manageability among novice special education teachers in comparison to beginning general education teachers. Through secondary analysis of data collected from the Michigan Indiana Early Career Teacher Study (MIECT), they found that novice elementary and middle school special education teachers reported that their workload was less manageable than that reported by novice general education teachers. Special education teachers are often responsible for teaching students in multiple grade levels spanning multiple content areas while also creating and implementing appropriate interventions to support learning and behavior. Robinson et al. (2019) emphasized that providing mentoring programs to support novice special education teachers and providing supports to reduce workload can help decrease workload stress, thus decreasing possibility of burnout.

### ***Burnout Versus Compassion Fatigue in Special Education***

Research is emerging on the role of compassion fatigue in special education (Hoffman et al., 2007; Ziaian-Ghafari & Berg, 2019). The concept of compassion fatigue was first discussed by Joinson (1992) in relation to the field of nursing. Joinson noted the physical and emotional signs of burnout in nurses that were directly linked to the caregiving required in their jobs. Figley (1995) further expanded the literature on compassion fatigue by referring to the condition as a secondary traumatic stress disorder as a result of feelings of helplessness and psychological distress experienced in caregiving professions. Figley proposed that there is a distinction between burnout and compassion fatigue, where compassion fatigue is reversible given appropriate interventions. Therefore, addressing compassion fatigue in relation to special education can reveal possible interventions that may support special education teachers to recover from compassion fatigue and decrease the possibility of this being a contributing factor towards attrition.

In order to shed light on compassion fatigue in special education, Hoffman and colleagues (2007) conducted a qualitative study of urban and rural middle school special education teachers. Results from their interviews revealed three themes that can be analyzed utilizing the compassion fatigue theoretical framework: loss of control, responsibility to the students at the expense of self, and empathy. Ziaian-Ghafari and Berg (2019) interviewed five general education teachers who worked

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with students with disabilities in inclusive settings and similarly concluded that personal investment in meeting students' needs and limited resources to support student success contributed to teachers experiencing compassion fatigue. While both studies included small sample sizes, the results point to the possible ways that proper supports and resources, programs to address teacher self-care and well-being, and programs to build teachers' self-efficacy may help to reverse the compassion fatigue experienced by special education teachers.

#### **Preventing Burnout:**

#### ***What do Teachers Need and What Systemic Changes Must Be Made***

The overarching theme of support needs for special education teachers extends through much of the literature (Bettini et al., 2017; Garwood et al., 2018; Hamama et al., 2013; Hoffman et al., 2007; Kaff, 2004; Robinson et al., 2019; Williams & Dikes, 2015; Wong et al., 2017; Ziaian-Ghafari & Berg, 2019). The study by Bettini and colleagues (2017) clearly points to the need for increased aid for special education teachers to manage workload, particularly for novice special education teachers. Hamama et al. (2013) emphasized that support must be individualized and that there is not a one-size-fits-all solution to decreasing burnout, as every special education teacher is impacted by different student-related, teacher-related, and school-related variables. In addition, manageable caseload numbers play a key role in preventing burnout. In their survey study, Williams and Dikes (2015) found that teachers with caseloads of 11 to 15 reported low levels of emotional exhaustion, while teachers with caseloads of 26 or more reported high levels of emotional exhaustion.

While schools often focus on supporting student well-being, supporting teacher well-being is frequently an afterthought. The literature on teacher burnout points to the importance of renewing a focus on fostering mental health and well-being of teachers (Hamama et al., 2013; Wong et al., 2017; Ziaian-Ghafari & Berg, 2019). In their study, Hamama et al. (2013) found that internal and external coping resources, including self-control, defined as the ability to attain goal-directed behavior through self-reinforcement, and social support, contribute to an increase in teachers' positive affect. Positive affect leads to the development of personal accomplishment, which is critical to preventing burnout. The call for creating support programs for teacher mental health and well-being also has direct implications on students. Ziaian-Ghafari and Berg's (2019) qualitative investigation highlighted the reciprocal nature of psychological well-being; that is, the well-being of teachers influences the well-being of students and vice versa. Creating programs to support teacher mental health will not only decrease the potential for burnout, but will also increase the likelihood of student engagement and success.

### **Discussion**

Results revealed several themes related to barriers and challenges that teachers face in special education that contribute to burnout. The plethora of roles and responsibilities involved in the job, including collaboration time, communicating with various personnel and parents, scheduling, paperwork, and supporting paraprofessionals, leads to increased job stress (Hester et al., 2020; Garwood et al., 2018). In addition, special education teachers frequently cite unmanageable workloads as a contributing factor to heightened stress and emotional exhaustion (Bettini et al., 2017; Hester et al., 2020; Robinson et al., 2019). While special education teachers have numerous roles and substantial workloads, they routinely lack the necessary resources and supports crucial to fulfilling their responsibilities. These responsibilities and workload frequently extend beyond the school day. As such, special education teachers often have little time to fulfill basic needs such as time to eat, sleep, and spend time with loved ones (Brunsting et al., 2014). Analyzed through the lens of Maslow's (1943) hierarchy, this inability to fulfill basic physiological and psychological needs results in the inability to reach self-actualization or the feeling of fulfillment.

One notable finding was the emerging use of compassion fatigue to analyze the emotional toll special education teachers experience. Both Hoffman and colleagues (2007) and Ziaian-Ghafari and Berg (2019) distinguished compassion fatigue from burnout, noting that compassion fatigue manifests as a result of affective feelings related to empathy and experiences of secondary trauma, whereas burnout results from a build-up of stress related to the many components of the job. This distinction demonstrates a need to address special education teachers' emotional well-being. As demonstrated in Maslow's (1943) hierarchy, before reaching self-actualization, individuals must have their esteem needs met, which include possessing self-confidence, self-efficacy, and strength. Special education teachers who are experiencing compassion fatigue lack self-efficacy and self-confidence, as they feel they do not have the ability to change their students' aversive situations or experiences. As a result, they are unable to reach the level of self-actualization, resulting in potentially increasing attrition. Finally, the existent literature spotlights the need for the creation of programs and processes to address special education teachers' mental health and well-being (Hamama et al., 2013; Wong et al., 2017; Ziaian-Ghafari & Berg, 2019). This directly relates to safety needs addressed in the second tier of Maslow's (1943) hierarchy. Individuals need to feel safe and secure in their lives, including physical and emotional safety. Working with students who present behavioral challenges can threaten teachers' physical and emotional safety.

### **Implications for Practice and Future Directions**

In order to address the high level of teacher burnout in special education, supports and programs need to be implemented both in schools and in preservice

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teacher preparation programs. Kaff (2004) contended that teacher preparation programs need to be re-designed to align with the many roles of special education professionals. Field experiences often give preservice teachers the opportunity to teach in a supported environment, but do not give them the opportunity to practice all responsibilities held by special education teachers, such as paperwork, planning and running IEP meetings, communicating with parents, and collaborating with general education teachers and related service providers, such as occupational therapists and physical therapists. This preparation is crucial, given that attrition is most likely to occur within the first five years of teaching (Bettini et al., 2017). In addition, schools need to provide adequate resources and personnel for special education teachers to appropriately support students. Appropriate funding is needed in order for special education teachers to obtain the necessary resources and materials to meet the wide variety of student needs (Garwood et al., 2018; Kaff, 2004). Additional support and personnel for paperwork and other additional tasks will allow special education teachers to have more time and energy to focus on planning and instruction. Teachers also need support from colleagues and administrators. Several studies revealed that administrators often lack knowledge about special education and understanding about how to support teachers (Brunsting et al., 2014; Kaff, 2004; Robinson et al., 2019). Therefore, training for administration in both preparation programs and in schools is essential so that they can provide proper support to special education teachers.

Teacher preparation programs, schools, districts, and communities must place a focus on teacher mental health and wellness in order to address the disconcerting rates of special education teacher burnout (Hamama et al., 2013; Robinson et al., 2019). Wellness programs should include opportunities for teachers to develop coping strategies and ways to manage stress. Wellness programs should also include opportunities for teachers to develop social connections with their colleagues, as research demonstrates that social supports are crucial to increasing positive affect and job satisfaction (Hamama et al., 2013). Both teacher preparation programs and schools also need to address the mental health of teachers and have support personnel available for teachers who may be experiencing mental health challenges. It is vital that teacher preparation programs and schools begin to address the significant mental toll that the field can have on special education teachers in order to break the stigma rampant in the field and work towards prevention of burnout.

### **Conclusion**

A comprehensive review of the literature on teacher burnout in special education was conducted in order to gain insight into this critical issue. Results of the review revealed that there are a plethora of factors that contribute to special education teacher burnout. More recently, compassion fatigue has also been examined in the field of special education for its parallels to burnout and its role in teacher attrition.

The creation of system-wide supports and resources as well as an increased focus on teacher well-being programs are needed in order to attempt to decrease the current high rates of burnout in the field. Additional research on the role of compassion fatigue in relation to burnout is needed in order to gain a better understanding of preventative measures for burnout in special education.

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# **Re-Examining Effective Reading Instruction for English Learners With Intellectual Disabilities**

**By Karolyn Maurer & Anna Osipova**

## **Introduction**

The number of students found eligible for special education services and the number of culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students (also commonly referred to as English learners) continues to increase in the United States (Rivera et al., 2016). In the 2017-18 school year, nearly 14% (or 6.9 million) of the total number of students in public education were students with disabilities, including 436,000 with the classification of intellectual disability (ID) (U.S Department of Education, 2019). According to the Office of English Language Acquisition (2020), 11% of all students with disabilities are also English learners (ELs), and the number of EL students served under the eligibility of ID (7%) is higher than the number of non-EL students with the ID eligibility (6.5%). Since the numbers of students

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with ID who are also ELs are on the rise, it is imperative that general and special education practitioners be equipped with the tools and resources required to meet the unique needs of this population.

The intersectionality of disability and EL status is complex. Students with this dual eligibility require specialized instruction and supports provided by EL and special education experts. Throughout their educational journeys, ELs with disabilities face double systemic barriers caused by their EL status and disability. For example, Rivera et al. (2016) explain that ELs have less access to high-quality teachers and earn lower scores on academic achievement assessments. ELs are also less likely to graduate from high school (National Center for Education Statistics, 2019). Additionally, students with ID are likely to demonstrate low reading achievement and to leave school with limited reading skills (Wei et al., 2011). ELs with more significant disability profiles are particularly vulnerable to low academic achievement because of their cognitive, adaptive, and language needs, and they often do not have access to highly trained educators who are equipped to provide the extensive specialized instruction required to educate this unique population (Rivera et al., 2016).

Reading instruction for students with ID is an area of much needed focus because reading is a particularly critical skill for students with ID. Being able to read creates access to employment, activities, relationships, and other life experiences available to people without disabilities, thereby leading to better quality of life (Cihak & Smith, 2018). Adequate reading skills increase academic achievement and post-secondary opportunities (Cihak & Smith, 2018; Lemons et al., 2016). Students with ID require extensive, intensive, and purposeful reading instruction in order to make small gains, because skills that might take a few months to develop for typically developing children may take years to develop for students with lower cognitive abilities (Allor et al., 2014).

While it is clear that teachers must be equipped with the knowledge, skills, and resources necessary to teach reading skills to this population, practitioners remain uncertain about the implementation of reading instruction for students with ID (Lemons et al., 2016; Ricci & Osipova, 2018) because they receive little training (Allor et al., 2009). A study by Hill and Lemons (2015) found that teachers were not using evidence-based reading programs to teach students with ID how to read, but were instead likely to compile a variety of materials from different resources in order to augment their reading instruction. This reveals a research-practice gap: teachers are not using the research-based instructional frameworks that outline comprehensive approaches to instruction and the most effective practices for teaching reading to this population. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to review the research conducted within the last decade with the focus on teaching reading to students with ID, particularly ELs with ID, and to identify the current instructional frameworks available to educators who are working with ELs with ID.

## **Literature Review**

### ***Evolution of Reading Instruction for Students with ID***

In order to understand the current research about teaching non-ELs and ELs with ID how to read, it is important to have some context about the evolution of reading instruction for this population within the last 20 years. In 2000, the National Reading Panel (NRP) introduced the now-ubiquitous five components of reading: phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension. However, a 2006 review of the research conducted by Browder and colleagues noted that teaching reading to students with significant needs was slow to include NRP's recommendations and often did not include these five research-based components, but rather focused on sight word identification using prompting and fading strategies. The researchers also found that reading instruction often excluded vocabulary and comprehension support, so students may learn to memorize sight words but not understand the word's meaning or its application in context (Browder et al., 2006). Allor et al. (2009) also attested that the field has focused on this truncated reading instruction. These practices, however, are contradictory to the instructional methods recommended by the NRP (2000), and research shows that the same reading practices used for typically developing children are also beneficial for students with ID (Allor et al., 2009). In fact, Allor et al. (2009) note a critical finding from their research, in which students with ID who received comprehensive, explicit reading instruction outperformed their peers on phonological awareness, word recognition, oral language, vocabulary, and basic comprehension. In a longitudinal, randomized control trial that took place over four academic years, Allor et al. (2014) examined the effectiveness of a comprehensive, systematic, and explicit reading program that addressed all five components of reading for students with low IQs and students with ID. The studied reading program was previously proven to be effective for typically developing students and students with learning disabilities. Allor et al.'s (2014) findings indicated that students who received daily, small group, explicit instruction using this program gained strong blending skills, increased segmentation skills, demonstrated strong expressive and receptive vocabulary, as well as solid timed and untimed decoding skills, and increased high frequency word reading compared to students who received the instruction provided by the district. These results are comparable to other studies, which reveal that explicit, systematic reading instruction and the use of multicomponent evidence-based programs result in increased reading skills for students with ID (Allor et al., 2020; Browder et al., 2012).

In addition to this shift away from solely sight word instruction, Browder et al. (2009) proposed that the focus on functional reading skills for students with ID is too limiting. The term functional reading refers to the ability to access text found in daily life, such as the words on a menu, signs, or basic job tasks (Browder et al., 2009). However, Browder and colleagues (2009) posit that functional reading skills are broader than this common definition, and "the functional activity for literacy

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is gaining meaning from text” (2009, p. 272). An individual’s reason for accessing specific texts differs from one person to the next and varies across contexts. Thus, reading instruction for any child should not be limited or narrowed due to a deficit-minded belief that the child will never have a purpose for reading past functional life activities. It is critical that students with ID be taught comprehensive reading skills in order to access texts across contexts. Additionally, thorough reading instruction must include training in listening comprehension skills for students with ID who have difficulty acquiring reading skills (Browder et al., 2009).

### **Conceptual Frameworks for Teaching Reading to Students with ID**

In order to support practitioners in incorporating more comprehensive and systematic reading instruction, Browder et al. (2009) and Allor et al. (2009) established conceptual frameworks to offer guidance for teaching reading to students with ID.

Browder et al. (2009) named two specific outcomes of their framework: increased access to literature for students with ID and increased reader independence. The first instructional method offered to teachers by this framework is teaching reading comprehension skills from a read aloud so that students/readers of all skill levels are able to access texts (Browder et al., 2009). The second instructional method, offered to build independence in readers, includes specific suggestions for how to teach the NRP’s five components of reading to students with ID. For example, Browder and colleagues (2009) propose teaching phonemic awareness throughout the elementary school years and using consistent pictures to correspond with printed letters. The team also suggests developing print awareness skills by pointing to each word on the page as it is read aloud, turning the pages of the book, and locating the pictures on the page. To develop comprehension skills of students who are verbally limited, students can answer wh- questions by pointing to a picture (Browder et al., 2009).

Instructional methods for teaching reading to students with ID is also the primary focus of Allor et al.’s (2009) paper, which articulates effective techniques for teaching early reading skills using the five components of reading (NRP, 2000) and oral language. Specific strategies for explicit instruction around the five components of reading are provided, with an emphasis on attaching meaning and skill transference, as students with ID often have difficulty transferring skills from one activity or context to the next (Allor et al., 2009). For example, teachers can help students develop fluency skills through choral readings, repeated reading of decodable texts (texts that students can access independently), and teacher modeling. Early comprehension skills can be supported through story sequencing and use of graphic organizers to map the details of a story, while more advanced comprehension strategies include scaffolded summarizing, making predictions, and synthesizing the story (Allor et al., 2009).

Both frameworks include strategies for vocabulary development. Pictures,

videos, using target words in sentences, and prompting procedures should all be used to support expressive and receptive vocabulary development in students with ID (Allor et al., 2009; Browder et al., 2009).

Thus, the first decade of the 21st century was marked by a gradual qualitative shift in reading instruction for students with ID and formulation of two comprehensive pedagogical frameworks in response to the previous overemphasis on sight word instruction for students with ID. However, these frameworks did not specifically address ELs with ID, who comprise of more than half the population of students with ID in public schools (Office of English Language Acquisition, 2020). As we turned to review reading methods for ELs with ID during 2010-2020, we sought to identify the updated research-based frameworks and current studies specifically focused on ELs with ID. Our literature review was guided by the following research questions:

- ◆ What are the current “big picture” frameworks offered to educators teaching reading skills to ELs and non-ELs with ID?
- ◆ What evidence-based early reading practices are currently recommended for ELs with ID?

### **Methods**

The online databases ERIC and Academic Search Complete were searched for this literature review. Only peer-reviewed articles published in 2010-2020 were considered. First, ERIC was searched using the terms intellectual disability AND reading OR literacy OR literacy skills AND elementary school OR primary school OR grade school AND teaching. Lemons et al.’s (2016) paper offered the only framework in the results. Next, the search was narrowed to focus on ELs with ID. Intellectual disability AND English learners OR English language learners AND teaching AND reading produced two results: Rivera et al.’s (2016) framework for teaching ELs with ID and Reed’s (2013) study on explicit instruction for ELs with ID, both of which are discussed further in this paper. A search using Academic Search Complete resulted in eight papers. Three of the papers focused specifically on ID, and one study focused on vocabulary acquisition for ELs with ID. As a result, the search yielded two articles that proposed updated frameworks and one empirical study that specifically focused on reading instruction for ELs with ID.

### **Results**

#### ***Contemporary Frameworks for Teaching Reading to ELs and Non-ELs with ID***

Lemons et al.’s (2016) framework is focused on reading instruction for all students with ID. The framework extended Browder et al.’s (2009) conceptual model of teaching reading by developing a research-based planning tool intended

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for making decisions about reading instruction for a student with ID. This framework contains ten recommendations for teachers and includes a planning tool to be used when facilitating an IEP team conversation about reading instruction and devising an individualized reading plan for the student. There are also three specific suggestions that address the unique reading needs of students with more significant support needs. First, similar to Browder et al. (2009) and Allor et al. (2009), Lemons and colleagues (2016) recommend that educators teach reading using a systematic reading program and explicit instructional techniques. The use of an “evidence-based program that provides explicit models, corrective feedback, scaffolding, reinforcement, and cumulative review as well as a focus on systematic instruction in phonological awareness and phonics skills” is critical (Lemons et al., 2016, p. 23). The second tip is to develop working memory skills, a common area of need for students with ID. Lastly, the framework provides teachers the critical reminder that reading skills are rooted in language skills, so reading instruction must be grounded in language acquisition (Lemons et al., 2016). While ELs are not explicitly named, this tip is also relevant to ELs with ID who require targeted language support as part of their reading instruction.

Rivera et al. (2016) propose a culturally responsive framework for supporting ELs with more significant support needs. This is not a reading-specific framework, but rather an outline for creating access to the general education curriculum. Universal Design for Learning (UDL, a method of presenting information through multiple representations) is the suggested instructional delivery approach, as it allows for multiple modes of expression, and different opportunities for engagement. A safe learning environment that promotes risk-taking is critical to fostering learning and community, along with the integration of relevant cultural information that allows students to see themselves in the curriculum and make connections to their own experiences. The authors also advocate for instruction in a child’s primary language in order to connect new content to previous experiences, and teachers must provide students with a plethora of ways to showcase their knowledge and interact with peers in the classroom. While Rivera et al.’s (2016) instructional framework does not offer reading-specific teaching tools for teachers of ELs with ID, it reminds teachers to use culturally responsive and relevant instruction when working with this unique population who face many educational barriers. The review of the literature reveals a continued absence of frameworks that could guide professionals in their delivery of systematic reading instruction to ELs with ID.

#### **Reading Strategies for ELs with ID**

This literature review also investigated the research specifically focusing on reading instruction for ELs with ID. The search revealed an overwhelming lack of research on this population and resulted in one empirical study: Reed’s (2013) single case design study in which the participants were ELs with ID. The study compared

the effects of explicit phonics and sight word instruction on letter-sound identification and word reading of four 8th graders who are early readers. The four participants were randomly assigned to one of the two treatment conditions: explicit instruction in phonics or explicit sight word instruction using a picture fading strategy. The results revealed that both explicit instruction treatments resulted in an increase in the students' ability to identify letter sounds (Reed, 2013), confirming that explicit instruction is an effective reading strategy for ELs with ID. Additionally, the words used to measure student progress from baseline to treatment conditions were not explicitly taught to the students. Therefore, Reed (2013) found that ELs with ID were able to transfer their learning from one context to the next, as they were able to use their newly developed reading skills to accurately read unfamiliar words. This differs from Lemons et al.'s (2016) conclusion that students with ID have trouble with skill transference and require these connections to be made for them.

### **Discussion and Future Research**

This literature review aimed to identify the most up-to-date reading instruction frameworks available for teachers of students with ID. As the research recommendations have shifted from isolated sight word instruction to comprehensive instruction of the five components of reading, so must the resources and tools that offer practical guidance for teachers designing and implementing instruction for this population. These current, research-based instructional guardrails are critical for practitioners because teachers do not receive adequate training for how to teach reading to students with ID (Allor et al., 2009), and more specifically, ELs with ID.

Neither of the two latest frameworks reviewed here focused on reading instruction for ELs with ID. Lemons et al.'s framework (2016) offers general research-based tips for teaching reading to students with ID, but it does not specifically name suggestions for teaching ELs with ID. Rivera et al.'s (2016) framework recommends research-based pedagogy appropriate for supporting EL students with ID, but it is not specific to reading.

Reed's (2013) findings that systematic and explicit phonics and sight word instruction support the early reading skills of EL students with ID are aligned with the findings of studies that focused on students with ID but not ELs specifically (Allor et al., 2014; Browder et al., 2020). As Lemons et al. (2016) call for in their framework, systematic and explicit instruction using a multicomponent evidence-based program is a necessary practice when teaching reading to students with ID. As demonstrated by Reed's study (2013), it is possible that these same evidence-based practices proven to be effective for early readers with ID could be beneficial for EL students with ID as well. However, literature on effective reading instruction for struggling ELs suggests that their needs differ considerably from the needs of non-EL readers (Haager & Osipova, 2017). Therefore, more research is required to determine if the same evidence-based reading programs and strate-

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gies that benefit non-ELs with ID will support ELs with ID. This literature review illuminated a paucity of research about reading instruction for ELs with ID. As schools and classrooms continue to become more diverse, researchers must support practitioners in their development and practice.

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# **Increased Reliance on Video Coaching During COVID-19**

## **Understanding Educators' Experiences**

**By Melissa Meetze-Hall, Allison Smith,  
Keith A. Walters, & Brian Arnold**

### **Introduction**

The student teaching experience in the best of times is a roller coaster ride. The experience begins during credential program coursework where visions of working with children heighten levels of anticipation. The first day in front of students, the first success in scaffolding learning, the first experience with a defiant child, and the first formal observation propel the candidate into a fast-paced series of highs and lows. Anecdotal evidence consistently hints at the university supervisor's stabiliz-

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ing role. In the last year, the university supervisor's responsibilities have become more complex because of recent impact and isolation of COVID-19. Specifically, the PK-12 transition to distant learning and/or hybrid configurations have placed candidates into clinical settings where instruction consists of staring at a computer screen with black boxes labeled with student names and interpersonal communications restricted to chat box interactions.

The Commission on Teacher Credentialing (2020) provided a degree of assistance when they operationalized the governor's executive order. Stress reduction efforts included moving teaching performance assessments and the Reading Instruction Competence Assessment (RICA) into the clear credential program. The postponement of the testing requirements generated a new set of unexpected consequences. For example, induction programs historically were not required and, therefore, did not develop candidate test-support programs. Concern for candidate needs pushed professionals across the spectrum of new teacher support to engage in greater levels of collaboration. One easy action step was to ensure that each candidate was provided a detailed Individual Development Plan. In response, preparation programs refined and/or created rigorous, meaningful, and relevant clinical supervision protocols that relied on using video and distance learning delivery models.

Uncertainty permeated the transition to video coaching as research into the practice is in the beginning stages. Work by theorists such as Vestake and Kociunas (2017) focused on the "lived-experiences" of video coaching participants. Scholarship provided by researchers such as Duncan-Howell (2010), Noroozi et al. (2012), and Quintana and Zambrano (2014) tried to examine the impact contexts such as geographic isolation had on perceptions. Unfortunately, the quick shift demanded by COVID-19 did not offer programs the luxury to fully examine and reconcile findings. The new normal demanded immediate action. Instead, support tended to emerge from educator preparation programs that were already utilizing video coaching. Now that a year has passed, it is time to gain a better understanding of educator's perceptions and experiences with video coaching prior to and through COVID-19.

### **Review of the Literature**

For the purposes of this article, the term *coaching* will be equated with Dewey's (1916) concept of educative experiences, which includes a sustained relationship between an experienced teacher and a novice. Feiman-Nemser (2001) later brought forth the term *educative mentoring*. Building upon these concepts, Aguilar (2013) notes that effective coaching expands beyond skill attainment. The process begins when the experienced teacher-novice dyad collaboratively converts performance data into professional inquiry dialogs. Each coaching interaction then focuses on promoting growth that addresses the new teacher's full range of needs while guiding the novice to higher performance levels.

The National Center for Educational Statistics (2015) positively links coaching

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with new-teacher retention. Coaching provides participants autonomy, emotional validation, encouragement, and expert insights (Aguilar, 2013). Critical practices include open communication, collaboration, learner engagement, problem solving, and advocacy skills (Mielioccki & Fatheree, 2019). Simply stated, effective coaching supports and cultivates inquiry-oriented dispositions.

Ritter and Barnett (2016) suggest inquiry is enhanced when coaches provide growth-oriented feedback. Brookhart and Moss (2015) identify three types of feedback. Micro comments highlight work criteria and processes. Snapshot remarks stress valuing each other's insights. And long-view statements assess action steps. Bocala (2015) postulates that the reciprocal nature of feedback leads to differentiated perceptions. Learning for inexperienced participants tend to emphasize "whats" while experienced members tend to focus on students' words and actions. Implementing feedback as a relational interaction educes co-constructivism ideology that aligns with andragogy's commitment to mutually respectful professional relationships, providing individual/teams autonomy, matching tasks with self-efficacy perceptions, creating self-interest relevance, challenging incomplete/inaccurate personal schemas, and applying new understandings in authentic settings (Podolsky & Darling-Hammond, 2019; Ferlazzo 2017; Knowles, et.al., 2015).

Given the reality that COVID-19 necessitated rapid change, questions arise over a program's ability to adopt, train, and implement video coaching technology while simultaneously ensuring the transfer of face-to-face coaching practices. Specifically, will university supervisors and candidates be able to establish a mutual respectful coaching relationship that allows participants to challenge personal assumptions/beliefs, explore new frames of reference, take risks, and experiment (DeLuca, et.al, 2017, Jacobs & Yendol-Hoppey 2010)? Additionally, will university supervisors and candidates be able to analyze the selection and evaluation of relevant developmental theories, "best-practice" pedagogy, and site-based contextual idiosyncrasies all while remaining compliant to governmental regulations (Dufour & Marzano, 2011; Gruemert & Whitaker, 2015; Jacob & Lefgren, 2008, Sinnema, et.al, 2011)? Finally, will university supervisors and candidates be able to proactively navigate the frustrations that emerge when candidate efforts fail to generate positive PK-12 student learning outcomes (Darling Hammond, 2010, 2012)?

A growing body of research suggests that properly implementing video coaching can provide positive responses to each of the above questions (Koutropoulous, 2011; Meetze-Hall, 2018; Surrette & Johnson, 2015; Quintana & Zambrano, 2014). Success requires leveraging the video's ability to generate objective, third-point data as the foundation for experienced teache—candidate post observation conversations. Care must then be taken to support the candidate's sense of vulnerability as they complete a self-review of the recorded lesson. Accordingly, self-defensiveness will now be viewed as a call for help. Finally, efforts to intentionally augment the candidate's sense of educator-agency throughout the clinical experience will emerge as a critical coaching skill (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997; Podolsky & Darling-

Hammond, 2019; Drapeau, 2014; Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015; Hattie & Donoghue, 2016; Knowles, et.al., 2015; Lovely & Buffum, 2007).

### **Methodology**

Development of the study's framework began with the adoption of Hattie and Donoghue's (2016) perspective that deep learning requires attention to "skills" (knowledgeable actions), "will" (intrinsic convictions driving actions), and "thrill" (enjoyable discoveries propelling persistence). Knowledge that some credential programs used video supervision prior to COVID-19 lead to the decision to differentiate university supervisor participants into 2019-2020 and 2020-2021 categories. Difficulty in locating and communicating with past candidates resulted in the decision to survey individuals currently in a clinical setting. Justification for the decisions rested on the study's primary goal to simply uncover an initial understanding of video coaching perceptions. Accordingly, the study was designed to answer three questions:

1. How do experiences with video coaching in teacher development affect perceptions of professional practice?
2. How have perceptions of video coaching changed through the COVID-19 pandemic?
3. How do perceptions and experiences with video coaching affect the spectrum of diverse students and teachers in TK-12 schools?

To answer these research questions, a Qualtrics survey was created. The survey began with questions about demographics, experience, and roles in education. The survey continued with 26 Likert scale question that reflected critical principles of andragogy (Knowles, et.al., 2015) and lesson study protocols (Bocala, 2015; DeLuca, et.al., 2017; Dudley, et.al., 2019; Erbilgin, 2019). Two university supervisors recognized as experts by their institution provided feedback on the initial survey. Revisions were made. The final draft was organized into four main categories:

1. Perceptions of professional practice.
2. Changes through the Covid-19 pandemic.
3. Perceptions of effectiveness of video coaching.
4. Effect of video coaching on diverse students and teachers.

After IRB approval was secured, fifteen universities were contacted. To date, ten private universities agreed to participate with nine distributing the survey to university supervisors and candidates and one distributing the survey only to their university supervisors.

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### **Findings**

The article presents a mid-point analysis focused on the pre-service student teachers/interns and pre-service university supervisors. Initial findings provide insight and increase understanding about video coaching in pre-service teacher preparation. There were 82 survey responses from preservice university supervisors and 194 responses from student teachers/interns.

There was a clear age demarcation between the two groups of respondents. 88% of the university supervisors were over the age of 55 and 74% of the student teachers or interns were younger than 33. Within the 26 Likert-scale questions, four initial trends appeared.

### ***Trend 1***

Both university supervisors and candidates had an overwhelmingly positive experience through the Covid-19 pandemic in improving their proficiency and comfort with video coaching.

### ***Trend 2***

University supervisors reported high levels of comfort with video coaching, while candidates reported a lower level of comfort. University supervisors also had more experience with video coaching prior to the pandemic and reported receiving higher levels of support through the transition to video coaching. When thinking about the experiences of the two groups and their ages, these findings suggest that comfort with video coaching may be more closely aligned to support and experience, rather than age.

### ***Trend 3***

Both university supervisors and candidates reported that they strongly believed video coaching was NOT as good as in-person coaching. This was even more pronounced among the candidates. This is interesting when considering other measures collected in the surveys that indicated high levels of comfort, high enjoyability during video coaching, and the reported high levels of growth in proficiency and comfort with video coaching through the Covid-19 pandemic.

### ***Trend 4***

Both university supervisors and candidates self-reported a perception of extremely low ability to form classroom relationships with video coaching and a perceived inability to facilitate conversations about cultural appropriateness embedded within the pedagogical practices, as well as culturally relevant teachable moments. Unfortunately, we are not able to determine if this is a result of

the video mentoring protocols or the fact that most candidates are teaching in an on-line environment.

### **Discussion**

Overall, university supervisors reported more positivity toward video coaching than candidates. Reasons could range from support to expectations of coaching throughout the teacher preparation programs. What could be first explained as a generational gap with technology, might instead be a gap in training and experience. Coordination with the idea of “skill,” “will,” and “thrill” suggests that: (1) comfort with the technological and procedural aspects of video coaching increases perceptions of effectiveness (skills), (2) relationships between the university supervisor and candidate as well as the candidate and PK-12 students continues to be the heart of candidate motivation (will), and (3) uncovering aspects of excitement generated by new discoveries is difficult to ascertain within Likert scale survey responses (thrill).

Based on the study findings to date, there is a need to continue to seek understanding of the lived experiences of COVID 19 impacted educators. What the data from our study does not yet present is a complete understanding of where inequitable learning opportunities (Lucas & Beresford, 2010) may have an impact on study respondents, or how the respondents’ perceptions may inequitably impact their future students. Therefore, to better understand the initial findings, we have outlined several phases of continuing research.

#### **Phase 1**

1. Expand the survey participant base to include public institution and induction supervisors and candidates.
2. Further disaggregation and analysis of the study data with specific attention paid to (a) perceptions of participants who experienced video coaching pre-COVID-19 and (b) perceptions of participants of various races and ethnicities.
3. Conduct a basic statistic analysis to determine if there are any items of significance.

#### **Phase 2**

1. Conduct a handbook analysis to determine shared and distinct skills-based video coaching practices.
2. Conduct semi-structured individual and role-alike group interviews to identify potential “will” and “thrill” based characteristics that impact video coaching perceptions and practices.

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### **Phase 3**

1. Analyze the impact of “common” video coaching practices identified during the previous phases on PK-12 student learning.
2. Ascertain the impact of effective video coaching practices on new teacher retention.

### **Conclusion**

At no other time in our recent memories has the need to engage in collaborative support for candidates been so great. While the relief provided through an Executive Order from the Governor of California and modifications allowed by the Commission on Teacher Credentialing provide a good start, the impact on coaching within and through a variety of technological formats must not be overlooked. Until research can offer “best-practice” insights, immediate action steps should include:

- Logging experience gaps in each candidate’s Individual Development Plan (IDP) and/or Individual Learning Plan (ILP).
- Increasing collaboration amongst pre-service and induction programs so that the expertise of each support provider is fully leveraged.
- Responding with patience and providing additional support to 2019-2020 and 2020-2021 candidates who had clinical experiences that do not fully reflect new-normal PK-12 education realities.

While the educator preparation community has taken steps forward, the findings of this study demonstrate that there is still much to learn about designing and implementing a contextually relevant video coaching experience for teacher candidates. Granted, the desire to return to previous practices may be high, yet history shows that there is no status-quo reality. Major events always bring change. Therefore, the essential question for programs is whether you will allow change to be thrust upon you or if you will leverage change in a way that improves your community, our society, and the world.

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## **Building a Community of Supervisors for Equity and Justice**

**By Kayce Mastrup & Lisa Sullivan**

### **Introduction**

Supervisors of teacher education play an integral role in the growth and development of teacher candidates (Kagan, 1988). Supervisors are situated at the nexus of aspirational practices which are endorsed by the university research based community, and existing practices, which are endorsed by the school community. The aspirational and existing practices overlap in these two contexts however supervisors are often in the role of helping student teachers (STs) navigate these ‘two worlds.’ Supervisors provide guidance, mentoring and support during clinical practice experiences. However, supervisors have few opportunities to engage in professional development or collaboration amongst one another to discuss their practice. Supervisors often work autonomously, are seldom given opportunities to discuss their work, and are not often consulted in order to identify areas for

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professional growth (Stimpson et al., 2000). This is especially true for part-time supervisors who are not also teaching methods classes.

This study took a closer look at the work of supervisors in supporting student teachers using a networked improvement community (NIC) approach (Bryk, Gomez & Grunow, 2011). As part of this process, the Student Teacher Evaluation Network Team (STENT) conducted focus groups and surveyed both student teachers and supervisors from across our eight teacher education programs (TEPs). Most supervisors reported that the training and guidance they receive is informal and self-directed. Supervisors reported that they wanted to learn more about current teacher education research and to interact with colleagues to learn from their experiences. Based on these findings we organized a two-day professional development conference for supervisors. The conference presentations and panels were designed by supervisors for supervisors with a focus on practices that support equity and social justice. A secondary focus of the conference was on distance learning, given the changing landscape of TK-12 instruction due to the Covid-19 pandemic. Survey data was collected at the start and conclusion of the conference in order to understand what supervisors had gained from the conference sessions they attended. Supervisors reported that the conference had an impact on their work and their approach to supervision. We will share some of the actions taken by supervisors following the conference, specifically actions focused on centering the supervision of student teachers on equity and social justice.

#### **Background**

When student teachers (STs) are in their clinical practice settings the primary person who provides them with ongoing feedback is their supervisor, along with the TK-12 mentor teacher. The quality and nature of the feedback supervisors provide to STs plays a fundamental and significant role in the growth and progress candidates make (or not) while in a credential program (Johnson, 2007; Kilminster & Jolly, 2000). Supervisors also play a vital role in translating program content and values to the TK-12 context. There is limited research to guide teacher education supervisors in adopting approaches and feedback models with STs in their clinical practice settings (Milne, Aylott, Fitzpatrick & Ellis, 2008). There is also little agreement on what constitutes good practice in fulfilling the supervisor role (Stimpson et al., 2000, p. 5). Many programs use some form of a gradual release model of student teaching where candidates take on more and more responsibility and teach more complex lessons and supervisors expect more and more of STs over the course of the clinical practice experience. Many programs include observation and evaluation tools that measure progress or mastery of a set of adopted performance standards at different points of the year. In California these standards are the Teaching Performance Expectations (TPEs).

It is often the case that supervisors base their practice largely on their own

experiences as former STs and teachers, or from observing lessons with other supervisors. Given their significant role in guiding new teachers, supervisors should receive adequate training that includes effective theory, research, and practice (Reiman & Thies-Sprinthall, 1988). In the few documented cases where the training that was provided to supervisors was examined there were statistically significant differences in the manner in which trained supervisors facilitated and managed their roles (Gürsoy et al., 2013). A strong and trusting relationship between supervisor and ST is at the forefront of available supervision frameworks (Stimpson et al., 2000). Another factor found to increase levels of student teacher performance is providing targeted feedback that is directly related to observed teaching practice that is rooted in theory and supported by university course work (Kilminster and Jolly, 2000).

Some of the features identified in prior research for effective feedback include that it should be: individualized, specific and focused, objective and nonjudgmental, having a positive tone and a sensitive manner, regular and ongoing, consistent, timely, providing an opportunity for the recipient to respond, reflect and contribute (Drago-Severson and Blum-DeStefano, 1987; Galea, 2012; Zeichner and Liston, 1987). Building a trusting relationship between the university supervisor and STs has also been found to be at the foundation of creating the context for feedback to result in growth and progress (McBride & Skau, 1995).

It is important to examine evidence related to the effectiveness of supervision in guiding clinical practice and consider what is being done to address areas where current practices may be ineffective and/or successful in instilling the underlying principles and guiding values of the preparatory program. With an increased emphasis on accountability and using evidence to inform program improvement, teacher preparatory programs are being challenged to contextualize and unpack clinical teaching and supervision experiences (Hollins, 2015). A common issue and problem in clinical teacher education is uneven mentoring and the under-resourcing of clinical experiences (Zeichner and Bier, 2015). In addition, it is the case that very little preparation and support is provided for program supervisors (Grossman, 2010; Hamel & Jaasko-Fisher, 2001; Valencia, Martin, Place, & Grossman, 2009). The work of the STENT Grant is to make clinical experiences a more central aspect of teacher education and examine ways to support program supervisors as appropriate based on the evidence we gather across our programs.

### **Research Design**

In 2018 we launched The Student Teacher Evaluation Network Team (STENT) made up of faculty, supervisors, and administrators from eight UCs with the purpose of developing student teaching evaluation protocols to conform to a recent state mandate (CCTC, 2017). Our work was guided by a network improvement community (NIC) process (Bryk, Gomez, Grunow & LeMahieu, 2017) to examine current supervision practices and identify common challenges. As part of the

*Building a Community of Supervisors for Equity and Justice*

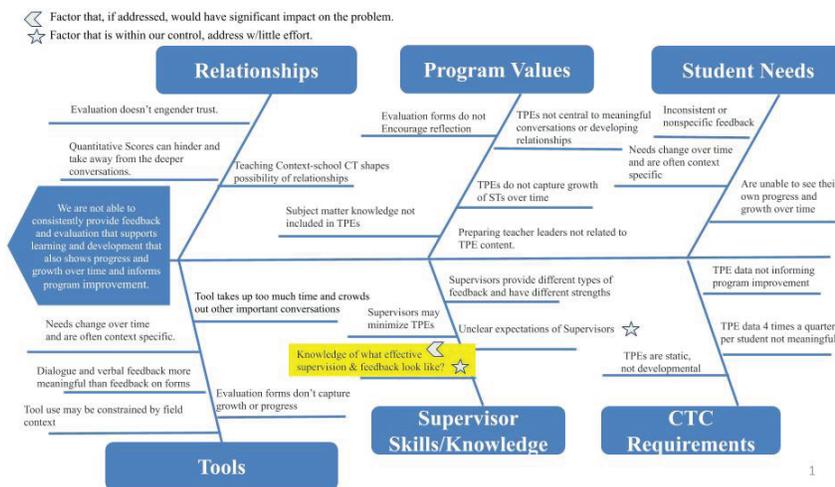
improvement science process STENT created a driver diagram to consider what factors contribute to ongoing challenges in our TEPs related to supervision (see Figure 1). The common problem of practice our team identified was inconsistent and incoherent support and guidance for supervisors as well as unclear expectations for supervisors. Our change idea focused on examining current practices and developing a common set of resources, expectations, and professional growth tools to support supervisors across our programs.

**Data Collection and Analysis**

In order to gain a deeper understanding of what effective supervision and feedback to student teachers looks like STENT examined the current practices that guide supervision and then reviewed student teaching observation and evaluation protocols at each institution. STENT documented closely the procedures and protocols that guide supervision at each of our TEPs. In terms of context, across the University of California system there are approximately 100 supervisors working with approximately 900 STs. These supervisors have a wide range of experience from 1 year to 20 years and also work with anywhere from 2 STs to 14 STs. Table 1 describes some details about the supervisors represented in this project and how they work in the TEPs.

STENT conducted focus groups with student teachers (N=65) in year one. Analysis of the focus groups with student teachers led to the creation of the fishbone diagram (see Figure 1) as a crucial step in the NIC process. STENT determined that focusing on what effective supervision is and what supervisors might need to be

**Figure 1**  
**Fishbone Diagram Generated During the 2018 Summer STENT Retreat**



effective had the potential to make the largest impact on TEP improvement. STENT decided that it was important to conduct focus groups with supervisors (N=45) as a first step in this process (please see the following CTERIN Research Brief that dives into more depth on this part of our work). We also surveyed all supervisors in our programs (N=79). Supervisor focus groups were transcribed and two cycles of coding was completed. The first cycle of coding consisted of assigning data chunks based on regularities or patterns. The second cycle of coding included condensing the large amounts of data down into smaller analytic units, laying the groundwork for cross-case analysis by surfacing common themes and directional processes.

The focus group and survey data were reviewed in depth and analyzed by the NIC during an in person summer meeting. A summary of findings from the surveys and focus groups can be found in the following research brief:

<https://cterin.ucop.edu/resources/publications/focusvol1no4.html>

Themes emerged from the data that clearly identified a need for ongoing and formalized opportunities for supervisors to collaborate and receive professional development. Members of the NIC reviewed research on supervision practices and completed a literature review. The data from the focus groups and surveys was shared with deans and directors from across our TEPs and also disseminated to all supervisors and TE faculty. We determined that it would be valuable to organize a summer conference for supervisors to collaborate and share ideas. In the midst of this effort, the context for supervision changed drastically, and supervisors had to develop new approaches to handle virtual supervision. In addition, some supervisors were just beginning to grapple with how to bring a social justice lens to their observations, and were eager to learn from their colleagues how best to do this.

**Table 1**  
**Breakdown of Supervisors Sampled from the Eight UC Campuses**  
**Participating in the STENT Research Project**

Campus	Supervisors Sampled	Role in TEP Besides Supervision			# of Candidates Supervising			# of Years Supervising			Years of K-12 Experience			Role Prior to Supervision		
		L/F <sup>a</sup>	GS <sup>b</sup>	None <sup>c</sup>	1-3	4-10	11+	0-3	4-10	11+	1-3	4-10	11+	T <sup>d</sup>	Admin.	Other <sup>e</sup>
UCB	4	3	1		1	3		2	2		1	1	2	3		1
UCD	21	8	2	11	9	10	2	7	9	6	8	13		14	3	4
UCI	13	4	9		3	9	1	6	5	2		1	12	9	3	1
UCLA	18	13	1	4	2	2	14	5	5	8	4	9	5	7		11
UCR	6	3	3		2	4		3	2	1		6		2	4	
UCSD	7	7			6	1		2	1	4		7		6		1
UCSB	7	7			7			2	2	3		2	5	6		1
UCSC	2	2			2			1	1			2		1		1

<sup>a</sup> Lecturer or faculty member of TEP

<sup>b</sup> Graduate student of TEP

<sup>c</sup> Only role in the TEP is supervision

<sup>d</sup> K-12 teacher

<sup>e</sup> Non-teaching and administrative position in K-12 education

### **Findings**

The findings from the survey focus groups and surveys resulted in STENT organizing a virtual conference across our TEP network with over 75 supervisors, faculty and program directors. The focus of the conference was establishing a community of supervisors to support equity and social justice. We created an interest survey prior to the conference, asking supervisors about topics they were interested in learning more about and if they would be interested in presenting. The topics were predetermined based on the information gathered from the surveys and focus groups. Supervisors (N=83) indicated they were interested in learning more about:

- Supervision in a distance learning context (75)
- Race conscious classrooms (62)
- Supporting social justice oriented practices (58)
- Video observations (49)
- Rethinking supervision (45)
- Universal design for learning (40)
- Rethinking fieldwork (37)

The two day conference included Keynote speakers as well as 14 conference sessions (panels and presentations) that were designed by supervisors for supervisors. Surveys were administered at the end of each day of the conference to understand what supervisors found valuable and what suggestions they had for improvement. In addition, in the months following the summer conference TEP supervisors, program directors and faculty reported to STENT that the impact of participating in the conference was overwhelmingly positive. Supervisors described how valuable it was to come together as a community to discuss ways to address the myriad challenges TEPs are facing in the current context. All resources shared during the virtual conference can be found on the CTERIN web page under the resources tab. The following paragraphs will highlight common challenges, successes and shifts in thinking and approaches to supervision that address equity and social justice.

### **Key Takeaways from the Conference**

An important aspect of the conference was dedicated time at the end of each day for supervisors from each participating TEP to come together and discuss what they learned and what steps they might take to implement the ideas and approaches they had heard about. These collaborative meetings generated action plans that supervisors shared with STENT. We also reached out to TEPs more recently to see what ongoing changes had been made in their programs related to the resources and materials shared at the conference.

One of the most relevant takeaways from the conference that supervisors reported in post-conference surveys was a renewed sense of pride and energy for the work they do as supervisors. Supervisors described the impact of coming together

and collaborating with other supervisors from across the state. Several exemplar quotes are listed below:

*I loved the chance to hear from other programs and to be able to hear about their perspectives for best practice.*

*As invaluable as the first (day). So much to digest and work with. But nothing felt unimportant. It all felt essential. Makes me wonder how we dared to try this work without thinking with these people all along. Thank you.*

*I enjoyed this conference as both a panelist and participant. I look forward to additional opportunities to improve my practice and continue to develop as a field supervisor. I am a leader for anti-racist education and look forward to upcoming sessions and panels.*

Another take away from the conference that supervisors mentioned frequently in the post-conference survey was the desire for ongoing professional development. The conference was the first ever cross-program opportunity for supervisors to collaborate and share ideas. Supervisors also reported that participating in the conference made them feel valued and recognized for the work they are doing to support STs. Several examples of supervisor comments related to the impact of the conference can be found below:

*I have been a supervisor since 2013, and there has never been anything like this. I have always felt like supervisors were viewed as less important in terms of budget, say, and professional development experiences, but this was a great way of feeling more valued.*

*Today was super powerful. After talking about issues of race and distance learning for the past few months within our university staff it felt so good to bring other voices, perspectives and practices into our conversation. This is vital, we need more of it.*

*Overall, incredibly inspirational and reassuring. I'm so proud to be part of this community of educators. Brilliant people wholly committed to our profession. Sensitive, optimistic, well informed. Extremely valuable day.*

### **Impacts on Theory and Practice**

Supervisors from across TEPs also reported impacts to both their theory and practice. For example, in one of the participating TEPs, supervisors reported that the summer conference reinforced their program's vision for social justice, anti-racist teaching, critical pedagogy and culturally responsive pedagogy. Following the conference supervisors re-examined not just their approaches to observing and providing feedback to STs but also their curriculum to foreground anti-racist teaching practices and culturally relevant content. Many supervisors described how the conference re-energized their commitment to issues of equity and social justice. For example, one supervisor described her renewed effort to educate herself on anti-racist classroom practices and how to support STs to promote these practices.

### *Building a Community of Supervisors for Equity and Justice*

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Another impact was that supervisors reported placing more of a focus on addressing student identities and honoring the lived experiences of STs, as well as strengthening the ways TEPs integrated school and community contexts. For example, one TEP reported specific changes to their Bilingual and Music Cohorts. In the bilingual cohort there was an increase in critically reflective conversations, and expanded implementation of culturally relevant pedagogy. In the music cohort there was an active and conscious decentering on Western Classical music and the implementation of an observation protocol that provided space for STs and supervisors to co-construct solutions to problems of practice.

Cross program collaboration was another major result of the conference. We have examples of supervisors from different institutions sharing and adopting methods and practices. For example, supervisors from one TEP attended a session at the conference on how to use an interactive fieldwork journal with STs. The journal approach places an emphasis on a developmental continuum of teaching practice. Supervisors at one of the TEPs decided to adopt this new approach and use it during distance learning observations. These supervisors shared with us how this shift in the way they were providing feedback to their STs resulted in richer conversations and a deeper focus on growth over time. This new approach also shifted observations from supervisor-directed to ST-directed. Another outcome of the conference is that one of the TEPs is creating a repository of resources for supervisors from across our TEPs.

We plan to continue providing ongoing support to supervisors for the important work they do to support STs. We hope to continue to grow our NIC, by incorporating CSUs and other interested parties, as well as, inviting doctoral candidates interested in teacher education to join and in order provide them with mentorship into the practice of supervision. The NIC will continue to host annual conferences for UC supervisors, conduct research on different models of supervision and facilitate collaborative discussions and professional dialogue related to the practice of supervision and preparation of teachers.

### **Conclusion**

Supervisors identified a desire to collaborate with other supervisors regularly in order to share knowledge and learn. This study, which involved collaboration with supervisors from across our programs, was a first step in this direction. Our findings informed program improvement efforts that were tailored to each of our TEPs. Our findings also encouraged us to extend our work beyond this study and organize a statewide University of California supervisors conference. We plan to continue to advocate for and provide space for statewide and national collaborations amongst supervisors to build on the success of this initial gathering and develop a professional learning community of supervisors from across TEPs.

### **Acknowledgement**

This work was made possible by the collaborative efforts of our fellow STENT members (alphabetically listed): Heather Ballinger (Humboldt State University), JerMara Davis-Welch (University of California, Riverside), Cheryl Forbes (University of California, San Diego), Victoria Harvey (University of California, Santa Barbara), Soleste Hilberg (University of California, Santa Cruz), Emma Hipolito (University of California, Los Angeles), Jane Kim (University of California, Los Angeles), Virginia Panish (University of California, Irvine), Elisa Salasin (University of California, Berkeley), Johnnie Wilson (University of California, Santa Cruz), and Evelyn Young (University of California, Irvine) and by the funding and support of the California Teacher Education Research and Improvement Network (CTERIN). A special thank you to Tine Sloan for her support of this work. In addition, we want to thank Rebecca Ambrose for her ongoing contributions to this work.

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## **Building a Community of Supervisors for Equity and Justice**

**By Lisa Sullivan & Kayce Mastrup**

This presentation was part of the research roundtable session at the CCTE Spring 2021 SPAN Virtual Conference on March 5. The power point slides for the presentation appear on the following pages.

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## Building a Community of Supervisors for Equity and Justice

### Building a Community of Supervisors for Equity and Justice

*A discussion of the benefits of having supervisors collaborate and learn together to address issues of equity and social justice.*

Presenters:  
Lisa Sullivan, UC Davis  
Kayce Mastrop, UC Santa Barbara/Davis



UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA



## What is CTERIN?

### Aim 1 Developing a Statewide Data System

Merging California's disconnected data sources to study recruitment, retention, and pathways to the teaching profession.

Working with a wide range of stakeholders to conduct research that informs the policy questions stakeholders are asking.

### Aim Two Informing State Policy

### Aim Three Researching Teacher Education Practice

Utilizing an improvement science approach to understand and address teacher education practice that leads to effective teaching.

Building a system-wide program to better prepare doctoral scholars for the work of teacher education.

### Aim Four Educating Teacher Educators

# Phases of our Work

-  Gathered together across our Teacher Education Program
-  Used a Networked Improvement Community approach to determine common problem of practice
-  Collected data from focus groups with student teachers and supervisors and surveyed all supervisors
-  Brought supervisors together from across our programs for a virtual conference - provided small stipends
-  Programmatic change: implementation of learnings

# Tensions within Pre-service teacher education



Supervisors (n=86) indicated they were interested in learning more about the following topics

- Supporting social justice-oriented practices
- Race conscious classrooms
- Supervision in a distance learning context
- Rethinking supervision
- Rethinking fieldwork
- Universal design for learning
- Video observations

## Virtual Conference - Summer 2020

- Two Day Conference
- Theme: Building a Community of Supervisors for Equity and Social Justice
- Keynote Speakers: Tyrone Howard (UCLA) & Rita Kohli (UCR)
- Presentations and Panels by Supervisors (14 sessions)
- Over 75 supervisors in attendance + teacher education directors and faculty
- [CTERIN website with conference resources](https://cterin.ucop.edu)
- <https://cterin.ucop.edu>

## Informing Practice

What are some key takeaways from the conference?

What changes have been made in individual's practice or at the program level following the conference?

Next steps?



### Key Takeaways From Conference



#### Theory

- Reinforced program's vision for social justice
- Anti-racist teaching.
- Critical Pedagogy.
- Culturally Responsive Pedagogy.

#### Practice

- Affirmed supervision in fieldwork
- Addressing student identities.
- Honoring lived experiences.
- Integrating school - community.



### Changes in Practice or Program

#### Bilingual Cohort

- Implemented Observation Protocol
- Engage in critically reflective conversations.
- Process of understanding the problem.
- Co-construct solutions to problems of practice.

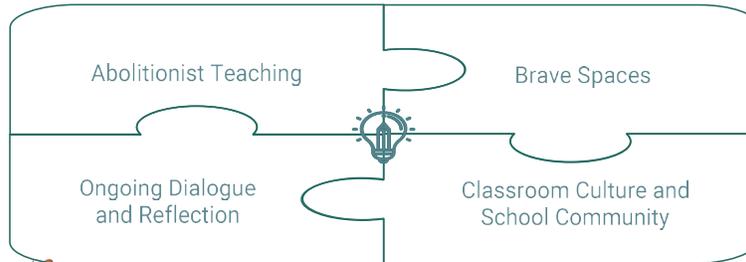


#### Music Cohort

- Implemented Culturally Relevant Pedagogy
- Reimagined curriculum reflective of cultural, ethnic, and racial identities of students.
- Decentered Western Classical music.

### Next Steps

#### Continuing Transformative Practices In



Jane Kim, UCLA

## Changes and Next Steps



Work to reorganize teacher work in the field- mentor teacher clusters, student teacher clusters



Focus on shared tools - a developmental continuum of teaching practice



Building a repository of resources for supervision to be shared across campuses



Developed approaches to supervision for remote teaching

Johnnie Wilson, UCSC

## Cross Program Collaboration

Supervisors from UC Santa Barbara who attended Johnnie Wilson's presentation adopted this interactive fieldwork journal approach.

Here is what they report about this change:

- *"I have found that the IFJ allows me to be more in tune with my TCs experiences, wonderings and processes throughout their placement."*
- *"The tool has shifted observation debriefs from Supervisor-directed to TC-directed."*
- *"TCs are also asked to reflect on any challenges or changes they made in the teaching segment. They also are prompted to tell how the adjustments they may have made improved student learning."*

## In Summary

### Benefits supervisors reported

- Collaborative discussions and professional dialogue related to supervision
- Knowledge and expertise of supervisor colleagues
- Energized them for the complex and challenging work of supervision in a distance learning context
- Seeing themselves as part of a larger community
- *"First, I want you to know that attending this two-day conference was the best possible way to begin a year that holds unprecedented challenges. I was inspired, proud to be part of this effort, and invigorated to keep learning and stretching my skills."*
- *"The information about paying attention to the racial climate hit home with me. I've embarked on a commitment to learning all I can and have read White Fragility twice and several other books, as well. I'm humbled by what I'm learning and feel excited that these issues are helping me view current events with a clearer perspective."*

## Next Steps

### Professionalization of the Practice of Supervision

- Growing the NIC
- Pulling in doctoral candidates interested in Teacher Education – mentoring into practice of supervision
- Supervisor webpage
- Annual summer conference
- Webinars & working groups centered around practice



## Questions/Comments

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- Thank you to the Center for Teacher Education Research and Improvement Network (CTERIN) for funding this work.
- Thank you to all of our teacher educator colleagues across the University of California System.
- Additional Information:

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## **Building Continuous Improvement Capacity in Teacher Preparation**

**By Marquita Grenot-Scheyer & Melissa Eiler White**

This presentation was part of the research roundtable session at the CCTE Spring 2021 SPAN Virtual Conference on March 5. The power point slides for the presentation appear on the following pages.

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**Building Continuous Improvement Capacity in  
Teacher Preparation**

Marquita Grenot-Scheyer, Assistant Vice Chancellor, Educator Preparation and  
Public School Programs, CSU  
Melissa Eiler White, Project Director, WestEd  
SPAN Conference  
March 5, 2021



**NGEI Background**

## New Generation of Educators Initiative

- **Vision:** to increase the number of teachers who enter the profession well-prepared to deliver instruction aligned to the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) and the Next Generation Science Standards (NGSS).
- **Strategy:** Support for clinically oriented reforms and continuous improvement in one of the biggest teacher preparation systems in the country.



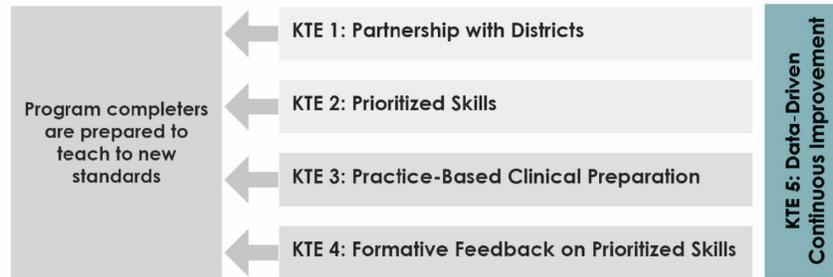
## Core principles, or “key transformational elements” of NGEI

- Forming deep partnerships between CSU campuses and their partner school districts.
- Collaboratively defining a set of prioritized skills that teachers must master.
- Ensuring practice-based clinical preparation supported by high-quality mentors.
- Formative feedback provided to candidates centered on prioritized skills.
- Using data to drive continuous improvement.



## Theory of Action

Figure 1. Theory of Action of the New Generation of Educators Initiative



**Strategy 1: Develop data sources that can inform improvement efforts**

NGEI focused on developing data sources for both

- **Outcome measures:** to what extent are programs producing valued outcomes?
- And **process measures:** how well are the underlying processes that drive these outcomes working?

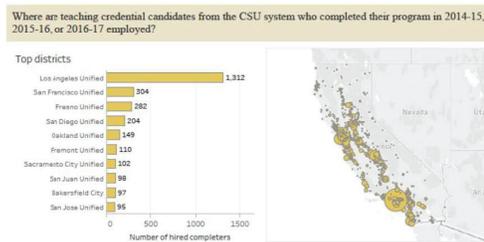


**Strategy 1: Develop Data Sources That Can Inform Improvement Efforts**

The EdQ Center worked to improve access to outcome measures:

- *Are teachers prepared with key skills on day one?* → EdQ survey dashboards
- *Are completers employed and retained in partner districts?* → Linking EdQ data with employment records

*An example of a visualization from the CSU employment report, developed by the EdQ Center:*



### Strategy 1: Develop Data Sources That Can Inform Improvement Efforts

- NGEI partnerships worked to develop data sources close to processes to be improved
- Classroom observation rubric ratings of candidates were a key process measure

*The rubric data was "instrumental to the partnership."*

*- Department chair who oversaw transformational NGEI reforms to her program.*



### NGEI Prioritized Skills & Observation Rubrics

- To ground their programs in prioritized skills, NGEI partnerships selected a **limited set** of observable skills, or competencies
- Worked to build buy-in among relevant stakeholders, including campus faculty and supervisors & district staff
- NGEI partnerships selected or created classroom observation rubrics that were intended to be:
  - Well-aligned to the prioritized skills
  - Reliable and valid measures of candidates' mastery of skills



## *Building Continuous Improvement Capacity in Teacher Preparation*

### NGEI Prioritized Skills & Observation Rubrics

Campus	Classroom Observation Rubric
CSU Bakersfield	Adapted from the Danielson Framework for Teaching
Chico State	Adapted from the TNTF Core Teaching Rubric
Fresno State	Partnership-developed Continuum of Reflective, Engaging, and Accessible Teaching (CREATE) rubric
CSU Fullerton	Mathematics Classroom Observation Protocol for Practices (MCOP2)
Cal State Long Beach	Partnership-developed rubric, based on the California Teaching Performance Expectations (TPE) and California Standards for the Teaching Profession (CSTP)
CSU Monterey Bay	Partnership-developed STEM prioritized skills rubric, which measures high-quality STEM instructional "moves"
Sacramento State	Partnership-developed rubric, derived from the California Teaching Performance Expectations (TPE), and a district tool aligned to the Common Core State Math Standards (CCSS-M) and used in classroom observation
Cal Poly San Luis Obispo	Clinical Observation Rubric (called the School of Education Observation Tool), inspired by the Danielson Framework for Teaching
Stanislaus State	5D+ Dimensions of Teaching and Learning



### NGEI Prioritized Skills & Observation Rubrics

Role of the Rubric Data	Questions
Informing direct support to candidates	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Are individual candidates progressing as expected?</li> <li>Is the cohort as a whole progressing as expected? Where is the cohort struggling?</li> </ul>
Guiding programmatic changes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>How should we adapt our coursework next semester/year? What prioritized skills should we make a programmatic focus?</li> </ul>
Ensuring observation frequency and quality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Are observations taking place at the desired frequency?</li> <li>Are observer ratings calibrated?</li> </ul>

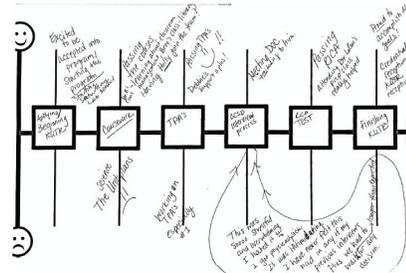


### Continuous Improvement Strategy 1: Develop Data Sources That Can Inform Improvement Efforts

- Some campuses developed **additional data sources to complement observation data**, like candidate surveys or journey maps

"[candidates' perspectives are] giving us a lot of the insight we need to understand other pieces of data, like the signature assignment data or the observation data, and to understand the systems around [the data sources]."

-NGEI program lead



A candidate "journey map" from CSU Bakersfield

### Continuous Improvement Strategy 2: Delineate Clear Roles to Support Continuous Improvement

- NGEI partnerships were required to designate a **"Continuous Improvement Lead"** role
- **Designated people who were responsible for driving the work** allowed many NGEI campuses to use data more efficiently and effectively
- Partnerships also **leveraged other data support roles** to collaborate with the Continuous Improvement Lead



## *Building Continuous Improvement Capacity in Teacher Preparation*

### Strategy 3: Build an infrastructure for efficient data entry and analysis

- Many NGEI partnerships made efforts to develop and streamline **processes for data entry and analysis**
- And to make that data **accessible and analyzable**



### Strategy 3: Build an infrastructure for efficient data entry and analysis

An example of **automated visualizations** of observation data from CSU Chico:

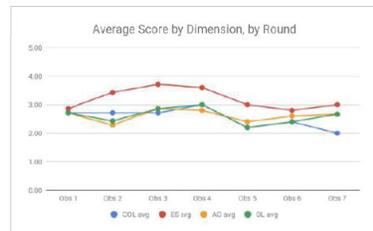
Table showing the average score across a cohort by dimension and observation round

	COL avg	ES avg	AO avg	DL avg	N
Obs 1	2.71	2.86	2.71	2.71	8
Obs 2	2.71	3.43	2.29	2.43	8
Obs 3	2.71	3.71	2.86	2.86	7
Obs 4	3.00	3.60	2.80	3.00	6
Obs 5	2.20	3.00	2.40	2.20	5
Obs 6	2.40	2.80	2.60	2.40	5
Obs 7	2.00	3.00	2.67	2.67	3
<b>Average</b>	<b>2.59</b>	<b>3.23</b>	<b>2.62</b>	<b>2.62</b>	

Source: CSU Chico



Run chart showing scores by dimension and by observation round



Source: CSU Chico

#### Strategy 4: Establish a Culture of Improvement Through Routines for Data Review and Use

Routines for data review and use were effective when they:

- Included **multiple stakeholders**
- Were **timed to align with opportunities** for program improvement
- Incorporated **structured data conversations** centered around program improvement and decision making

*"We are working on building a culture of analyzing the data without guiltting each other, instead using the information for improvement over time. People who didn't really have that model before might feel like this is evaluative or assessing them. Rather, it's 'let's learn and improve.'"*

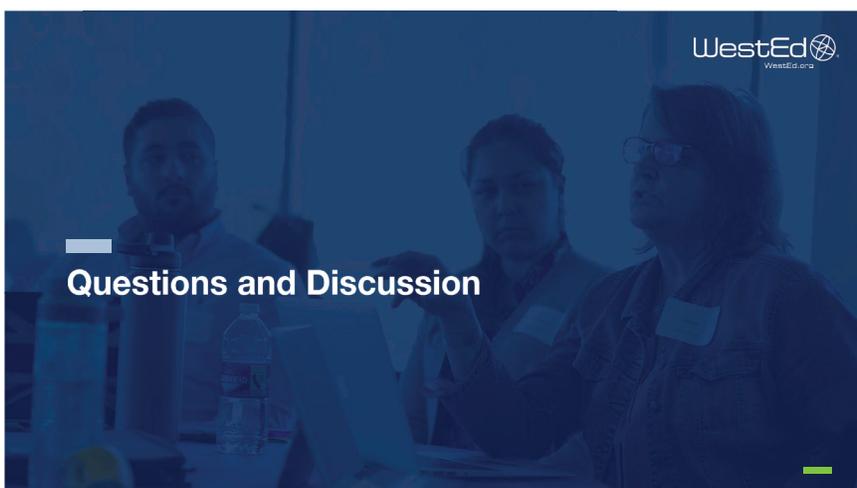
*-NGEI Continuous Improvement Lead*



#### Recommendations: Strengthening the Data and Continuous Improvement Capacity of Teacher Preparation Programs

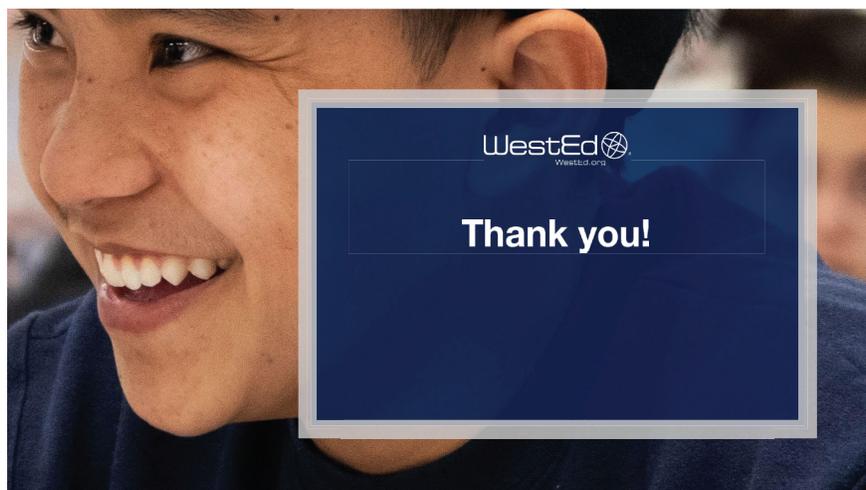
1. Build upon the **emerging system of measures** to support continuous improvement in teacher preparation
2. Foster a **culture of trust** and teamwork
3. **Dedicate human resources** to lead continuous improvement efforts
4. **Distribute the work** of data collection, analysis and review
5. Strive to ensure that **data routines become institutionalized** norms





*Marquita Grenot-Scheyer & Melissa Eiler White*

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## **Chancellor's Office Learning Lab for Improvement**

**By Paul Tuss, Ginger Simon, & Sarah Kolbe**

This presentation was part of the research roundtable session at the CCTE Spring 2021 SPAN Virtual Conference on March 5. The power point slides for the presentation appear on the following pages.

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*Paul Tuss is director, Ginger Simon is educator preparation data coach, and Sarah Kolbe is educator preparation data scientist, all with the Educator Quality Center of the California State University Office of the Chancellor, Sacramento, California. Email addresses: [ptuss@calstate.edu](mailto:ptuss@calstate.edu), [gsimon@calstate.edu](mailto:gsimon@calstate.edu), & [skolbe@calstate.edu](mailto:skolbe@calstate.edu)*

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*Paul Tuss, Ginger Simon, & Sarah Kolbe*

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**Educator Quality Center**

## Chancellor's Office Learning Lab for Improvement

Closing the Diversity Gap in the CSU Teacher Pipeline

SPAN Conference Roundtable  
March 5, 2021

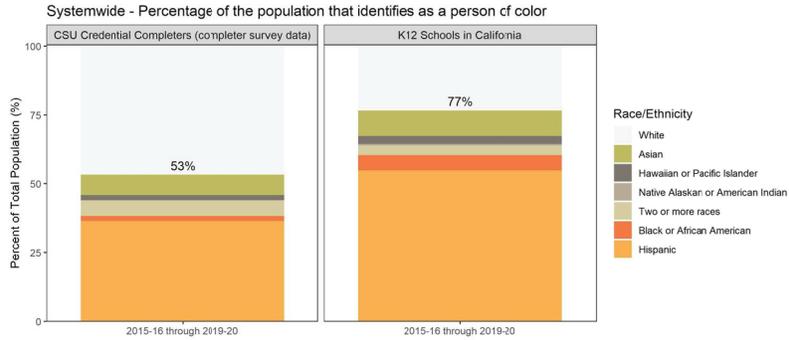
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The Educator Quality Center: Helping the CSU prepare better teachers through data-informed, values-driven improvement

2

## The Diversity Gap



## Supporting a System-wide Goal

*...to increase the diversity of CSU credential program completers to better reflect the communities they serve.*

*Paul Tuss, Ginger Simon, & Sarah Kolbe*

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## Learning Lab to Close the Teacher Diversity Gap



### A Networked Improvement Community:

Deliberately **coordinated** collective **learning** towards achievement of a common **aim**, disciplined by the rigor of **Improvement science**.

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### The Hub Support Team



Paul  
Tuss  
EdQ



Ginger  
Simon  
EdQ



Sarah  
Kolbe  
EdQ



Melissa  
White  
WestEd

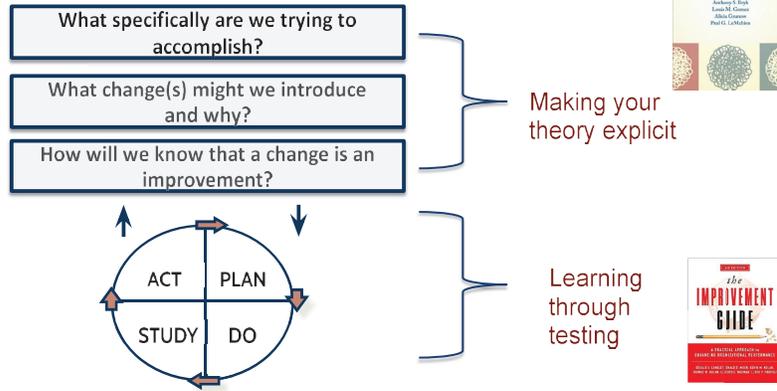


Emma  
Parkerson  
Carnegie

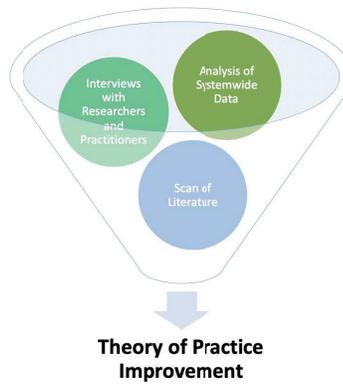


Corey  
Donahue  
WestEd

Model for Improvement



Scan of the Field



## Barriers to the Profession

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Attracting and retaining candidates of color in teacher prep programs proves challenging when:

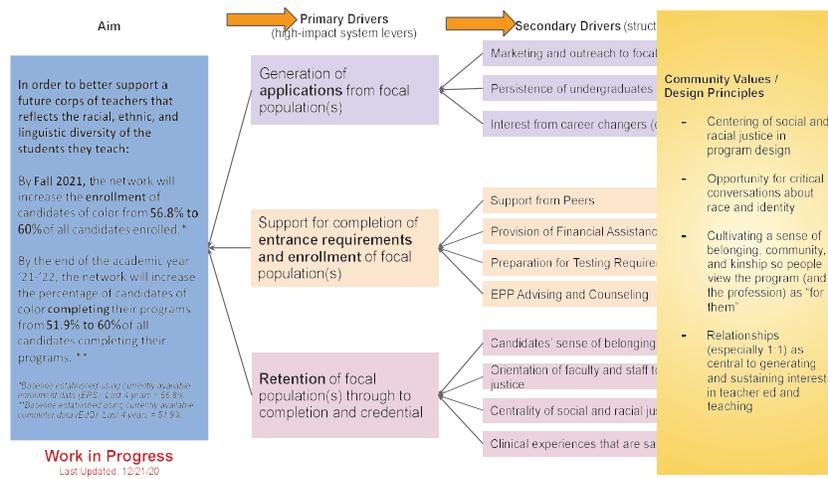
1. They don't see themselves represented in the profession
2. The profession is perceived as high-cost and low-reward
3. The process of getting into a program is perceived as confusing, expensive, complicated and onerous
4. Completing a program requires loss of income-generating opportunities
5. Curriculum and programming of SOEs does not reflect the values of social and racial justice.

## Campus Activities/Tests

---

- ★ **Cal State Bakersfield**
  - Focusing on recruitment of Black male teachers
  - Testing targeted social media campaigns and affinity group for Black males "Rise and Shine" website.
- ★ **Fresno State**
  - Focusing on generating early interest and recruitment of bilingual educators
  - Testing virtual and social media events to generate early interest
  - Creating community through "Platicas"
- ★ **Cal Poly SLO**
  - Focusing on cultivating early interest and recruitment of Black and Latinx candidates
  - Testing targeted outreach (virtual and social media) programs, partnerships with undergrad student clubs and community colleges ("Racial Equity and Social Justice in the Classroom" webinar)
- ★ **Cal State Northridge**
  - Focusing on recruitment of Black and Latinx candidates
  - Testing high-touch follow up to those attending information sessions, partnership with undergrad Black student group and Africaner Studies dept, & promotional activities ("Teaching Inspires" Conference)
- ★ **Humboldt State**
  - Focusing on recruitment of Black and Latinx candidates
  - Audited all communications and application materials with a DEI lens
  - Tested outreach to undergraduate pathway programs & promotional activities

## Chancellor's Office Learning Lab for Improvement



Thank you for your time!

**CSU The California State University The Educator Quality Center Team**

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# **How Teacher Residencies Can Help Address California's Teacher Shortages & Sustainable Strategies for Funding Them**

**By Cathy Yun**

This presentation was part of the research roundtable session at the CCTE Spring 2021 SPAN Virtual Conference on March 5. The power point slides for the presentation appear on the following pages.

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*Cathy Yun is a senior researcher at the Learning Policy Institute, Palo Alto, California. Email address: [cyun@learningpolicyinstitute.org](mailto:cyun@learningpolicyinstitute.org)*

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# How Teacher Residencies Can Help Address CA's Teacher Shortages

&

Sustainable Strategies for Funding Them



Cathy Yun  
3/5/21

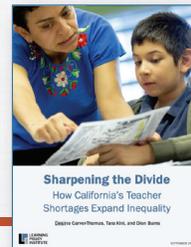
## Acknowledgements

- ▷ Karen DeMoes, coauthor
- ▷ Interviewees & residency programs
- ▷ Prepared To Teach
- ▷ Learning Policy Institute
- ▷ External reviewers
- ▷ Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation
- ▷ S.D. Bechtel, Jr. Foundation
- ▷ Carnegie Corporation of New York
- ▷ W. Clement and Jessie V. Stone Foundation
- ▷ Helsing-Simons Foundation
- ▷ Raikes Foundation
- ▷ Sandler Foundation
- ▷ William and Flora Hewlett Foundation
- ▷ Margaret A. Cargill Philanthropies

# Overview

1. Teacher shortages throughout the state exacerbate inequities across and within districts
2. Teacher residencies have unique characteristics that can help address shortages in districts most impacted
3. State funding can help launch or expand residencies, which can incorporate sustainable funding strategies

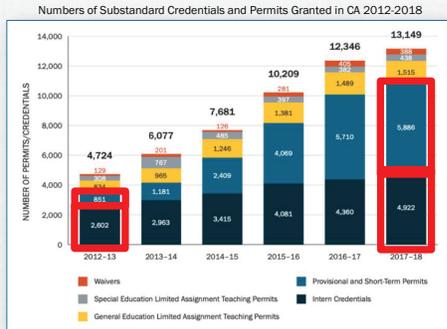
## Teacher Shortages and District Inequities



See LPI interactive: [Understanding Teacher Shortages in CA](#)  
See LPI report: [Sharpening the Divide: How California's Teacher Shortages Expand Inequality](#)

## How Teacher Residencies Can Help Address Teacher Shortages

### Teacher Shortages Have Worsened Since 2012



- ▷ Substandard credentials and permits **tripled** between 2012 and 2018 (from 4,724 to 13,149)
- ▷ Intern credentials have almost **doubled** (from 2,602 to 4,922)
- ▷ Emergency style permits have increased **7 times** (from 851 to 5,886)

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See LPI report: [California Teachers and COVID-19](#)  
See LPI interactive: [Understanding Teacher Shortages in CA](#)

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### Shortages Exacerbate Existing Inequities

Both across and within districts, communities serving more students from low-income families have:

- ▷ Higher attrition and turnover rates
- ▷ More teachers on substandard credentials and permits

See LPI report: [Sharpening the Divide: How California's Teacher Shortages Impact Equity](#)  
See LPI interactive: [What's the Cost of Teacher Turnover?](#)  
See LPI report: [California's Positive Outliers: Districts Beating the Odds](#)

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## Shortages Exacerbate Existing Inequities

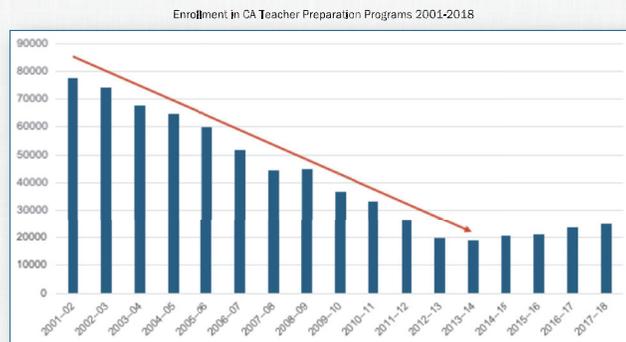
Both across and within districts, communities serving more students from low-income families have:

- ▷ Higher attrition and turnover rates
- ▷ More teachers on substandard credentials and permits
- ▷ Financial burdens (average estimates to replace 1 teacher range from \$9,000 in a rural district to over \$20,000 in an urban district)
- ▷ Impacts on student learning (with more pronounced effects for students who are Black or Latino/a)



See LPI report: [Sharpening the Divide: How California's Teacher Shortages Exacerbate Inequity](#)  
See LPI interactive: [What's the Cost of Teacher Turnover?](#)  
See LPI report: [California's Positive Outliers: Districts Beating the Odds](#)

## Teacher Preparation Enrollment Has Declined



## Shortages Exacerbate Existing Inequities

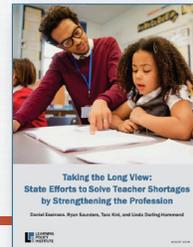
Teacher shortages,  
especially in high-  
need areas

Revolving door of  
underqualified  
teachers

Low enrollment in  
teacher prep  
programs

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## Teacher Residencies Can Help Address Shortages

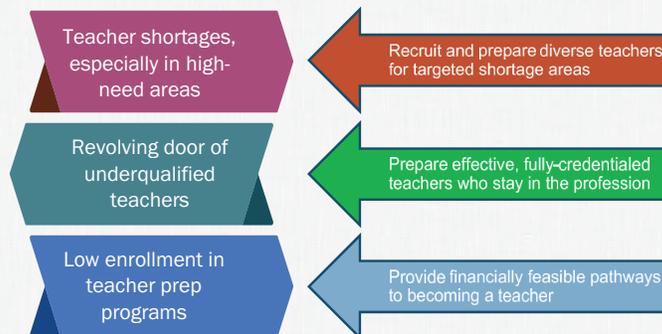
See LPI report: [Taking the Long View: State Efforts to Solve Teacher Shortages](#)



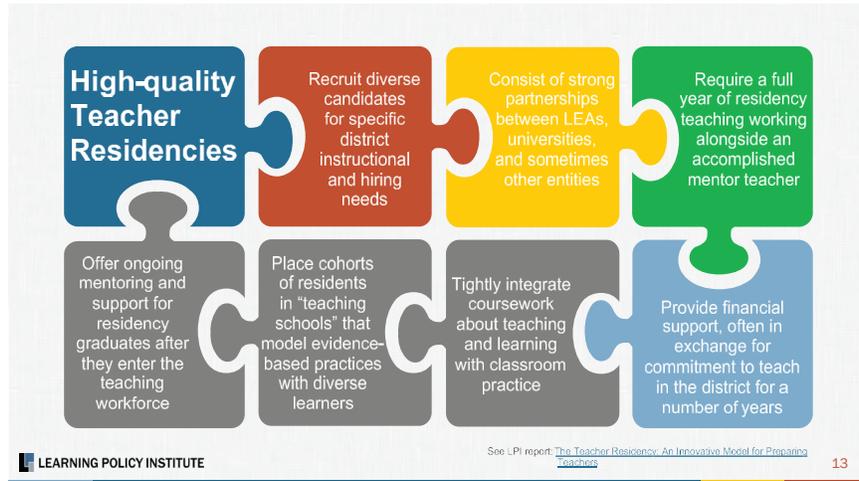
*Some of those state grant programs have been a real help to us: the residency program [and] the local solutions grant program. Both of those programs have helped us tremendously in terms of being able to create pipelines for fully credentialed teachers to join our workforce.*

Bryan Johnson, Director of Human Resources, LAUSD

## High-quality Residencies Can Help Address Shortages



## How Teacher Residencies Can Help Address Teacher Shortages



**Sustainable Strategies for Funding Teacher Residencies**  
Lessons From California

EdPrepLab

See EdPrepLab report: [Sustainable Strategies for Funding Teacher Residencies: Lessons From California](#)

## State Dollars Seed & Grow Residencies; Sustainable Funding Strategies Maintain Them

## Investing in California's Teacher Pipeline

Since 2016, CA has invested about \$300 million in teacher pipeline programs that can help fund residencies:

- ▷ Classified Staff Teacher Training Program
- ▷ Integrated Undergraduate Teacher Preparation Program
- ▷ Golden State Teacher Grant Program
- ▷ **California Teacher Residency Grant Program**

## The 3 R's for Building Sustainable Residencies



Existing resources and roles to support the residency



Costs for tuition, materials, and wrap-around services



Savings from reduced turnover back into the residency

*How Teacher Residencies Can Help Address Teacher Shortages*

**Highlighting Residencies with Sustainable Funding Strategies**

Program	Year Launched	Program Emphasis	Resident Pay	Other Supports
Fresno Teacher Residency Program	2013-14	Bilingual, Special education, STEM	\$11,500-\$15,000	Laptop; Sub pay
Humboldt County North Coast Residency Consortium	2019-20	Special education	\$18,000-\$25,000	Benefits; \$10,000 tuition; Testing fees; Summer school pay
Sanger Teachers and Residency Program	2016-17	Multiple Subject with some Bilingual education	\$3,600 (sub pay)	Laptop; \$4,000 tuition reduction
Kern Teacher Residency	2016-17	Culturally relevant practices	\$15,000-\$18,000	Benefits; Sub pay; \$3,000 conf travel
San Francisco Teacher Residency	2010-11	Bilingual education, STEM	\$15,000	Benefits; \$15,000-\$25,000 tuition; housing assistance; CalFresh groceries



Existing resources and roles to support the residency

▷ Reallocating Roles

- Residents as substitute teachers (e.g., Fresno)
- Paraeducator or instructional aide positions (e.g., Humboldt)

▷ Reallocating Other Resources

## Reallocating Paraeducators in Humboldt

- ▷ Recruit paraeducators already familiar with district and committed to the community
- ▷ Para-residents keep salary and benefits
- ▷ Para-residents work half day in classroom with special education mentor teacher
- ▷ Other half of day dedicated to para role in various contexts according to assignment (e.g., one-on-one support)



Existing resources  
and roles to support  
the residency

### ▷ Reallocating Roles

- Residents as substitute teachers (e.g., Fresno)
- Paraeducator or instructional aide positions (e.g., Humboldt)

### ▷ Reallocating Other Resources

- Budgets for tutoring or out-of-school programs
- Professional development dollars
- Federal work-study dollars
- Federal Title I, Title II, or IDEA dollars when residencies improve student outcomes

## Improving Student Achievement in the Fresno Teacher Residency

➔ **25 Residents**

➔ **+32 points in ELA**

➔ **+28 points in Math**



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Source Data: California Department of Education, (2018), California School Dashboard: School performance overview Wishon Elementary  
Available at <https://www.caschoolsdashboard.org/reports/10621666006589/2018>

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Costs for tuition,  
materials, and  
wrap-around services

### ▷ Reducing Costs for School

- Tuition reductions (e.g., Sanger)
- Scholarships and grants
- Open source materials
- Laptops

### ▷ Reducing Living Costs

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## Reducing Costs for Residents in Sanger

### Before Program Redesign

Summer	Fall	Spring
\$	\$\$	\$\$\$
5 courses	4 courses	2 courses

### After Program Redesign

Fall	Spring
\$	\$\$
2 year-long integrated courses	



Costs for tuition, materials, and wrap-around services

### ▶ Reducing Costs for School

- Tuition reductions (e.g., Sanger)
- Scholarships and grants
- Open source materials
- Laptops

### ▶ Reducing Living Costs

- Housing assistance (e.g., San Francisco)
- CalFresh, WIC assistance programs
- Childcare, transportation, health care

## How Teacher Residencies Can Help Address Teacher Shortages



Savings from reduced turnover back into the residency

### ▷ Reinvesting in the Residency

- Resident retention saves turnover costs (e.g., Bakersfield)
- District embedded preparation saves onboarding and professional development costs
- Effective teaching saves supplemental program costs



### Reinvesting in the Kern Urban Teacher Residency

- ▷ Turnover in urban district → \$20,000
- ▷ 85% retention rate → 17 out of 20
- ▷ 5th cohort since 2016

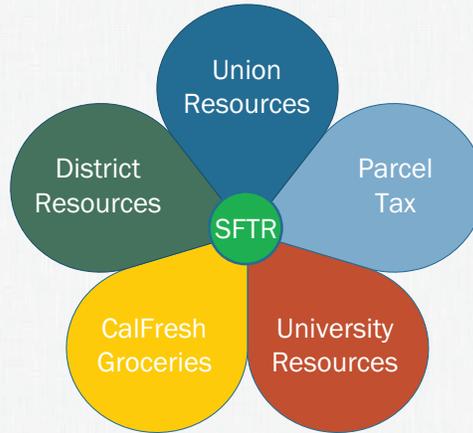
**\$ 1.2 Million**  
**Reinvested**

## Diversifying Funding Sources for Teacher Residencies



Source	Potential Contributions
District and School	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Recruitment funds</li> <li>Staffing lines</li> <li>School improvement dollars</li> <li>Professional development and teacher leadership dollars</li> <li>Local Control Funding Formula dollars</li> </ul>
University	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Tuition reduction and scholarships</li> <li>Work-study dollars</li> <li>Open educational resources</li> <li>Campus services</li> </ul>
Philanthropy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Startup funding</li> <li>Capacity building</li> </ul>
Union	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Professional development dollars</li> <li>Partnerships for national grant dollars</li> </ul>
Voter Support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>State and local tax dollars</li> </ul>
State	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>State teacher loan forgiveness and tuition assistance</li> <li>State teacher residency and pipeline grant programs</li> </ul>
Federal and Other	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Teacher loan forgiveness and scholarship programs</li> <li>Federal teacher preparation grants (Title II of HEA)</li> <li>Federal grants to HBCUs and MSIs (Titles III and V of HEA)</li> <li>Federal work-study (Title IV of HEA)</li> <li>ESSA Title I and Title II dollars</li> <li>AmeriCorps funding</li> <li>Workforce development dollars</li> <li>Apprenticeships or vocational subsidies</li> </ul>

## Diversifying Funding in the San Francisco Teacher Residency



# Conclusion

1. High-quality teacher residencies can help address shortages
2. There are many ways that programs can build in sustainable strategies
3. Sustainable residencies can help produce systemic change in the teacher pipeline

## Thank you!

Connect:  
[bit.ly/LPIupdates](https://bit.ly/LPIupdates)  
@LPI\_Learning

## Questions?

Cathy Yun  
Senior Researcher  
[cyun@learningpolicyinstitute.org](mailto:cyun@learningpolicyinstitute.org)



## Improving Student Achievement in the Fresno Teacher Residency

By Subgroup	ELA	Math
Students with Disabilities	2017: 119.5 below standard 2018: 67.4 below Increased 52.1 points	2017: 105.9 below 2018: 65 below Increased 41 points
Dual Language Learners	2017: 44.2 below 2018: 11.6 below Increased 32.5 points	2017: 44.6 below 2018: 14.1 below Increased 30.5 points
Students from low-income backgrounds	2017: 42.2 points below 2018: 9.4 points below Increase 32.8 points	2017: 41.6 below 2018: 14 below Increased 27.6 points
Hispanic	2017: 39.6 points below 2018: 4.1 below Increased 35.5 points	2017: 41.7 below 2018: 12.6 below Increased 29.1 points
Asian	2017: 26.5 below 2018: 5.5 above Increased 32 points	2017: 30.5 points below 2018: 2.4 points above Increased 33 points



Overall	2017	2018
English Language Arts	39.7 below standard Maintained from previous year 1.1 points	7.4 below standard Increased 32.3 points
Mathematics	41.3 below standard Increased 11.9 points	13.5 below standard Increased 27.8 points
Suspension Rate	1.9% at least once Increased 1.4%	0.9% at least once Declined 1%

## Reinvesting in the Kern Urban Teacher Residency



- ▷ 85% retention rate → 17 out of 20
- ▷ Turnover in urban district → \$20,000

Year	Cohort	Hired	Retained	Saved
2016-17	Cohort 1			
2017-18	Cohort 2	C1 Hired		
2018-19	Cohort 3	C2 Hired	17 Retained	\$340,000 Saved
2019-20	Cohort 4	C3 Hired	34 Retained	\$680,000 Saved
2020-21	Cohort 5	C4 Hired	51 Retained	\$1,020,000 Saved
2021-22	Cohort 6	C5 Hired	68 Retained	\$1,360,000 Saved



## **Additional Video Research Presentations from the CCTE Spring 2021 SPAN Virtual Conference**

**Sonja Lopez Arnak** (Alliant International University & Moreland University).

“Teacher Education as a Factor in Failed Citizenship: Learnings from Dr. James Banks and Research in the Reconceptualization of Teacher Education Programs as Agents of Transformative Citizenship.”

Description: This presentation will have participants look at everyday practices within a university teacher education program including the clinical practice as they examine their own related practices and determine how they relate to Dr. James Banks research. This will give participants the chance to see if/how their practices are supporting or inhibiting the steps needed to even move towards bringing forward Banks’ model of Transformative Education.

**Shawntanet Jara** (University of California, San Diego & California State University, San Marcos).

“Social and Emotional Learning & Culturally Responsive and Sustaining Teaching & the Impact on Student Experiences.”

Description: This study explored how affluent, resource-rich, and academically thriving schools support and/or inhibit Social Emotional Learning and Culturally Responsive and Sustaining Teaching and its impact on how students experience school.

*CCTE Spring 2021 Research Monograph*

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**Karolyn Maurer** (University of California Los Angeles/California State University Los Angeles Joint Doctoral Program).

“The Role of Teacher Preparation Programs in Shaping Teachers’ Attitudes about Inclusion.”

Description: Teachers’ positive perceptions about inclusion lead to better outcomes for students with disabilities educated in a general education setting. This session will share the findings of a recent literature review which distilled the factors influencing teacher perspectives and the significant role of teacher preparation programs in shaping those attitudes.

**Colleen Torgerson** (California State University, Fresno) & **Andrea Zetlin** (California State University, Los Angeles).

“ACCESSIBLE & FREE: Inclusive Education Website.”

Description: This presentation provides a description of the Inclusive Education website and how it can assist programs in the preparation of future educators. The website provides information, activities and examples for elementary, secondary, and special education teachers, and is organized using the Multi Tiered System of Supports and Universal Design for Learning frameworks.

## **Information on the California Council on Teacher Education**

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

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

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

For information about or membership in the California Council on Teacher Education, please contact: Alan H. Jones, Executive Secretary, California Council on Teacher Education, 3145 Geary Boulevard, PMB 275, San Francisco, California 94118; telephone 415/666-3012; email [alan.jones@ccte.org](mailto:alan.jones@ccte.org); website [www.ccte.org](http://www.ccte.org)

**To Order  
the CCTE Spring 2021  
Research Monograph**

The *CCTE Spring 2021 Research Monograph* is available in PDF format from the California Council on Teacher Education for \$25.

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