PAIRED STUDENT TEACHING AND PROGRAM COHERENCE: A CASE STUDY OF

PROMOTING VISIONS OF TEACHING AND LEARNING IN PRESERVICE SOCIAL

STUDIES TEACHER EDUCATION

by

BRANDON M. BUTLER

(Under the Direction of Todd Dinkelman)

ABSTRACT

This research provides a case study of two preservice social studies teachers participating in paired student teaching and how they implement into practice their university-based learning. Providing additional context for the case study is the inclusion of the paired teachers' university supervisor and mentor teacher, and the paired student teachers' participation in a student teaching seminar. Through the use of interviews, observations of school-based and university-based teaching and learning, and document analysis, this study explores how the collaborative relationship between paired teachers allows for a conceptual understanding of teacher education program goals and the pedagogical implementation of those goals in practice. The research was designed to examine the potential impact paired student teaching has on creating coherent learning and teaching experiences for preservice teachers within a teacher education program.

INDEX WORDS: Paired Student Teaching; Program Coherence; Social Studies Education; Student Teaching; Student Teacher Mentoring; University Supervision

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A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial

Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2011

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August 2011

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to all those who ensure that teacher education matters.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The past six years have been infinitely trying, and there are a number of people who helped me along the way to become the researcher, educator, and person I am today. Without each of you, I do not know where, or who, I would be.

First, I would like to thank several faculty members at the University of Georgia. Todd Dinkelman, you have been a guiding force in my search to be the best teacher educator I can be. I have learned so much from you about what is most important as a teacher educator – the student. Your passion for teacher education is evident and encouraging, especially as those of us who leave here search out new places to call home. I have been blessed to have you guide this work these past few years. To Andrew Gitlin, you have exposed me to ways of thinking about education that I would never have considered. You have encouraged me to remain critical of my place as a teacher educator, whether it is in a university classroom or out in schools, and for that I am eternally grateful. Jennifer James, it is only recently that I have had the chance to know you. But I have already learned so much about social studies education, and in particular, elementary social studies education, and I wish I had more time to engage you further in these conversations. I only hope they can continue. Ron Butchart, you are the first faculty member I ever met at the University of Georgia. I have not regretted my enrollment since that moment. As my first advisor, committee member, graduate coordinator, and department chair, you have been unfailing in your advice and your willingness to assist with any problem I might confront. I have learned so much these past six years, and can only hope I have your passion for teaching many years from now. Finally, I would like to thank Hilary Conklin. I know you are no longer at the

University of Georgia, but you are the first person to have exposed me to the possibilities of social studies in the classroom. From the few classes I took with you I was able to recast myself as an educator and see that those things often considered 'too progressive' really do work in schools. Your guidance has helped mold me into the teacher educator I am today.

I would also like to acknowledge my doctoral student family in the social studies education program. Without Scott, Charles, Alex, and Joseph, I may have drowned in my work many years ago. Our many conversations, meals, drinks, and conference trips have been highlights of my six years in Athens. I am grateful for having had the opportunity to work with each of you and explore the world of social studies education. I look forward to our continued friendships and academic endeavors.

Next, I would like to thank my parents, Frank and Norma, my grandmother Mimi, and my sister Elizabeth. Each of you have told me since I was young that I could achieve whatever I put my mind and heart to; and without your continued encouragement I don't think I might have ever completed this task. Mimi, you instilled in me a love for teaching. Seeing how you interacted with your students and talked of the profession was the spark for my foray into education. Dad, your love of history has continued through me, and I am thankful for the support and words of wisdom you have provided through these past six years. Mom, you have shown a degree of compassion for everyone in your life that I can only hope to emulate. And Liz, I have relished the past few years as we have gotten the chance to know each other as adults. I am proud of the person you have grown into, and I am lucky to have had the opportunity to witness that growth first hand.

Finally, I want to thank the love of my life Kristen. You came into my life late in this process but you have provided me with endless support and unconditional love as I struggled to

complete this work and find a place to call home. The past few years I believed this work was the

final piece of the puzzle that would set the remainder of my life in motion, but I've come to

realize that you are that final piece. My life, and this work, would not be complete without you in

it. I love you, and am so happy this is but one step among many in our life together.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The presumption that anyone can teach shapes perceptions about teacher education (Labaree, 2004; Lortie, 2002). At a minimum, students who enter teacher education having spent 12 years observing the practice of teaching often come to the conclusion that teaching is a simple, straightforward task, and that the purpose of teacher education is to provide them with access to certain pedagogies and practices they assume constitute teaching. Labaree (2004) argues that, in reality, "the sheer complexity and irreducible uncertainty surrounding teaching as a practice have made it unusually difficult for education schools to develop effective programs for preparing practitioners in the field" (p. 39). Preservice teachers' commonly held beliefs about teaching could result in an under-appreciation of the complexities inherent in the design and purposes of teacher education programs (Howey, 1996; Labaree, 2004; Tom, 1997). As a result, many preservice teachers and inservice teachers (and some in teacher education) take a dim view of many teacher education experiences and the effectiveness of teacher education more broadly (Darling-Hammond, 2005).

At a base level, researchers have suggested that the inability of teacher education to offer effective and purposeful educational experiences stem from poor financial resources (Egbert, 1985; Goodlad, Soder, & Sirotnik, 1990; Tom, 1997). Generally, concerns over funding persist for most of higher education, including colleges of education, and teacher education programs often struggle with limited resources to support their work with preservice teachers. While governing agencies (i.e., states, the federal government) have reduced their financial

contributions to colleges and universities, a long-standing issue in the funding of teacher education has been higher education's use of teacher education as a source of income rather than investment (Graber, 1996; Labaree, 2008; Tom, 1997). Rather than fully support the labor-intensive work of effective teacher education, colleges and universities "typically use teacher education to attract and recruit students and to generate income, which is often devoted to other missions of the institution" (Tom, 1997, p. 32). Funding issues, however, may have little to do with the negative perception preservice teachers hold about teacher education. Regardless of funding, teacher education programs continue to produce preservice teachers who leave university settings and enter classrooms often feeling that their coursework failed to adequately prepare them for the realities of teaching.

Suffering through what teachers perceive as 'Mickey Mouse' education courses (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Egbert, 1985), these individuals often complete required observation hours in field experiences disconnected from university-based learning. Within these disconnected field experiences, preservice teachers often encounter mentor teachers who may not exhibit the kinds of teaching practices promoted in the university, and placements that challenge the potential impact of teacher education (e.g., Britzman, 2003; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Guyton & McIntyre, 1990). A response by some teacher educators is to prepare preservice teachers with "realistic" advice to account for what preservice teachers might experience in the field-based component of their teacher education program. For instance, in a text written explicitly for such preservice teachers entering field experiences, Knowles and Cole (2008) inform preservice teachers that experienced educators will likely tell them what is needed in teacher education is "plenty of hands-on or practical experiences coupled with being told what works in particular situations and how to do it" (p. 5). Such inservice teachers, they continue, may have been left

unsatisfied about their own former experiences with teacher education. Dismissive of the value of educational theory, many of these experienced teachers believe that teacher learning occurs predominately through the *act* of teaching rather than the *study* of teaching, an idea they often reinforce in conversations with preservice teachers (Britzman, 1986, 2003).

Criticisms by those who may have limited experiences with teacher education programs have also been employed to strengthen the call for alternative certification by forces outside the realm of education. Questioning how teachers are currently prepared and faced with a profession plagued by teacher shortages, politicians have increasingly argued for a reduction in the "barriers to entry posed by standards for preparation" (Darling-Hammond, 2005, p. 238). Over the past few decades, state and national standards for teacher certification and training have reduced new teacher requirements to the extent that, in some places, individuals can enter the classroom with little or no educational training. Darling-Hammond (2005) notes that "at least 50,000 individuals enter teaching each year without training, and most of them are assigned to teach the nation's most vulnerable students in the highest-need schools" (p. 238). Some teacher education programs, in response to the call for alternative certification and the redirection of funding to support these alternative programs, have been restructured to offer "fast-track" programs to quickly prepare individuals for the classroom. These short preparation programs allow individuals with specific content degrees to complete teaching certification in quick fashion without much training in how to effectively support students (Dill, 1996; Zumwalt & Craig, 2005).

Blaming university-based teacher education and teacher educators for the problems of education is not a new phenomenon. Consistent criticisms from powerful external forces (e.g., politicians, the public) pressure some teacher education programs to conform to practices

associated with alternative route programs, often at the expense of rigor (Darling-Hammond, 2010). For example, some traditional teacher education programs have relaxed admissions requirements. These sorts of adjustments feed critiques from inservice teachers that university-based learning is unnecessary. Some fear that the competition from alternative certification and persistent criticisms of traditional teacher education programs play out alongside concerns about the need for large numbers of teachers in the future to promote a "diploma mill" or an ethic of relaxed standards in teacher education, an ethic harmful to the potential influence of teacher educators on preservice teacher development.

At the same time, however, other teacher education programs are challenging current critiques of teacher education. Rather than give into internal or external pressures, these teacher education programs actively pursue program reforms and educational practices that contradict perceptions about the alleged inability of teacher education to effectively prepare preservice teachers for the classroom. Many of these programs have attempted to improve teacher education by focusing on specific educational practices like reflective teaching (e.g., Calderhead, 1989, Zeichner & Liston, 1987), as well as through program reforms that intertwine theory and practice (Korthagen & Kessels, 1999), create coherent course and field experiences (e.g., Darling-Hammond, 2006; Hammerness, 2006; Howey & Zimpher, 1989), or more closely relate student teaching and practicum experiences (Bullough, Egan, & Nokes, 2010). Through meaningful and coherent experiences for preservice teachers during the initial training period, these teacher educators and researchers argue that rigorous learning centered in theoretically and pedagogically consistent – but challenging – conditions can positively influence novice teachers to a greater extent than abbreviated training experiences like those offered by many alternative certification programs.

The Problem

Although preservice teachers have long lamented the quality and impact of teacher education coursework, these same preservice teachers continue to view student teaching as the most influential phase of their initial training experience (Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1985, 1987). Many preservice teachers believe more value is found in the experiential nature of student teaching than in the often-disconnected experiences of teacher education coursework (Bolin, 1988; Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1987; Korthagen & Kessels, 1999). Research suggests that for future teachers the student teaching experience will "either reinforce or restructure what schooling and teaching mean" (Armaline & Hoover, 1989, p. 42). Though teacher educators can design coursework that has students rethink the purposes of education, what preservice teachers see and practice in the field may have a greater influence on the future practices and beliefs of teachers.

Unfortunately, for preservice teachers the traditional student teaching experience – where a mentor teacher and university supervisor oversee the training of a novice teacher – often reinforces for preservice teachers the notion that teacher education is disconnected from classroom realities (Wideen, Mayer-Smith, & Moon, 1998). When preservice teachers are confronted with teaching experiences that provides them with few opportunities to "think pedagogically, reason through dilemmas, investigate problems, and analyze student learning to develop appropriate curriculum for a diverse group of learners" (Hammerness & Darling-Hammond, 2005, p. 392), they are more apt to believe that enacting the reform ideas promoted in the university-based portion of their teacher education programs is unrealistic. For these particular students, the student teaching experience can quickly turn into a 'sink or swim'

activity of acculturation to the 'daily grind' of school-based experiences (Britzman, 2003; Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1985, 1987).

Prior to experiencing the 'daily grind' of teaching, many preservice teachers begin field experiences with pre-determined notions about teaching that are largely constructed by their experiences as students (Cole & Knowles, 1993; Lortie, 2002). According to Lortie (2002), this "apprenticeship of observation" creates misconceptions about the process and purpose of teaching. For instance, many preservice teachers view teaching as a relatively uncomplicated endeavor, and consider the act of teaching as 'easy' and largely involving the transmission of factual knowledge. Because this apprenticeship occurs over many years, specifically during grammar and secondary school, novice educators are more likely to cling to preconceived notions about teaching rather than acknowledge that teaching is not a self-evident activity, and that finding success in the classroom requires finding connections between theory and practice (Cole & Knowles, 1993).

For many preservice teachers, what is learned in teacher education is quickly dismissed since, as Zeichner (1981/1982) suggests, the more "students spend time in the field, getting the class through the required lesson on time in a quiet and orderly manner becomes the major criterion [in determining success]" (p. 3). Finding this viewpoint easy to adopt, preservice teachers in traditional student teaching experiences sometimes begin to look toward their mentor teachers for guidance, as, for many preservice teachers, mentor teachers are the first educators in a position to help make sense of the formal and informal requirements and resources involved in teaching in a real school setting (Odell, 1986). Given the idiosyncratic nature of school environments, teacher educators often find it difficult to prepare these preservice teachers for the many unknowns they will inevitably face on a daily basis – a reality that may escape the

recognition of many preservice teachers. Instead, university-based teacher educators often choose to keep the focus of their courses on broadly applicable education or classroom issues, or to general instructional methods they hope their students will implement as they transition into classrooms.

In many field experiences, preservice educators quickly find themselves supported by mentor teachers who "interpret [their] job as socializing student teachers into the status quo of schools or into the mentor teachers' own practices" (Wilson, Floden, & Ferrini-Mundy, 2002, p. 196). Assertive mentor teachers, some who openly express their lack of regard for the goals and practices of university-based teacher education, as well as mentor teachers with little to no formal training about how to effectively support student teachers, may have a greater influence on new teachers than the brief instruction received from teacher educators in college and university settings. In those instances where preservice teachers are confronted with unsupportive or difficult placements, some research indicates that preservice teachers readily revert to their initial thinking about teaching or model their mentor teacher's practices (Bullough & Draper, 2004; Britzman, 2003; Kagan, 1992).

Apart from the influence of their mentor teachers, many student teachers enter their student teaching field experiences without effective training, or enter poorly structured placements, and thus "a vicious cycle of mediocrity continues in teaching wherein teachers continue to teach as they are taught" (Howey, 1996, p. 145). Hammerness (2006) provides several explanations for how such mediocrity in teacher preparation occurs. She points to individuals who serve in the role of mentor teachers with no formal training in support of preservice teachers, methods taught inappropriately or irrespective of content, and coursework and field experiences that lack distinct connections. If, however, learning to teach "is a matter of

learning what to do" (Bolin, 1988, p. 50), asking student teachers to enact into practice what they learned during coursework is of utmost importance. Research has shown the potential of initial field experiences and student teaching to transform teacher learning when the experiences provide coherent connections to meaningful university coursework and learning (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Hammerness, 2006; Zeichner, 2010).

Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann (1987) suggest that for student teaching specifically to be considered effective teacher education, "it must go beyond survival or extend practice in the outward forms of teaching to sort out appropriate from inappropriate lessons of experience" (p. 272). However, Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann continue, "the current structure of student teaching makes these goals difficult, at best, to achieve" (p. 272). Teaching for many is naturally perceived as a "highly personal, often private activity" (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, p. 1033). In an effort to counter this mindset, some teacher education programs challenge preservice teachers to reflect and collaboratively consider alternative ideas that might have a meaningful impact on practice. Unfortunately, preservice teachers can find it difficult to share their weaknesses or ask for assistance because they consider these moves contrary to more individualistic conceptions of good teaching, conceptions that position teachers to explore their practice in a solitary manner.

Summary of the Problem

Some of the more persistent and troubling critiques and challenges facing teacher education and the training of preservice teachers include preservice and inservice teachers' perceptions that teaching is an isolating, self-evident activity and that much of what occurs in teacher education bears no relation to the realities of the classroom. That teachers view teaching as an isolating affair is most likely rooted in their many experiences as students in primary and secondary schools, and cultivated in inservice settings as they witness a lack of interaction

among teachers on a daily basis (Bullough, Young, Erickson, et al., 2002; Feiman-Nemser, 2001). At the same time, the experiences of many teachers with teacher education reify the perception of teaching as isolating because, as Feiman-Nemser (2001) suggests, those teachers "have little experience with the core activities of mentoring – observing and talking with other teachers about teaching and learning" (p. 1033). Consequently, the unfamiliarity of preservice teachers' with collaborative and transformative learning and teaching environments is largely a result of disjointed education coursework or field experiences where mentors and university supervisors lack a shared vision of powerful teaching and learning (Grossman, Hammerness, McDonald, & Ronfeldt, 2008; Hammerness, 2006).

Research Questions

Against this backdrop of the perception of teaching as an isolating activity and the general disconnect between university-based teacher education learning and field experiences, the social studies teacher education program at Southeastern State University enacted an alternative student teaching experience known as *paired student teaching*.[1] This student teaching model – where two student teachers share a teaching placement under the watchful eye of a mentor teacher and university supervisor – was implemented as a relatively simple 'quick fix' to several problems that confronted the social studies education program. As other teacher education programs had found (Bullough et al., 2010), paired student teaching served as a simple field-based reform for the social studies program at Southeastern State University. Historically, supervision in the teacher education program has been conducted by a small group of graduate teaching assistants, and with large enrollment numbers (on average) at the time of data collection of 20 student teachers in the fall semester and 45 student teachers in the spring semester, the

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[1] All names of individuals, institutions, and locations in this study are pseudonyms.

capacity of the program to supervise these student teachers was stretched. Additionally, the program faced the perennial difficulty of finding placements for student teachers in classrooms with supportive mentor teachers. These ongoing problems – overtaxed supervisors for the teacher candidates and a lack of qualified mentors – prompted the social studies education program to experiment with paired student teaching.

Beyond tackling the mentoring and supervision problem, faculty and graduate assistants in the teacher education program believed paired student teaching could reinforce the programmatic expectations of collaboration and reflection during the teacher education experience. Due to the collaborative nature of the paired placement (Bullough et al., 2002; Bullough, Young, Birrell, et al., 2003), the faculty and graduate teaching assistants who supported the use of the model saw paired student teaching as an innovation that could allow student teachers to better explore the value of collaboration and reflection, and challenge the perception of teaching as an isolating affair. The social studies education program had found some success in promoting collaboration and reflection through paired student teaching (Butler, Elfer, & Roberts, 2010). This success heightened interest in learning more about whether and how paired teaching might influence the integration into practice of the social studies education program's vision for teaching and learning.

More broadly, this study addresses a gap in research regarding paired student teaching and coherent learning experiences in teacher education, a gap discussed further in Chapter Two. Adding to the literature on paired student teaching and program coherence, this research examines the experiences of two student teachers paired in a student teaching placement for insights into how the paired teaching model influenced student teachers' learning and integration

into practice of visions of teaching and learning espoused by one teacher education program.[2] In particular, this study investigates how paired student teachers perceived the visions of a specific social studies education program, how this vision was addressed within university and field-based learning and experiences, and the extent to which the paired teaching model influenced how the participants learned and integrated key features of the vision of teaching and learning promoted by the program. This research was guided by the following question:

If the intended goal of the social studies teacher education program is coherence, what opportunities and challenges does paired student teaching provide toward meeting this goal? More specifically,

- To what extent does the mentor teacher in a paired student teaching experience facilitate the student teachers' learning and integration of a social studies education program's vision for teaching and learning?

- To what extent does the university supervisor in a paired student teaching experience facilitate the student teachers' learning and integration of a social studies education program's vision for teaching and learning?

- To what extent does a paired student teaching experience facilitate for student teachers the learning and integration into practice of a social studies education program's vision for teaching and learning?

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[2] Southeastern State University's social studies education program is centered in a vision of "good teaching" that includes reflective practice, collaborative inquiry, rationale-based practice, a culturally responsive and equitable classroom, and active student engagement and worthwhile learning. These five concepts make up the core themes of the social studies education program discussed further in Chapter Four.

Chapter Outlines

The presentation of this research into these questions will proceed as follows. In Chapter Two, I review the literature pertinent to this investigation. I divide the review into three sections: 1) alternative student teaching experiences; 2) program coherence; and 3) and field experiences in coherent programs. The section on field experiences in coherent programs serves as the theoretical framework for this research. In Chapter Three I illustrate the research design and methods used to collect and analyze data of the lived experiences of those individuals involved in one paired student teaching experience. In this chapter I will focus on the research design, data analysis, researcher subjectivities, and the generalizability of findings.

Chapter Four will focus on the institutional and participant contexts of the research. This presentation describes: 1) the undergraduate social studies education program at Southeastern State University, 2) Adams County High School where Eleanor and Jamie student taught, and 3) biographies of the four primary research participants – Eleanor, Jamie, Kay, and Cliff. In Chapter Five, I outline the findings of this research. This chapter explores the interactions between those involved in one paired student teaching placement. Three themes frame this chapter: 1) Passing the Buck, 2) Uncertain Certainties, and 3) Incomplete Coherence. Finally, in Chapter Six I present the conclusions to this research. I first discuss the implications of this research for the social studies education program. I end the chapter with a discussion of the limitations of this research and directions for future research into paired student teaching and program coherence.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

Chapter One presents a problem facing teacher education programs – that is, preservice teachers often complete their initial certification training perceiving the university-based portion of their teacher education experience as having little connection to the classroom practices they witnessed during student teaching. This problem lends support to the belief of many preservice teachers that teaching is an isolating activity. The perceived disconnect between teacher education and field-based experiences is criticized by teachers and forces outside education (e.g., politicians, the public) who question the value of teacher education in its current form (Darling-Hammond, 2005; Tom, 1997). Partly in response to such critiques, teacher educators have sought to alter the training and experiences of preservice teachers during the initial certification period. Two such approaches to programmatic reform include: (1) the implementation of alternative approaches to the student teaching experience (e.g., Holmes Group, 1986, 1990; Taylor, Borys, & LaRoque, 1992; Zeichner, 1990), and (2) the development of coherent teacher education experiences (e.g., Buchmann & Floden, 1991; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Hammerness, 2006).

In this chapter, I review these two approaches to programmatic reform as they relate to the social studies teacher education program at Southeastern State University. The reform implemented by the program focused on the use of paired student teaching as an alternative to the traditional student teaching experience in an attempt to promote coherence between the program's vision for teaching and learning and preservice teachers' understanding and implementation of that vision. In analyzing the existing literature on paired student teaching, this

review of literature first situates paired teaching within the larger literature of alternative approaches to student teaching. The various models discussed – including peer coaching, co-teaching, and professional development schools – share several common goals with paired student teaching. These common goals include: recognition of the potential for collaborative environments in school contexts, and the importance of continued learning and professional development. This examination of the individual purposes, strengths, and weaknesses of the various alternative student teaching models, sets the context for the following analysis of paired student teaching.

Following an analysis of paired student teaching as an alternative to the traditional student teaching experience, I examine the literature on coherent teacher education programs and learning experiences in the second part of this chapter. Various conceptions of teaching and learning have long driven competing claims regarding the nature and purpose of education, and this same diversity of perspectives fuels different ideas about how teachers should be trained. Mapping the diverse ideas about the purposes of education is outside the purview of this research. However, these perspectives do influence how teachers are trained and therefore receive consideration within a frame constructed around the idea of *program coherence*. In defining what makes a teacher education program, Dinkelman (2010) suggests that:

> Images of teaching and learning, sequences of courses, nature of field experiences, standards for admission, conceptions of subject matter, faculty commitment, collaboration with schools, forms of assessment, field supervision – how these and countless other shared features are organized and implemented define teacher education programs and distinguish them from each other (pp. 157-158).

Such features of a program influence how preservice teachers experience and conceptualize teacher education. Dinkelman (2010) suggests that, "At its simplest, coherence refers to how well these features are arranged and work together toward shared purposes" (p. 158). Admittedly, the idea of coherence is more complex than working "toward shared purposes." Research into program coherence has detailed various conceptual and structural features that lead toward coherent programs. For example, Feiman-Nemser (1990), Hammerness (2006), and others distinguish *conceptual* from *structural* coherence, while Darling-Hammond (2006) and Dinkelman (2010) suggest a third form, what Dinkelman terms *enacted* coherence.

Rather than discuss the literature on program coherence through these three forms of coherence, this analysis points to five common attributes often considered as features of coherent teacher education programs: integrative field experiences, faculty collaboration in program design, a thematic curriculum approach, student cohort groups, and continuous program evaluation. The decision to organize this discussion of program coherence through attributes instead of through the three conceptual models is intentional. These attributes provide common points of reference between paired student teaching and program coherence, connections not readily noticeable through an overarching analysis of the conceptual, structural, or enacted orientations of coherence.

The integrative field experience attribute provides the main reference point to consider coherence in student teaching. I consider this attribute separately from the remainder of the coherence literature for several reasons. First, this study focuses solely on the experience of two preservice teachers in a paired student teaching placement and how this paired placement might contribute to coherence. For this reason, the other four coherence attributes speak far less directly to the purposes of this study. Yet I examine them because they provide a broad view of program

coherence, and how field experiences work within this larger context. Stated differently, these attributes provide a framework through which I can describe the structural and conceptual orientations of the social studies program at Southeastern State University. Second, the very idea of integrative field experiences serves as a key theoretical anchor for my investigation of paired student teaching and how it might promote coherent teaching and learning experiences for preservice teachers. Integrative field experiences draw attention to the ways student teaching both connects to university coursework and is considered and constructed by teacher education programs.

<div align="center">Alternative Approaches to Student Teaching</div>

Many teachers believe the process of learning to teach occurs predominately through firsthand experiences with teaching, whether those experiences are preliminary field observations completed during preservice training, student teaching, or practice as a novice educator. Due to this perception, Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann (1985) indicate that teacher education programs have increasingly "give[n] more and more time to classroom experiences" (p. 53). However, much of what occurs during formal teacher education programs and field experiences is not the result of empirical evidence about how teachers should be trained, but is the result of "beliefs, historical tradition, and intuition" (Yarger & Smith, 1990, p. 25). The experience has traditionally served as a space dominated by the mentor teacher, a space in which student teachers replicate the teaching practices of their mentors, and a space that leaves the teacher education program or visiting university supervisor with limited influence over preservice teacher development. This student teaching experience, in particular, is critiqued as "developed out of convenience or tradition" (Guyton & McIntyre, 1990, p. 517), rather than as modeled after the goals teacher education programs have for teacher development.

Since its inception, student teaching has more reproduced the status quo than promoted the aspirations of many reform-oriented teacher education programs. Stones and Morris (1977) suggest that such a traditional model of student teaching "inspires conformity and tends to penalize innovation so that its products conform to a bureaucratically structured stereotype" (p. 4). Teachers who are products of these traditional experiences often consider teaching an isolating activity (de Lima, 2003; Feiman-Nemser, 2001), and dismiss the notion that teaching, and learning to teach, can occur in a collaborative professional environment.

Certain professional "pitfalls" face preservice teachers in traditional student teaching placements (Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1985). These pitfalls include a perception: 1) of familiarity with the act of teaching, 2) that teacher education occurs in the two distinct worlds of higher education and schools, and 3) that classrooms are not conducive to effective teacher training. For Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann (1985), the most prominent issue preventing effective teacher preparation is the familiarity pitfall, which "requires a break with the taken-for-granted and a recognition that people have devised what is familiar in schools and classrooms" (p. 63). Having spent much of their lives as students, preservice teachers believe they are familiar with the practice of teaching. When faced with adversity preservice teacher often fail to recognize the complexities and difficulties inherent in teaching and rely instead on what they experienced as students, resulting predominately in highly teacher-centered classroom environments (Britzman, 2003; Lortie, 2002).

Challenging such views of teaching requires a reconceptualization about how schools are professionally structured and how preservice teachers experience teaching. Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann (1985) believe that "if schools became places where teachers studied their own practice together and were rewarded for doing so, future teachers would be inducted into a

professional community where collegiality and experimentation were norms" (p. 64). In confronting the culture of isolation plaguing schools, teacher educators have advocated for the creation of collaborative school environments and training experiences (e.g., Holmes Group, 1986, 1990; Slavin, 1987; Smith, 1987; Taylor et al., 1992; Yopp & Guillaume, 1999). Slavin (1987) defines such a collaborative school environment as one in which "students, teachers, and administrators can work cooperatively to make the school a better place for working and learning" (p. 12). One way to promote cultures of teacher collaboration and professional growth, and alter how novice teachers perceive the act of teaching, may be to have novice educators first *experience* such collaborative environments during their initial training. Toward this aim, several alternative approaches to preservice teacher preparation have emerged, including professional development schools, co-teaching, peer coaching, and paired student teaching. Table 2.1 summarizes the design and associated problems with each of these approaches.

Each of these alternative approaches to student teaching share a common goal, that is, to redefine how preservice educators perceive teaching and learning. In particular, proponents of each model hope to instill in preservice teachers the recognition that the development of professional learning communities is beneficial to teacher development. This shared outcome, however, is where similarities end for these alternative approaches to student teaching. Each model has particular strengths and weaknesses, unique structural considerations, and distinct responsibilities for those involved in training preservice teachers. Because the focus of this study is one particular model – paired student teaching – this literature review focuses primarily on this approach to student teaching. As stated previously, however, a brief analysis of the other alternative student teaching models used by various teacher preparation programs helps to account for the reasons why the social studies education program at Southeastern State

University came to use paired teaching. The following discussion of the four alternative student

teaching models is arranged in such a fashion as to present the models in order from those that

Table 2.1. Alternative Student Teaching Models

MODEL	DESIGN	PROBLEMS WITH MODEL
Professional Development Schools (PDSs)	School-university partnership seeking to transform the way teaching is practiced in schools; teachers expected to host practicum and student teachers, share decision-making about teacher education with university.	A complex model to put into practice that requires strong relationships between school and university in an educational environment where teachers often distrust teacher education; no concrete conception of the PDS design, resulting in research that presents individual PDS contexts rather than coherent designs for PDS success.
Co-teaching	Mentor teacher trains student teacher through a system of student teacher observation and peripheral assistance followed by student teacher as lead instructor and mentor teacher as observer and assistant.	Focuses predominately on replication of teaching practices rather than training student teachers to plan good learning experiences independently or in a fashion unique to their teaching style while providing a supportive training environment.
Peer Coaching	Implemented within a traditional student teaching experience that asks student teachers to provide peer feedback for other student teachers, modeling appropriate mentor relationships, interpersonal skills, and critical reflection skills.	Research shows that creating successful peer coaching relationships necessitates 15 to 19 hours of training for novice teachers; an inability for teachers to observe their peers in person due to teaching responsibilities has forced a reliance on video technologies to engage in peer evaluation and feedback.
Paired Student Teaching	Two preservice teachers share a student teaching experience under the supervision of one mentor teacher and university supervisor.	Continues to be seen by student teachers as not 'realistic' due to the collaborative nature of the model while the continued perception of teaching is that it occurs in isolation; newness of the model has resulted in little consideration among researchers about how to best structure the paired experience.

require the greatest restructuring of the traditional student teaching experience to those that require the least. The review ends with attention to the focus of this research, what has been identified as a relatively unobtrusive and easy-to-implement programmatic reform – paired student teaching (Bullough et al., 2010).

Professional Development Schools

Arguably the model that requires the greatest restructuring of the traditional student teaching experience is the *professional development school* model, an idea initially conceptualized by the Holmes Group (1986, 1990). The primary purpose of professional development schools (PDSs) is to bridge the gap between schools and universities and to transform the way teaching is practiced in schools. Although the Holmes Group (1986) detailed the initial purposes of PDSs, disagreements among teacher educators about their make-up and function have led to a variety of different institutional arrangements that function under the PDS name. As a result, researchers have found it difficult to assess the impact PDSs have on student learning and teacher development. Teitel (2001) claims that universities and school districts often employ PDS models as a "leap of faith [rather] than an educational reform based on solid and systematic evidence that PDSs produce better outcomes" (p. 57).

Because educators cannot agree on the standard make-up of PDSs the assessment of them becomes problematic (Darling-Hammond, 1994; Fullan & Stiegalbauer, 1991; Teitel, 2001). Lack of agreement on what constitutes a PDS clearly presents formidable challenges associated with assessing their effectiveness. Yet the limits to empirical research on what they actually do has not prevented at least a conceptual agreement about what they are intended to do. For instance, Lieberman and Miller (1990) summarize the purpose of PDSs, suggesting that:

These schools are best characterized as having three complimentary agendas: (1) to

provide a context for rethinking and reinventing schools for the purpose of building and

sustaining the best educational practices, (2) to contribute to the preservice education of

teachers and induct them into the teaching process, and (3) to provide for continuing

development and professional growth of experienced inservice teachers (p. 105).

Although this conceptualization has changed little over the years (Castle & Hunt, 1997; Castle,

Fox, & Souder, 2006; Dana, Silva, Nolan, et al., 2001), little has been done to promote a

common research agenda among those studying professional development schools.

As a result, research on PDSs tends to be less grounded in coherent evaluative measures,

and more in descriptive accounts of what occurs within singular PDS environments (Book, 1996;

Teitel, 2001). To date, research studies on professional development schools are largely

longitudinal in nature, seeking to understand (1) how those involved in PDSs perceive the model

(Castle & Hunt, 1997; Fullan, 1993; Grossman, 1994), (2) how PDSs affect student teacher

preparation (Castle, 1997; Castle et al., 2006; Pasch & Pugach, 1990; Yerian & Grossman,

1997), and (3) what problems face the PDS model (Dana et al., 2001; Darling-Hammond, 1994).

In terms of preservice teacher development, researchers have found that student teachers who

experience the PDS model appear more prepared for teaching than colleagues in traditional

student teaching environments (Castle et al., 2006; Yerian & Grossman, 1997). Yerian and

Grossman (1997) also found, in addition to feeling better prepared to teach, that PDS student

teachers gave "credit to their preservice program for their ability to integrate theory and practice

within the school environment" (p. 11). Considering the critique generally presented by

preservice teachers – that teacher education is disconnected from classroom realities – the notion

that professional development schools can reinforce the learning received during the university-

based portion of teacher education is encouraging for those teacher education programs who seek to support preservice teachers in their efforts to translate program reform ideas into teaching practice.

Although teacher education programs and schools continue to collaborate in the creation of professional development schools, several challenges exist in the successful implementation the model into practice. Dana et al. (2001) analyzed the development of a PDS over a six-year period and found the collaboration faced three consistent problems, identified as: "(a) building trust and relationships between university and school personnel, (b) reconceptualizing existing coursework to fit in the PDS context, and (3) making inquiry a central feature of the PDS" (p. 15). Perhaps the biggest problem that faces PDS development is the actual creation of the school-university partnership. Considering the mixed views many teachers hold for teacher education programs, the creation of a school-university partnership where decision-making is shared among school and university faculty is a complicated endeavor (Winitsky, Stoddart, & O'Keefe, 1992). In order to appropriately support preservice and inservice teacher development within these partnerships, a shared vision of teaching and learning, as well as shared school management, is required. Additionally, the success of professional development schools also requires teachers and teacher educators to enter into dialogue about a shared vision of teaching and learning, dialogues that have little history in teacher education. Such a challenge is difficult to confront, especially in educational environments that lack strong relationships between universities and schools.

The Co-Teaching Model of Student Teaching

More limited in scope than the PDS model, the next two alternative student teaching models have their origins in specific content areas of education: science education and special

education. *Co-teaching* has roots in concerns among science teacher educators about preservice science teachers putting into practice what they learned in teacher education (Roth, 1998; Roth & Boyd, 1999; Roth, Masciotra, & Boyd, 1999). Centered in situated learning theories (e.g., Lave, 1991, 1996; Lave & Wenger, 1991), proponents of co-teaching believe that learning to teach occurs within contexts that are not often transferable to other situations. As a result, the co-teaching approach to teacher preparation brings preservice teachers into the schools where they are expected to model the practices of expert teachers. Roth and Boyd (1999) label this experience as *being-in-the-classroom* where "beginning teachers can observe and imitate the more seasoned peer, how he walks about the classroom, calls on students, waits, feels confident, deals with a difficult situation" (p. 65).

More than simple imitation, in theory, co-teaching models progress through a sequential set of observation, modeling, and practice that leads to increasingly independent and autonomous teaching practices on part of the novice teacher. Generally, the co-teaching model follows a pattern of preservice teacher observation and peripheral assistance in the classroom, followed immediately by the preservice teacher's direct control over teaching responsibilities. For example, during the first of two instructional periods the student teacher might take note of the mentor teacher's instructional practices while assisting with classroom management and small-group work. These instructional periods may last one academic period as student teachers are expected to immediately model the mentor teachers' instruction. Following this initial observation and assistance, the student teacher claims the knowledge gained from the observation and puts it to practice the following class period. During this phase the mentor teacher becomes the observer, documenting the student teacher's practice, while providing the peripheral assistance the student teacher provided earlier. The cycle ends with a collaborative

debrief between the mentor and student teacher about the actions and decision-making processes behind both individuals' instruction.

Such a model has several goals. First, the focus is less on spending time planning lessons and more on modeling and experimenting with best practices (Eick, Ware, & Williams, 2003). The belief here is that an experienced mentor teacher who practices good teaching habits assists more in effective preservice teacher development than mentors in traditional placements. Rather than hand full control of the classroom to the student teacher, an action that likely results in the replication of traditional teaching practices, the mentor teacher models and dialogues about those practices, and in turn reinforces those good teaching habits for the student teacher. Of course, the co-teaching model works best when mentor teachers are knowledgeable about their role as a teacher educators and share complimentary conceptions of teaching with both the teacher education program and student teacher. Unfortunately, the mentor teachers' role as field-based teacher educators is often poorly defined (Cherian, 2006; Darling-Hammond, 2005; Little, 1990). As well, few mentor teachers receive formal training in any sort of mentoring, let alone in particular models such as co-teaching. Most mentors likely develop their sense of how to provide support for student teachers more through their prior experiences with their own mentor teachers than any sustained consideration of mentoring models (Lucas, 2001).

Recognizing this particular challenge, those teacher educators who support the use of co-teaching acknowledge the training and support necessary to create successful co-teaching experiences (e.g., Roth & Boyd, 1999; Tobin, 2006). In these studies, mentor teachers best assisted preservice teacher development when placed in environments where both mentor and student teachers "watched videotapes [of teaching practices], debriefed their lessons with observers, or talked among themselves about teaching episodes" (Roth & Boyd, 1999, p. 53).

Most importantly, the best co-teaching relationships – in which mentor and student teachers are closely involved in the planning, instruction, and reflection of teaching practices – are a kind of professional development for both the preservice and inservice teacher as both individuals are prompted to frequently reassess their thinking about teaching.

The Peer Coaching Model of Student Teaching

Unlike previous alternative student teaching models discussed, *peer coaching* – which has its origins in special education – is situated within the traditional student teaching experience. The key difference between the peer coaching model and traditional student teaching, however, is the inclusion of peer observation and feedback intended to counteract the hierarchical approach to supervision found in traditional student teaching. In the traditional student teaching model, student teachers often hold little power. As well, for a variety of reasons, the university supervisor generally is considered to have little influence over preservice teacher development, and is sometimes seen by both preservice and mentor teachers as an outsider to the training experience (Fulwiler, 1996; Richardson-Koehler, 1988; Slick, 1998). Typically, the strongest power brokers are mentor teachers; those who are often at odds with the goals of teacher education and have limited time to successfully support preservice teacher development (e.g. Bullough & Draper, 2004; Emans, 1983; Wilson et al., 2002; Zeichner, 1980).

Peer coaching is designed to counter this power imbalance. As a professional development approach, the power balancing potential makes the model attractive not only as a tool for student teacher development but for practicum and inservice teacher development as well. Simply put, peer coaching is a "training method in which pairs of practicum students, student teachers, or classroom teachers observe each other and provide consultative assistance in correctly applying teaching skills and proposing alternative solutions to recognized instructional

needs" (Wynn & Kromery, 1999, p. 22). Even though the model has been taken up in diverse educational settings, this review focuses on peer coaching literature in the student teaching research literature, since the attention here is on alternative student teaching models.

The implementation of peer coaching within a student teaching experience raises two immediate concerns. The first concern is time. Several researchers have suggested that a number of hours of preservice teacher training are needed to develop the capacity to successfully critique what are often labeled *targeted teaching behaviors* (Morgan, Gustafson, Hudson, & Salzberg, 1992; Morgan, Menlove, Salzberg, & Hudson, 1994). These targeted teaching behaviors indicated in the literature include, among other behaviors: managing student behavior (Forbes, 2004), content mastery (Morgan et al., 1994), and instructional organization (Hudson, Miller, Salzberg, & Morgan, 1994).

Training preservice teachers to peer coach during student teaching is a difficult enterprise given that student teachers often face considerable planning and instructional responsibilities. Recognizing this challenge, researchers of the peer coaching model have found success in exposing preservice teachers to coaching methods during university coursework and practicum experiences prior to student teaching (Forbes, 2004; Le Cornu, 2005; Neubert & McAllister, 1993). However, this response may strain a pre-student teaching curriculum that is already pressed for time.

In addition to requiring a large number of training hours, a second challenge facing the implementation of peer coaching is the challenge of helping student teachers complete consistent in-class observations of their peers. With limited amount of time spent in the field, and an interest in gaining in-class experience, student teachers removed from the classroom for regular peer observations might develop negative perceptions about the benefit of peer feedback as

student teachers desire in-class experience. Additionally, frequent removal of student teachers from the classroom to complete externally required assignments potentially could create dissension among mentor teachers who see the student teachers' role as in the classroom. In response, some teacher education programs have incorporated video-recording technology into peer coaching, allowing student teachers to remain in the classroom on a daily basis while providing consistent feedback of their peers' teaching (Barron, Dawson, & Yendol-Hoppey, 2009; Morgan et al., 1992, 1994). Rather than take time from their own practice to complete in-class peer observations, student teachers can use video technology to provide peer feedback at their own convenience, a benefit that could allow student teachers placed in diverse schools or distant school districts to observe a wide variety of instruction.

These challenges aside, some empirical evidence suggests that peer coaching can be a successful tool in bridging the gap between what students learn in the university and what they do in the school classroom (Hudson et al., 1994; Wynn & Kromery, 1999, 2000). Student teachers who experienced the peer coaching model acknowledged the "benefit of having student [teachers] learn both to provide and to receive databased critiques of their professional skills so early in their careers and the positive impact this had on the preservice teachers' self-confidence and sense of professionalism" (Hasbrouck, 1997, p. 269). Such professionalism is also exhibited in teaching practice and dispositions through the promotion of collegiality and reflection (McAllister & Neubert, 1995; Neubert & Stover, 1994), and the generation of a mentoring attitude that results in the development of learning communities (Britton & Anderson, 2010; Le Cornu, 2005). As an alternative student teaching model, peer coaching does little to change the structure of the experience. Yet this approach may meet its goal of mitigating the hierarchical nature of the traditional experience through the inclusion of continuous peer observations and

feedback that models skills necessary for the promotion of reflection and continued professional development.

The Paired Approach to Student Teaching

Like the peer coaching model, the paired student teaching arrangement fits within the structure of the traditional student teaching experience. The goals of paired student teaching and peer coaching as much the same – to challenge the traditionally hierarchical nature of student teaching and to reinforce teacher learning through continuous collaboration and reflection with a peer during the student teaching experience (Gardiner & Robinson, 2009). What differs between peer coaching and paired student teaching is the structure of the experience. Where peer coaching maintains the traditional practice of one student teacher and one classroom, paired student teaching has two preservice teachers sharing the student teaching experience in the same classroom.

As with other models, teacher education programs use paired student teaching to reinforce teacher learning during the field-component of teacher education. Unlike other alternative models, paired student teaching does little to alter the nature of teacher training as experienced by field-based teacher educators or the school environment at large. Recently, Bullough et al. (2010) in a literature review of four paired student teaching studies conducted at Brigham Young University, summarized the purpose of paired student teaching:

- Reduce the number of low-quality student teaching placements and improve the quality of the remaining placements;
- Increase student teacher and cooperating teacher learning by increasing the kind, quality, and amount of teacher interaction and reflection on teaching and the feedback given;

- Encourage the disposition to invest in and support teacher learning and development through enhanced collaboration;

- Enrich the quality of pupils' classroom experience and improve their learning; [and]

- Develop productive and satisfying relationships with students, as well as between participating teachers, both entry level and experienced (pp. 40-41).

Paired student teaching is a rather unobtrusive reform to implement and requires little sacrifice from schools, mentor teachers, or student teachers in terms of time or institutional changes. For these reasons, paired student teaching serves as an attractive alternative for teacher education programs seeking a substitute for the traditional student teaching experience (Baker & Milner, 2006; Bullough et al., 2010; Butler et al., 2010). As a 'quick fix' of sorts (Tom, 1997), paired student teaching has few institutionalized demands and offers the hope that preservice teachers, through a collaborative teaching experience, will develop the skills of reflective practice and peer collaboration as they continue to develop as teachers (Bullough et al., 2002; 2003).

The origin of paired student teaching came out of a shared concern among faculty at Brigham Young University over the "value of some well-established practices, particularly the value of [solo] student teaching" (Bullough et al., 2002, p. 69). Bullough and colleagues believed that pairing students together during student teaching could develop peer relationships that reinforced conceptions of teaching as a collaborative profession. In their initial exploration of the paired student teaching model, Bullough et al. compared the practices of single and paired student teachers through an analysis of interviews with student teachers and mentors in both placement types, time logs kept by student teachers of their teaching activities, and the transcripts of two mentor-student teacher planning sessions during the semester. During an initial 13-week student teaching experience, Bullough and colleagues found that the collaborative

nature of paired student teaching encouraged paired student teachers to spend more time engaging in instructional planning than student teachers in the traditional experience. Paired teaching led student teachers to defend pedagogical decisions. One result was better-prepared lessons as student teachers adapted lessons to include the strengths and varied interests of both student teachers.

Additionally, paired student teachers in Bullough et al. (2002) provided emotional support for their peers, while student teachers in traditional placements often felt isolated and unsupported by their supervisors. This finding was reinforced in Bullough et al. (2003) in a comparative study of single and paired student teaching experiences using similar methods as the previous study, though now incorporating the voice of pupils in the classrooms. As student teachers in traditional placements navigated the introduction to teaching often without the presence of their mentor teachers, paired student teachers were provided time for "critical feedback and opportunities to talk about their teaching" with their partners and mentor teachers (p. 68). In this comparative study, mentor and student teachers in paired student teaching placements exhibited "feedback [that] was less one-directional, more conversational, and decidedly focused on mutual interests" (p. 69). Findings from these initial studies on the effects of paired student teaching documented a space where collegiality and experimentation became the norm, and where student teaching was not seen as an isolating, 'sink or swim' experience (Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1985).

The finding of peer support through paired student teaching is reinforced by a three-year action research study of one teacher education program's implementation of paired student teaching (Smith, 2002). This study incorporated findings from three cycles of action research. Each cycle generally included questionnaires of student and mentor teachers and field

observations. The third and final cycle incorporated interviews of mentor and student teachers.

Early in the study paired student teachers faced difficulty in their experiences due to issues of

role ambiguity and territoriality. These problems stemmed, according to Smith, from an

inattentiveness of the teacher education program in creating compatible pairings and

unreasonable expectations that the new model would find immediate success. Over time, Smith

created a more structured experience in which student teachers modeled certain roles and

responsibilities in the classroom that included sharing time as lead teacher and back-up teacher.

The inclusion of guidelines for the paired teaching experience provide "an initial structural

collaboration framework, from which the students [became] more spontaneously collaborative"

(p. 272). Once guidelines were implemented Smith found that the collaborative environment

created by paired student teaching allowed student teachers to take pedagogical risks, a finding

similar to Bullough et al. (2002, 2003).

The idea that paired student teaching results in forms of pedagogical collaboration and

reflection is supported by findings in Baker and Milner (2006). Baker and Milner saw paired

student teaching as an alternative to the PDS model, a model they believed provided little

documented evidence of effectiveness (Paese, 2003; Teitel, 2001), and a model they saw as

difficult to implement in their small teacher education program. Following secondary English

preservice teachers during a 15-week student teaching experience, Baker and Milner (2006)

conducted a comparative study of single and paired student teachers using questionnaires, field

observations, interviews of student teachers, and questionnaires and interviews of mentor

teachers. Like previous studies, paired student teachers in Baker and Milner (2006) found that

the paired experience afforded time for preservice teachers to "prepare more carefully for the

classes they teach" (p. 70). Because student teachers brought to their classroom experiences

various interests and ways of thinking about teaching, student teachers were continuously forced to "compare the effectiveness of different strategies and methods of teaching" (p. 70), resulting in what mentor teachers described as stronger, more effective lessons. In addition to pedagogical collaboration, paired student teaching compelled preservice teachers to "engage mentors in pedagogical discussions that rise above the particularities of a single lesson" (p. 70).

These studies documented a marked difference between the experiences of single and paired student teachers, and subsequent research would further explore the nature of paired student teaching and the mentoring of student teachers in paired experiences. Nokes, Bullough, Egan, Birrell, and Hansen (2008) revisited the paired student teaching model used at Brigham Young University. Unlike previous studies on paired student teaching in elementary teacher education (Bullough et al., 2002, 2003), Nokes et al. (2008) examined paired teaching within a secondary education program. In this study, researchers interviewed paired teachers and mentor teachers individually following the conclusion of student teaching. They also conducted five focus group interviews with pupils who had paired student teachers as instructors. Focusing on the collaborative relationships that developed in paired teaching experiences, Nokes et al. (2008) found collaborative planning among paired student teachers occurred along a continuum from fully independent to fully collaborative planning.

The three cases described were highlighted as illustrative of the larger findings from the research. One pair exhibited fully independent planning behaviors, another pair engaged in moderate planning, and a third pair was fully collaborative in planning for instruction. In terms of instructional collaboration, the same pair who demonstrated independent planning behaviors also exhibited fully independent instruction. The remaining two pairs respectively engaged in minimal and moderate collaborative instruction. Similar to results from previous research on

paired student teaching (Bullough et al., 2002, 2003; Smith, 2002), the student teachers that were solely independent regarding planning and instruction encountered compatibility issues grounded in personality differences or pedagogical disagreements. Another finding of this study indicated difficult placement among paired student teachers were rare, as only one of thirteen paired placements exhibited entirely independent teaching attributes.

Researchers have generally considered the voice of mentor teachers as peripheral in investigations of paired student teaching. In contrast, Gardiner (2010) conducted a study on paired student teaching that specifically analyzed the mentor teachers' perceptions and experiences. Gardiner (2010) followed seven mentor teachers, interviewed each through individual and focus group interviews, conducted field observations, and collected documents relevant to the paired student teaching experience. Additionally, Gardiner conducted informal interviewers with paired student teachers, the school principal, and the university-school liaison (the research site was a PDS). In mentoring paired student teachers, mentor teachers in Gardiner's study suggested that collaboration allowed paired teachers to generate stronger, student-centered lessons due to varied interests and content specialties.

Mentor teachers identified miscommunication at the outset of student teaching that often led to poorly implemented lessons, and believed "this was normal, a learning experience, and preparation for a collaborative teaching culture" (p. 12). The significance of this research, however, is less in what occurred during the paired student teaching experience. On this count, the study reinforces previous research findings that paired student teaching promotes peer collaboration and pedagogical risk-taking and innovation. Instead, the value of Gardiner's work is the recognition that mentoring paired student teachers is a complicated task that is facilitated by the necessary support from teacher education programs, certain dispositions for mentor-

mentee collaboration, and requisite skills to mentor not one, but two, student teachers. Where previous studies have not suggested the need for specific support or training for mentor teachers or university supervisors of paired student teachers, Gardiner indicates that such support is needed.

More recently, Butler et al. (2010) sought to address three gaps in paired student teaching research through a collaborative action research study of one paired student teaching triad. Their study: (1) acknowledged the role of the university supervisor in paired student teacher development; (2) was conducted from the perspective of those who mentored paired student teachers; and (3) examined how paired student teaching reinforced the goals of a teacher education program beyond challenging the traditional student teaching experience. To provide a holistic accounting of the paired student teaching experience, the researchers collected data across the triad (two student teachers, mentor teacher, and university supervisor), and included interviews with the paired student teachers, researcher journals and audio-recorded researcher meetings, relevant documents from supervisor field visits, and audio-recordings of mentor-student teacher and supervisor-student teacher meetings. Finally, this study took up the familiar themes of collaboration and reflection in light of the goals of the broader teacher education framework. As Butler et al. (2010) explained, the intent of this paired student teaching was to serve the program goals of collaborative inquiry and critically reflective practice.

Butler and colleagues found difficulty in promoting collaborative inquiry and critically reflective practice through paired student teaching. Although the student teachers in the study "took away from their experiences an authentic desire to collaborate and reflect on their practices" (p. 12), their collaboration and reflection remained focused on pedagogy when the goal of the mentor teacher and supervisor was to use paired student teaching to prompt inquiry

into larger purposes for teaching. The mentor teacher and university supervisor at the heart of the study desired to move the student teachers beyond pedagogical collaboration and technical reflection. In part, this difficulty related to uncertainties in how to best support paired student teacher development and the goals of collaborative inquiry and critical reflection. Like Gardiner (2010), Butler et al. (2010) acknowledged both the complexities inherent in mentoring two student teachers and the need for teacher education programs to better prepare their mentor teachers and university supervisors for work with paired student teachers.

Providing definitional clarity for paired student teaching.

The limited research on paired student teaching and a lack of definitional clarity about what separates paired student teaching from other alternative models of student teaching impede the development of a more robust literature on paired student teaching. For example, several recent studies that purport to research paired student teaching are, in effect, not about paired student teaching. A brief discussion of two recent empirical studies labeled as paired student teaching (Gardiner & Robinson, 2009; Goodnough et al., 2009) allows for a definitional conversation about what paired student teaching is and what it is not. Gardiner and Robinson (2009), in providing initial field experiences for preservice teachers, employed a paired placement model for students in the field component of a methods course prior to student teaching. In claiming a relationship between the paired practicum placements used in their program and paired student teaching, Gardiner and Robinson did not draw on existing literature on shared initial field experiences.

Compared to paired student teaching, paired practicum placements appear to be a more common tactic employed by teacher education programs (e.g., Wynn & Kromery, 1999; Zeichner, 1992). In some cases, teacher education programs that use peer coaching employ peer

placements during initial practicums to train preservice teachers about how to provide peer

feedback during student teaching (Hasbrouck, 1997; McAllister & Neubert, 1995; Pierce &

Miller, 1994). As referenced previously, what separates paired student teaching from peer

coaching is the notion of a shared *student teaching* experience, rather than a peer feedback model

that does not necessitate a shared field experience. Goodnough et al. (2009) further complicate

the issue by connecting paired student teaching to the co-teaching model. Moreover, Goodnough

and colleagues label paired student teaching as a "triad model of student teaching," which they

define as placing two student teachers with one mentor teacher. This use of the word "triad" runs

counter to the more widely accepted reference to the term that indicates the relationships among

mentor teacher, student teacher, and university supervisor. In addition to the lack of agreement

over aims and methods, the research of Goodnough et al. illustrates the challenge of developing a

research program on a model of student teaching that lacks basic agreement on how the model

should be named. Perhaps the novel use of triad accounts for the lack of attention in Goodnough

et al. to existing research identifying a student teaching triad as consisting of a student teacher,

mentor teacher, and university supervisor (e.g., Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Caires & Almeida,

2007; Fayne; 2007; Veal & Rikard, 1998; Yee, 1968).

Adding a student teacher to the hierarchical relationship of mentor teacher-student

teacher does not, as Goodnough et al. (2009) suggest, create a triadic experience because the

three-person structure of a student teaching triad remains structurally unaltered by the nature of

triad theory (Caplow, 1968; Mills, 1953; Simmel, 1950). Triad theory considers each structure

within a triad as a component unto itself. For example, the role of student teacher is viewed as a

structure, and therefore a component separate from the mentor teacher and university supervisor.

Although there exists a second student teacher within the paired student teacher model, the

addition of this individual is not viewed as a separate component by triad theory. Because a

second student teacher shares the same role and responsibilities as the first student teacher, these

two student teachers are considered two members of the same component within the larger triad.

Figure 2.1 provides a visual representation of how the paired student teaching model remains a

triadic student teaching experience, detailing the relationship between the three roles of mentor

teacher, student teacher, and university supervisor (or, in the case of Southeastern State

University, the field instructor).

Figure 2.1. The Paired Student Teaching Model
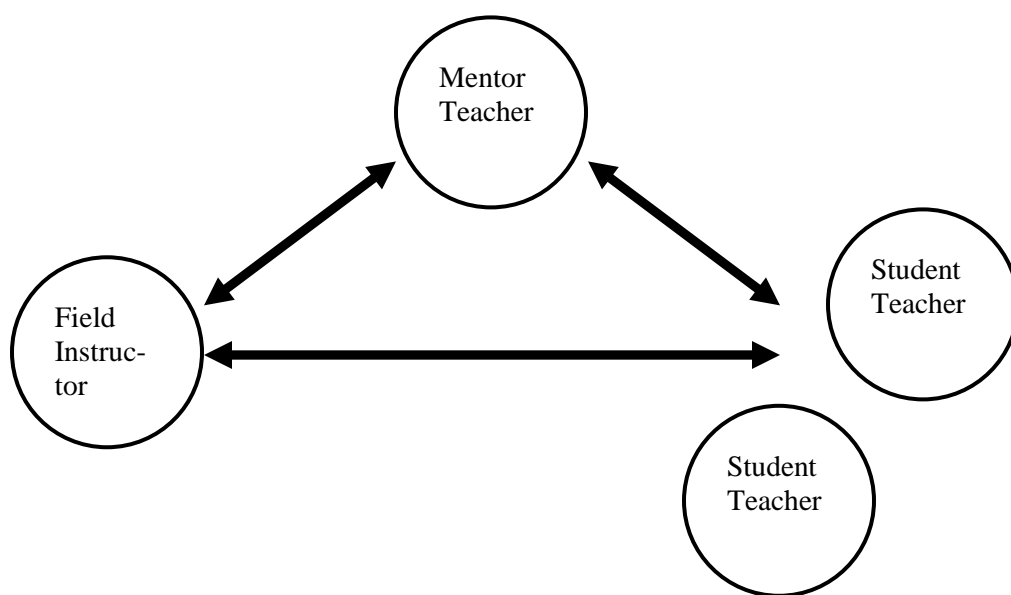
Though aspects of the peer coaching and co-teaching models can exist within a paired

student teaching experience, researchers and teacher educators like Gardiner and Robinson

(2009) and Goodnough et al. (2009), who place their student teaching model in the theoretical

and practice-oriented realm of paired student teaching, should acknowledge the foundational

aspects of paired teaching that separate the model from other approaches to student teaching.

Aside from the structural consideration of the model, the research on paired student teaching to

date has established certain previously discussed benefits that distinguish paired teaching from

other alternative approaches to teacher preparation. Even with these recognized benefits, criticisms of the model's effects and design remain.

Criticisms of paired student teaching.

While the existing research on paired student teaching finds the promotion of collaboration and reflection as benefits of the model, researchers note several concerns about paired student teaching that continue to plague the model. These concerns include a critique by student teachers that paired teaching is not reflective of real teaching (Bullough et al., 2002, 2003; Nokes et al., 2008), that paired teaching provides student teachers with less instructional time than peers in traditional experiences (Bullough et al., 2002, 2003; Goodnough et al., 2009), and that paired teaching prevents mentor teachers from providing individualized attention to student teachers (Baker & Milner, 2006; Bullough et al., 2002, 2003; Butler et al., 2010; Gardiner, 2010; Goodnough et al., 2009). Among these three challenges, arguably the most problematic for reform-oriented teacher education programs is the concern that teaching with a peer does not represent a realistic teaching experience.

The critique of paired student teaching as not realistic pervades the research on paired teaching beginning with Bullough et al. (2002, 2003). Due to life-long experiences with education, preservice teachers enter student teaching with the inherent "belief that to teach is to work in isolation, to plan lessons alone, solve problems alone, and to stand alone in front of a classroom and to talk at children" (Bullough et al., 2003, p. 67). Such a belief poses problems for teacher education programs that consider collaborative training experiences an important means to encourage reform-oriented ideas about teaching, as well as collegial and reflective professional communities. Unfortunately, teachers – at least during the paired student teaching experience – do not see the collaboration that occurs in paired placements as representative of a

more widespread kind of collaboration that can occur among teachers in school environments. Instead, several studies have found that student teachers who believe that paired teaching is not indicative of real teaching consider the classroom as the responsibility of the isolated teacher (Bullough et al., 2002, 2003; Nokes et al., 2008).

Related to the concern over 'realism' is the second critique that paired student teaching does not provide student teachers with sufficient instructional time, leaving student teachers less prepared for the classroom than their peers who student taught alone. Student teachers in Goodnough et al. (2009) indicated an uncertainty about their ability to teach in their own classroom. The student teachers reasoned that teaching with a peer would not allow them sufficient time to develop individualized teaching styles that may have developed through traditional student teaching experiences. Additionally, Bullough et al. (2003) note that student teachers were initially concerned about how future employers would perceive their student teaching experience due to its uncommon structure. Bullough and colleagues suggest that for a large majority of student teachers this fear would be alleviated as student teachers saw the value of collaboration and the pedagogical skills developed because of this peer collaboration.

Whereas the first two concerns of paired student teaching come from the student teachers, mentor teachers provide the final critique. Mentor teachers are concerned that paired student teaching does not allow them sufficient time to provide necessary, individualized attention to student teachers. Across much of the research on paired student teaching, mentor teachers have found their workload increase at the outset of student teaching as they seek to understand their role in an unfamiliar arrangement. However, mentors have largely found that this increased workload diminishes during the semester as mentors and student teachers become comfortable in their collaborative relationships (Baker & Milner, 2006; Bullough et al., 2002, 2003). Mentors in

several studies (Butler et al., 2010; Goodnough et al., 2009) did note a difficulty in providing the appropriate assistance to student teachers when confronted with two student teachers of varying ability-levels, particularly when one student teacher had weaknesses that mentors needed to address individually. Contradicting other research addressing the role of paired student teaching mentors, Gardiner (2010) noticed that mentors found it "easier and more effective to meet student teachers' needs when working with two student teachers" (p. 16). Mentor teachers in this study reasoned that more teachers in the classroom created a working environment that necessitated conversations about teaching practices, leading to increased mentor feedback throughout the student teaching experience.

In looking across these concerns, Gardiner (2010) and Butler et al. (2010) have sought to address mentor concerns peripherally by suggesting a greater recognition from teacher education programs of the complexities inherent in mentoring paired student teachers and the need to develop support skills for mentor teachers and university supervisors. Additionally, Birrell and Bullough (2005) have directly challenged the concerns raised by student teachers about the paired teaching experience. Birrell and Bullough (2005) followed eight paired student teachers from a previous study (Bullough et al., 2003) into their first year as beginning teachers. Acknowledging the critiques student teachers had about the paired teaching experience, Birrell and Bullough (2005) examined the influence of paired teaching on the practices of these first-year teachers. What they found challenged the concerns teachers held during the student teaching experience. First-year teachers in the study exhibited openness to new pedagogical ideas, engaged in peer collaboration, and were commended by administrators and parents for their instructional effectiveness. In contrast to the threats to new teacher learning indicated in other

research, paired student teaching in this study seemed to prepare preservice teachers well for the challenges of first-year teaching.

<div align="center">Program Coherence in Teacher Education</div>

Research into what makes teacher education programs impactful upon preservice teachers, with impact measured in terms of development of the pedagogical practices and professional beliefs of preservice and inservice teachers, has led to a recognition by some that success in teacher education occurs through the creation of coherent learning experiences (e.g., Darling-Hammond, 2006, 2010; Howey & Zimpher, 1989). This section of Chapter Two addresses the attributes of coherent teacher education programs, with particular attention to these four: faculty commitment to program design, a thematic curriculum approach, student cohort groups, and continuous program revision. I then turn to a fifth attribute – integrative field experiences – that serves as the theoretical center for this study. Because the aim of integrative field experiences plays such a key role in this research, I consider it as a standalone section in this chapter.

Preservice and inservice teachers often see learning at the university level and teaching in the classroom as contradictory experiences. What is learned through teacher education often is viewed as impractical in the everyday classroom. Some preservice teachers recognize that they will soon enter the classroom and often search for the pedagogical tools they can immediately use with their students. Therefore, what to do in the classroom becomes more important than theory, even as preservice teachers acknowledge the intersection of pedagogy and theory. As a result, "education coursework that does not immediately address 'know how' or how to 'make do' with the way things are and sustain the walls we have come to expect, appears impractical, idealistic, and too theoretical" (Britzman, 2003, p. 238). Darling-Hammond (2006) suggests that

this perceived disconnect between theoretical and practical knowledge is widely seen in traditional education programs that separate coursework and field experiences. In such programs, coursework generally occurs at the outset of the teacher education experience while field experiences follow toward the end of teacher training. Or, if field experiences occur in conjunction with coursework, preservice teachers feel their course instructors or field supervisors do not help them apply knowledge learned during teacher education to their experiences in the classroom.

Additionally, preservice teachers enter teacher education with certain preconceptions about teaching that are often at odds with what is taught in teacher education (Lortie, 2002). These preconceptions can lead to resistance among preservice teachers toward the theories and practices learned in coursework (Korthagen & Kessels, 1999). Against approximately twelve years of schooling, a few disconnected education courses and field experiences seem unlikely to transform preservice teachers' beliefs and practices. Beyond the critique that preservice teachers have a lifetime of experiences with teaching that are difficult for teacher educators to overcome with limited instructional time, preservice teachers themselves have raised specific concerns about the nature of teacher education (Tom, 1997).

In analyzing the history and current state of teacher education, Tom (1997) identified four persistent concerns voiced by preservice teachers – that university-based teacher education courses are vapid, impractical, segmented, and directionless. According to Tom, preservice teachers criticize teacher education for teaching material that could be taught through in-school apprenticeships and material that is seen as impractical measured against what they will confront in the classroom. Additionally, Tom's review of research on preservice teacher perceptions revealed a perceived disconnect between courses in teacher education programs due to instructor

specialization, a problem he described as "course fragmentation," and the lack of a thematic curriculum (p. 52). Of the four criticisms, Tom suggested that the first criticism – the vapidity of education courses – is the critique most open to debate considered against recent research on the rigor of coursework (e.g., Howey & Zimpher, 1989; Zeichner, 1988). Regardless, all four critiques, as noted to this point, have held considerable weight in the literature on teacher education programs and perspectives of those who experience teacher education, and continue to do so.

As Barnes (1987) suggests, the disconnect between teacher education coursework as a whole, and in conjunction with disconnected field experiences, leads many teachers,

> [T]o lack confidence as beginning teachers. They come to believe that no body of professional knowledge exists for teaching. They conclude that teaching is a matter of personal style and opinion. What competence they perceive they have is attributed to field experience apprenticeship (p. 14).

The calls for coherence in teacher education programs then, as Buchmann and Floden (1991) suggest, might "spring from a fear that formal preparation leaves few traces" (p. 67). Since the 1980s various researchers and teacher education programs have explored what aspects of preservice teachers' experiences reinforce the knowledge, practices, and perspectives learned through teacher education coursework and field experience as these preservice teachers enter the first years of teaching. Researchers have taken different approaches to understanding coherence within teacher education programs, including theoretical analyses of coherence and studies of more specific attributes of coherent programs. I turn now to this literature.

Buchmann and Floden (1991) provide one interesting take on program coherence, suggesting that program coherence does not come without risks. They suggest that a program

"that is too coherent fits students with blinders, deceives them, and encourages complacency" (p. 71). For Buchmann and Floden, education is a complicated enterprise and those teacher education programs that do not address the "uncertainties and contradictions" of teaching "provide a misleading sense of order and security" (p. 70). Buchmann and Floden (1992) revisit a similar argument a year later to express concern that coherence as consistency might pose risks, but they also point to the danger of unchecked faculty independence. They note "faculty autonomy pulls the curriculum toward incongruities and fragmentation, as professors teach with regard to what they know best" (p. 8). For some teacher educators, however, Buchmann and Floden's (1991, 1992) concerns over coherence have been largely taken as a dislike for common conceptualizations of teacher education or connected educational experiences. In considering coherence, Buchmann and Floden do not ignore the benefits of a coherent curriculum or faculty collaboration. Instead, they frame coherence as a common "thread" or "narrative" from which faculty can explore differing concepts or opinions of teaching and learning. According to Buchmann and Floden, education is too complex and learning too unpredictable to be structured in such a narrow and consistent form that leaves little room for divergent experiences.

Although this literature review will focus on several of the common physical attributes of coherent teacher education programs present in the literature (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Graber, 1996; Howey & Zimpher, 1989; Tom, 1997), a conceptual analysis also provides definitional clarity for the idea of program coherence. In particular, research on program coherence has theorized coherence around three lenses – structural, conceptual, and enacted coherence. In analyzing the extant literature on how teacher education is conceived and carried out, Feiman-Nemser (1990) suggested that the research literature and public debate about the revision of teacher education preparation at the time revolved primarily around structural and conceptual

considerations. Feiman-Nemser (1990) noted that various structural reform measures included the "call for adding a fifth year, increasing the amount of field experience, limiting the number of credit hours in education, [and] creating alternative routes to teaching by providing on-the-job training for liberal arts graduates" (p. 212). Feiman-Nemser further suggested that structural alternatives to then-current programmatic practices reflected various "political and economic considerations more than clear thinking about what teachers need to know of how they can be helped to learn it" (p. 212). Although reform proposals may spring from political or economic causes (Theobald, 2008), not all structural reform considerations are precipitated by politics and economics.

For instance, Hammerness (2006), in her four-year review of Stanford University's teacher education program and its search for alignment across coursework and student experiences, found that continued faculty involvement in programmatic reform contributed to a coherent program. Specifically, this involvement allowed for the redesign of coursework, reevaluation of field experiences, and diminished the "course fragmentation" that often occurs as faculty shared texts and ideas about courses and the direction of the program. These structural revisions to Stanford's teacher education program had no expressed political or economic foundation. Instead, the stated goal of the revision was to clear the structural limitations that could inhibit conceptual alignment in the teacher education program at Stanford.

On the other hand, conceptual reform, as Feiman-Nemser (1990) noted, "includes a view of teaching and learning and a theory about learning to teach" (p. 220), rather than seeks to alter teacher preparation to meet a political or economic end. Some examples of conceptual teacher education considerations include centering courses or programs around common themes or purposes, and creating opportunities for "collaborative resonance" (Cochran-Smith, 1991)

between university and field-based teacher educators. In one of the earliest pieces on program coherence, Barnes (1987) described moves made by the teacher education programs at Michigan State University to create conceptually coherent opportunities for preservice teachers. The primary source of conceptual coherence in the programs grew from a thematic curriculum that provided for clear connections across all student course work and field experiences, and provided a cumulative effect on student learning that was "increasingly more elaborate and refined" (p. 15). Stressing once again the importance of conceptual coherence, Feiman-Nemser (2001) recommends that, "more than rhetoric, the values and ideas that make up a program's mission and conceptual framework inform the design and sequencing of courses and field experiences" (p. 1023). Though these two notions of coherence, structural and conceptual, are linked. For teacher educators like Barnes and Feiman-Nemser, the design and implementation of a successful teacher education program begins with the development of a common conceptual orientation around which a program can be structured.

Although it is important to consider coherence through the "ideas or visions" and "logistics or design of learning opportunities" that provide successful program experiences for preservice teachers (Grossman et al., 2008, p. 274), as of late teacher educators have noted the need to look beyond the design or visions of a teacher education program to how students *experience* a program. A small shift has emerged in the empirical literature that has resulted in less of a top-down approach to the description of coherent programs, either structurally or conceptually, and more of a focus on what actually,

> [G]oes on *within* the black box of [teacher education] programs – inside the courses and clinical experiences that candidates encounter – and how the experiences programs design for students cumulatively add up to a set of knowledge, skills, and dispositions

that determine what teachers actually do in the classroom (Darling-Hammond, 2006, p.

11, emphasis in original).

Several years before Darling-Hammond's suggestion to research what "goes on *within*" teacher

education programs, Zeichner (1999) commented on the need for more in-depth studies of

programs, arguing that "the identification of key aspects of successful programs cannot come

from the large-scale surveys that only examine the outer layer of programs from a distance" (pp.

9-10). However, Zeichner's is not the earliest call for descriptive accounts of how teacher

education programs are experienced. Howey and Zimpher (1989) note, at the time, that "little

exists in the way of comprehensive descriptions of teacher preparation programs beyond the

impersonal, prescribed documentaries gathering dust on the shelves of regulatory and accrediting

agencies" (p. 1). Several pages later, they comment that the purpose of their research into

effective teacher education "was to generate rich descriptions of the 'lived experiences of teacher

education' through intensive site visitations" (p. 11). For Howey and Zimpher too, meaningful

research into the effectiveness of teacher education did not emerge from generic accounts of the

structure of a program. Instead, the effectiveness of a program is measured through the

experiences of faculty, students, and local educators associated with the program. In other words,

coherence might refer to the *lived experiences* of a teacher education program.

Heeding the calls of Howey and Zimpher (1989), Zeichner (1999), and Darling-

Hammond (2006), teacher educators at Southeastern State University have sought to explore this

side of program coherence known as enacted coherence (Cuenca, Schmeichel, Butler,

Dinkelman, & Nichols, in press; Dinkelman, 2010; Dinkelman et al., 2009). In his description of

enacted coherence, Dinkelman (2010) notes that it,

…[E]xtends the lens of analysis beyond the conceptual (i.e., the concepts and ideas that

form a program's vision for teacher education) and structural (i.e., the logistics,

organization, and sequence of teacher education components) to include the ways in

which prospective teachers actually experience and live their teacher education programs.

Enacted coherence refers to the degree to which the actual experiences of a teacher

education program fit together across time and settings and work toward program aims.

In this sense, enacted coherence is not revealed in program descriptions, frameworks, and

course sequences. (p. 158).

While focused on the enactment of one teacher education program, the current research from

Southeastern State University has concentrated on the experiences of those responsible for the

instruction and supervision of preservice teachers, not the preservice teachers themselves. If

there is a gap in the literature base on enacted coherence from Southeastern State University, it is

that the research has not explored the "ways in which *prospective* teachers actually experience

and live their teacher education programs" (Dinkelman, 2010, p. 158, emphasis added). One goal

of this research study is to begin to close this gap through an investigation of how students in a

paired student teaching placement experience the final semester of their teacher education

program.

As noted previously, though this study investigates how the goals of one teacher

education program are *enacted* during the student teaching semester, the remainder of this

literature review focuses on specific attributes of coherent programs rather than the theoretical

lenses used to conceptualize the idea. Attributes of successful teacher education programs

suggest ways of investigating how preservice teachers experience a teacher education program.

In broad form, three kinds of attributes shape the enactment of a teacher education program, or

what prospective teachers experience in coursework and field experiences throughout a program: a thematic curriculum, student cohort groups, and integrative field experiences. Two additional attributes – faculty collaboration in program design and the continuous evaluation and revision of a program – speak more directly to those responsible for working within programs (e.g., faculty, graduate assistants, field-based teacher educators).

To establish the five common attributes of coherent teacher education programs, I turned to several empirical studies that highlight characteristics of coherent teacher education programs. Most of the program coherence literature centers on the theoretical aspects of coherence or specific student experiences in coherent programs. I found only four studies that examine experiences that help make teacher education programs coherent (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Graber, 1996; Howey & Zimpher, 1989; Tom, 1997). Table 2.2 summarizes the four studies and their alignment with the five common attributes. A fifth study (Levine (2006a, 2006b) addresses attributes of coherent teacher education programs as part of a larger work on teacher education reform. However, the descriptions in this work are brief and include a limited amount of evidence from the programs analyzed, which leaves little room for an effective analysis of the study or the necessary information of programs included in the research.

To determine the common attributes of coherent teacher education programs, the empirical literature that describes characteristics of successful and coherent programs were compared for commonalities. The number of attributes varied from study to study. For instance, Howey and Zimpher (1989) listed 14 attributes of coherent programs while Graber (1996) mentioned the fewest attributes, at eight. The five attributes that frame the remainder of this literature review are those mentioned in each of the four studies. Because the literature on program coherence most relies on descriptive accounts of individual programs or a set of

Table 2.2. Common Attributes of Coherent Teacher Education Programs

ATTRIBUTES	HOWEY & ZIMPHER (1989)	GRABER (1996)	TOM (1997)	DARLING-HAMMOND (2006)
Faculty Collaboration In Program Design	Faculty collectives create a sense of joint ownership in and responsibility for the program.	Commitment to consensus among faculty in building a program that is in the best interest of students.	With discrepant preferences and beliefs about teacher education, faculty should seek to maintain commitment to program creation and reform.	Faculty plan together and share syllabi in programs that recognize collective faculty roles.
A Thematic Curriculum Approach	Conceptions of teaching are the driving force for structuring and interrelating curriculum and field experiences.	Curricular messages reinforced and supported in each aspect of the program.	Multiculturalism and a view of pedagogy as encompassing the moral should connect all field work and course work.	Clear vision of good teaching permeating all coursework and field experiences.
Student Cohort Groups	Creates a sense of pride, public accountability, and shared ordeals that reinforce a commitment to teaching.	Development of esprit de corps; expectation of consistent peer collaboration.	Emphasizes peer culture, personal support, and teaching as a collegial profession.	Working closely with others on case methods, teacher research, and Portfolios allows for an application of learning real problems.
Integrative Field Experiences	Well-organized experiences with mentor teacher understanding of student teaching expectations.	Close school-university partnerships allow students to observe teachers who model program goals.	Carefully chosen experiences that support ideas presented in coursework.	Extensive, well-supervised experiences that expertly model theory and practice.
Continuous Program Evaluation	Formative feedback used to assess effects of program.	Faculty engage in consistent dialogue about students, field experiences, & coursework.	Continuous reflection needed that moves past short-term forms of renewal.	School- and university-based faculty jointly engaged in transforming teaching, schooling, and teacher education.

programs, identifying a common framework for understanding successful programs is difficult. While valuable, the four studies highlight a need for a common language of coherent programs to move forward research on program coherence.

Although the literature base used to construct the common attributes may not be complete, every effort was made to find literature that moved beyond general program description and toward more specific claims about important program attributes or characteristics. These attributes will be further visited in following chapters as they serve to contextualize Southeastern State University's undergraduate social studies education program in Chapter Four (Context). In Chapters Five (Findings) and Six (Discussion) I discuss the research findings through one of five attributes –integrative field experiences. A final note is necessary. The literature examined in the remainder of this section is explicitly examined with an eye toward developing greater understanding about program coherence. Certain topics in the following sections, like student cohort groups and faculty collaboration, have an extensive literature base but are less relevant to a discussion of coherence (e.g., Seifert & Mandzuk, 2006; Zollers, Albert, & Cochran-Smith, 2000). Therefore, such studies, although important for what they reveal about different aspects of teacher education, will not be discussed in the following sections.

Faculty Collaboration in Program Design

Before a coherent and meaningful teacher education program can take shape, there must be, simply put, faculty "buy-in" to the idea of program design and/or revision. Darling-Hammond (2006) frames this notion succinctly when she advises: "To find success in [teacher education] programs, faculty members must want to work as part of a team and participate in ongoing refinement of the program vision" (p. 293). With her words as a signpost for the design

of successful programs, it is best to begin the description of faculty collaboration in program design with Darling-Hammond's research. Darling-Hammond shares her work on successful programs through an extensive set of case studies of seven programs built around a faculty commitment to providing students with a coherent program experience. The seven programs analyzed include elementary and secondary teacher preparation programs at the following colleges and universities: Alverno College, Bank Street College, Trinity University, University of California, Berkeley, University of Southern Maine, University of Virginia, and Wheelock College.

Darling-Hammond (2006) employed a mixed-method approach to data collection. To identify the seven programs that would be analyzed, Darling-Hammond and her research team engaged in an extensive review of potential programs.[3] Initially, the research team constructed a list of 40 programs perceived as successful teacher preparation programs. After a comparison of each program to a set of criteria the researchers developed, the number of potential programs was reduced to 19.[4] To further reduce this list, surveys were sent to teacher education experts who were asked to assess the list of programs provided and to nominate other programs they perceived as successful. Additionally, the research team analyzed documents and publications about each program, and consulted educators in the local communities for their personal evaluation of the programs under consideration. Through this series of consultations, surveys, and document reviews, the list of potential programs was reduced to 14. From these 14 programs, the researchers chose seven programs they felt provided a cross-section of "public and

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[3] Linda Darling-Hammond's research team consisted of 10 teacher education researchers: Letitia Fickel, Julia Koppich, Maritza Macdonald, Kay Merseth, Lynne Miller, Gordon Ruscoe, David Silvernail, Jon Snyder, Betty Lou Whitford, and Ken Zeichner.
[4] The three criteria focused on programs that prepare teachers for "teaching for understanding," "working with diverse learners," and "professional responsibility and for leadership" (p. 345).

private universities in different parts of the country, educating both elementary and secondary teachers in different kinds of communities, and in settings large and small" (p. 346).

The data collection process for each site began with a review of program documents (e.g., syllabi, assignments, portfolios, minutes of faculty meetings, publications about the programs). This initial approach to data collection allowed researchers to better understand each program prior to scheduled interviews and observations, and enabled the research team to determine coherent aspects of a program from a structural perspective. To check for the enactment of what each teacher education program suggested it accomplished, researchers conducted a series of interviews with program participants and observations of courses and other learning settings. Interviews and focus groups were conducted with teacher educators, administrators, preservice teachers, and mentor teachers. Observations occurred in teacher education coursework, student teaching experiences, and a variety of meetings among university-based faculty. Additional interviews, observations, and surveys were conducted of program graduates to document the impact of their teacher education experiences on classroom practice.

From this extensive data set, Darling-Hammond (2006) notes several examples of faculty development opportunities or committees put in place that promote a culture of collaboration. At Alverno College, a faculty institute occurs three times each year that range from a period of several days to several weeks. In these meetings, the faculty considers various topics of teaching, with some of the more recent topics including "critical thinking, group discussions, integrated curriculum, and gender equity issues" (p. 294). Where Alverno College provides for faculty collaboration through periodic institutes, Bank Street College has provided for regular program-wide curriculum reviews that occur at monthly faculty meetings. These curriculum reviews allow "instructors to share their craft, connect their work to what is happening in other courses, and

guard against redundancy or exclusion of important information" (p. 294). Finally, the faculty at Trinity University is encouraged to collaborate in the review and revision of programs due to administrative "support of faculty time and consideration of such initiatives as valuable service and scholarship" (p. 295). For faculty in each of these programs, collaboration has become routine because a culture of collaboration was instituted among the faculty and encouraged by those in administrative positions.

The academic climate at many colleges and universities has been described as "publish or perish." Such an environment often precludes faculty from collaborating with colleagues or focusing on teacher education at, what is often viewed as, the expense of research. Darling-Hammond (2006) notes that faculty in seven programs in her study value opportunities to collaborate in course and program development and research that benefit program growth and student learning. At several of the programs in Darling-Hammond's study, how a faculty member achieves promotion and tenure, and even the nature of scholarship itself, has been reconceptualized. The relationships between universities and local schools have been strengthened as faculty are encouraged, or at certain universities like Trinity and Southern Maine, are expected to conduct a portion of their instruction and research in the field. The growth of professional development schools has allowed faculty to instruct preservice teachers in the schools where they complete field observations, and work with inservice teachers to strengthen the relationships between universities and schools. Additionally, while some faculty at Trinity hold traditional campus-based appointments, others have a joint appointment where work responsibilities are divided between work in PDSs and the 'traditional' expectations of teaching and research on campus.

These clinical faculty members have tenure-track status, and with the support of university administration, are allowed to use their work and research in PDSs and resultant publications when their tenure or promotion status comes under consideration. It is this support for the work in schools and applied scholarship, like Southern Maine's adoption of Boyer's (1990) conceptions of scholarship, that has enabled "teacher education faculty to engage fully in the demands of their work and make contributions to knowledge without undermining their opportunities for tenure and promotion" (Darling-Hammond, 2006, p. 296). Russell, McPherson, and Martin (2001) echo Darling-Hammond's sentiment of the negative impact a "publish or perish" environment has on a faculty's ability to engage in collaborative work. In their reflective essay on the state of coherence and the need for reform in teacher education, Russell and his colleagues believe that the focus on research rather than teacher education,

> [F]urther distances faculty from one another (and from the field) and perpetuates the production of educational research driven by narrow focus and career advancement. Attending to one's own best interests does not lead to the internal cohesion needed to sustain effective new teacher education practices (p. 46).

The findings from Darling-Hammond (2006) and the reflections of Russell et al. (2001) suggest that a collaborative work environment in teacher education has an influence on how teacher educator's approach and design preservice teacher experiences. Further evidence from studies conducted at Southeastern State University and elsewhere highlight the power of faculty collaboration as a response to the inevitable challenges faced by teacher educators in research-intensive colleges and universities (e.g., Cuenca et al., in press; Dinkelman, 2010; Graber, 1996; Howey & Zimpher, 1989).

At each program in her study, Darling-Hammond (2006) found faculty who "were involved in ongoing collaborative inquiry into student learning in relation to the program's teaching and assessment practices" (p. 58). For the social studies education program at Southeastern State University, collaborative inquiry is not only an explicit goal for student learning, but an idea that shapes the nature of faculty and graduate student involvement in program design and implementation. In addition to monthly faculty meetings, faculty, graduate teaching assistants, and staff are invited to participate in an on-going seminar, known as ESOC 9700. Social studies teacher educators at Southeastern State use this course to discuss opportunities and challenges presented by experiences in teacher education coursework and field experiences, as well as to discuss the direction and design of the social studies program. This bi-weekly seminar has developed over time with seminar goals that reflect the evolving interests of participants at certain points.

One ESOC 9700 seminar that took place in the 2008-2009 academic year provides evidence of the participants' commitment to collaboration in program design. In the months prior to the 2008-2009 academic year, several faculty and graduate teaching assistants expressed an interest in focusing the 9700 seminar around the development of a pedagogy of teacher education (Loughran, 2006). To document their evolving pedagogy of teacher education and the exploration of program aims, the nine seminar participants agreed to collect data throughout the academic year that included audio-recordings of the 12 seminar meetings and discussions from an online forum that supplemented discussions in seminar meetings. To date, three research pieces have emerged from this particular ESOC 9700 space (Cuenca et al., in press; Dinkelman, 2010; Dinkelman et al., 2009). Each of these studies is evidence of a commitment to program design from those involved in the instruction and supervision of preservice teachers in the social

studies education program. As mentioned previously in the section on enacted coherence one

limitation of these collective studies is that they are limited to the perspectives of the teacher

educators and do not include the voices and experiences of preservice teachers in the program. If,

however, the goal is to elaborate on the benefits and respective actions of faculty collaboration in

program design, this research provides descriptive accounts of the spaces teacher educators

inhabit and the conversations that occur as teacher educators develop a coherent program.

The first piece (Dinkelman et al., 2009) dissects the ESOC 9700 seminar as a setting in

which participants "learn to teach in community" (Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, &

Bransford, 2005, p. 385). Dinkelman et al. (2009) use Hammerness and colleagues' (2005)

framework for teacher learning to assess how participation in the ESOC 9700 seminar helped

participants grow as teacher educators and assisted in their understanding and implementation of

the teacher education program. Through their involvement in this collaboration, the faculty and

graduate assistants articulated their thoughts on teacher education, worked toward a clearer

vision of the goals of the program, shared aspects of practice from specific teacher education

courses and supervisory experiences, elaborated the tools available to teacher educators within

the program, and encouraged certain dispositions or habits of teacher education practice. As a

whole, involvement in the 9700 seminar provided participants with a sense of shared ownership

over the program, and its direction and design.

However, the impact of the 9700 seminar extends well beyond the clarification of a

pedagogy for teacher education. Dinkelman (2010) uses data from one seminar meeting to

explore the issues of authenticity and honesty among preservice teachers and teacher educators.

He suggests that the collaboration made possible by the 9700 seminars allows for moments of

honesty and divergent perspectives that can result in the rethinking of a program's aims or its

enactment. For Dinkelman, effective teacher education occurs when teacher educators "create

conditions wherein students feel they can be honest about, and willing to share, their developing

thinking about teaching and learning" (p. 167). As the social studies program coordinator and

course instructor of ESOC 9700, Dinkelman hoped that this sense of honesty and authenticity

would extend to the different spheres in which teacher education took place.

To elaborate on the sense of community that had developed within the seminar and

teacher education program, Dinkelman (2010) shares a conversation that began when one

graduate teaching assistant expressed a concern about the uncertainties involved in teaching the

introductory course known as ESOC 2450. This insertion of uncertainty into conversations about

teacher education resulted in an unexpected dialogue on the risk and dangers of indoctrination,

the different expectations held by course instructors, and the goals of the program.

Contemplating the relationship between collaborative spaces like 9700 and the development of

coherent programs, Dinkelman notes that "the coherence of a teacher education program is

heavily influenced by the expectations of honesty, authenticity of discourse, and conditions for

engagement that students experience as they make their way through it" (p. 171). The creation,

continued implementation, and perceived importance of spaces like the ESOC 9700 at

Southeastern State University, the curriculum reviews at Bank Street College, or the faculty

institutes at Alverno College, as these research studies have noted, are important tools available

to faculty who commit themselves to the design and/or revision of teacher education programs.

The final research piece from the 9700 seminar in Southeastern State University's social

studies program is a reflection on this commitment to program design. During the 9700 data

collection process, teacher education programs at Southeastern State University were informed

that funding would be allowed for only three field visits to observe student teachers' practice

instead of the four visits allowed previously. With a reduced number of visits, conversations took place within 9700 about how to confront this new challenge (Cuenca et al., in press). Seminar participants devised a program innovation that provided for more regular interactions between student teachers and university supervisors. These regular meetings, known as field instructor breakout sessions, were directly attributed to participation in the ESOC 9700 seminar. Those responsible for the supervision of student teachers, namely graduate teaching assistants, felt that the collaborative conversations in 9700 allowed participants to ponder the purposes and nature of breakout sessions, and at the same time to share concerns and challenges faced during these supervisor-student teacher meetings.

Howey and Zimpher (1989), in an early multiple case study research of effective programs, found that among the faculty at the six institutions studied, "not only is there more of a shared agenda for instruction but a sense of joint ownership in and responsibility for the total program" (p. 247). Howey and Zimpher's findings emerged from a comparative study of six elementary teacher education programs in the Midwest region of the United States of America. Like Darling-Hammond (2006), the programs studied in Howey and Zimpher (1989) were recognized by "state-level stakeholders, described in national journals, and designated as national award recipients, to be distinctive, if not exemplary" (p. 6). The six programs studied were at Ball State University, Indiana University, Luther College, Michigan State University, the University of Toledo, and the University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire.

Because the goal was to explore the "lived experience of teacher education" (p. 11), the data collected began with the study of each program's history to provide context, followed by the collection of "verbal accounts (transcribed), observations, document review, and anecdotal records" (p. 12), that included "taped interviews, field notes, and the collection and study of

several artifacts such as curriculum reports, research reports, and course syllabi" (p. 12). Although the data collection process was extensive for each site, unlike Darling-Hammond's (2006) multi-case study that took place over an academic year, data collected for Howey and Zimpher's (1989) research occurred over a period of a few visits, or one visit in the case of one program. Such a limited time-frame data collection process may be a weakness of this study, as the brief inquiry may afford only a small window into the lived experiences of the program.

In relation to faculty collaboration, however, faculty at the six institutions had a sense of collegiality that came from common conceptions of teaching at large institutions like Michigan State, or were the result of a sense of community at smaller institutions like Luther College and the University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire. For these smaller programs, collaboration in program design was evident because of the personal relationships faculty had developed as they were more likely to be neighbors, friends, or simply knew each other well in and out of work (p. 225). Alternatively, collaboration occurred at Michigan State University because programs were centered on a common theme that resonated among the faculty and a desire to see that theme in practice. Beyond the closeness or common goals expressed by faculty, Zimpher and Howey found faculty at each institution that commented on their desire and ability to care for students. For instance, students at Michigan State were quick to compare the attention faculty gave to the enactment of intimate and meaningful courses and experiences for students that other smaller universities failed to provide.

With his own teacher education experiences as context, Tom (1997) analyzes the problems that consistently face teacher education discussed previously in Chapter One and the outset of the Program Coherence section of Chapter Two, and counters that these problems are best approached through a general reform of teacher education. From his experiences as a faculty

member at Washington University in St. Louis, Tom describes 11 principles, five conceptual and six structural, that teacher educators can consider as they redesign their own programs. However, as Tom notes, these principles are not meant as prescriptions for the ails of teacher education at large, or for specific teacher education programs. Instead, he suggests that his principles are meant to "encourage a teacher education faculty to deliberate on particular conceptual and structural issues while rethinking its programming" (p. 14). In other words, his ideas are meant to encourage collaboration among faculty as they consider the purpose and design of programmatic experiences. For Tom, the problem that faces faculty collaboration in program design is not the desire to collaborate, but the ability to accomplish the complex task of program design.

Tom points out that like teaching, teacher education is a socially constructed practice in which each faculty member brings with them to the conversations of program implementation various experiences and beliefs about the purpose of teacher education and its design. He notes that:

> Most teacher educators believe program renewal works best when done by a large faculty with diverse forms of expertise. … However, the larger the program faculty, the more intricate the process is for conceptualizing, implementing, and renewing a program. A trade-off exists between identifying enough faculty to sustain the breadth of content but not so many that meaningful collaboration becomes impossible (p. 123).

Tom's analysis echoes a finding suggested by Howey and Zimpher (1989), that small groups of faculty involved in program design may have greater opportunity to develop a sense of community helpful to program reform efforts.

In a study of how student cohort groups promote coherent programmatic experiences in their own teacher education program, Lamb and Jacobs (2009) found that faculty collaboration

was key to a meaningful cohort experience. Through an analysis of course syllabi, transcripts from faculty meetings, field notes, and end-of-program surveys from 23 students across a two-year teacher education program, Lamb and Jacobs found that a personal commitment to the process of teacher education made the difference between an effective and ineffective experience for students. Seriousness of purpose, Lamb and Jacobs note, helped them link student experiences and assignments across courses in ways that promote more powerful experiences than might have otherwise occurred. To summarize their experiences as faculty in the cohort model, Lamb and Jacobs note that student cohort groups "forced us to make time for collaboration and provided us a venue to articulate priorities and share teaching and learning goals and experiences" (p. 139). However, like other research on faculty collaboration, the fear of "publish or perish" is ever present for the authors as they point out that "planning and implementing a coherent program takes more of faculty members' time than teaching individual courses and may be less regarded with respect to tenure and promotion decisions" (p. 139).

The final study in this section to explore the benefits of faculty collaboration in program design, Graber (1996) analyzed the attributes of the Physical Education, Wellness, and Sports Studies teacher education program at the University of South Florida (USF). Unlike Darling-Hammond (2006) and Howey and Zimpher's (1989) multiple case study design, Graber's selection of USF's physical education program was deliberate due to its mention as the only program within the field of study (physical education) where "students in the elementary (K-8) track appear to retain the influence of the program" (p. 452). To determine why teachers retain what they learn from the physical education program at USF, Graber conducted a series of formal and informal interviews with faculty and students, and observed four courses within the program and attended one regularly scheduled faculty meeting. Graber's (1996) data collection

period, although never specified, appears to have occurred in a much smaller time frame that might provide a limitation along the lines of Howey and Zimpher (1989).

With this concern of the data collection process as context, it should be noted that each faculty member interviewed mentions the importance of consensus in program development. Graber (1996) remarks that "from the beginning, faculty have been committed to developing a consensual working environment, that while sensitive to the needs of individual members, is most sensitive to building a program that is in the best interest of students" (p. 462). Graber suggests that faculty in USF's physical education program put ego and academic interests aside, and that this desire to collaborate and build consensus is evidenced in regular meetings, the design of coursework, and "the commitment to hiring new faculty who will support the orientation of the program as it has evolved" (p. 462). This notion of consensus presented by Graber provides a logical transition point to discuss the literature that explores the danger in having faculty who are too like-minded, and how a shared mindset can, in effect, limit student experiences.

Although faculty collaboration in program design is expected and desired in the program coherence literature, it is the nature of collaboration and how teacher educators think about teaching and learning that is most often critiqued. Winitsky et al. (2001), in their study of professional development schools, suggest that a coherent approach to program design and implementation may be at odds with an educational ideal often promoted by many teacher educators – democracy. Coherence, in theory, expects those responsible for program design to develop a common frame of reference or the ability to compromise, an action that might be difficult for program participants from different educational backgrounds to achieve. As teacher educators interested in bridging the gap between schools and universities through the

implementation of PDSs, Winitsky et al. believe that program design should take into consideration the perspectives of all stakeholders (e.g., teachers, administrators, students), not just university faculty. They suggest that individuals who hold divergent perspectives about issues like classroom management can create confusion for preservice teachers, which can steer students away from the goals of a coherent program. Therefore, teacher educators must put in considerable time and effort to develop a programmatic experience in line with the teaching goals held by all those involved in program design and implementation. Winitsky et al. (2001) are correct to critique the potential lack of coherence between field and campus-based teacher educators as repeated studies, discussed in the first two chapters, have expressed the importance of field experiences and field-based teacher educators on preservice teacher development.

Additionally, the simplification of coherence to faculty consensus, or "group think," is of great concern to teacher educators. In a study of nine teacher education programs, Tatto (1996) makes the case that although shared norms and expectations among faculty may facilitate coherent experiences, this does not mean that "all faculty within or across programs [are expected] to 'think alike,' as diversity of thought brings about richness of learning experiences" (p. 176). For Tatto, rigidity rather than diversity of thought impedes faculty collaboration as teacher educators might limit their willingness to consider a wide-range of ideas that might lead to the betterment of teacher education programs. Instead, faculty collaboration is best achieved when there is shared understanding about the direction and goals of the program, even if there is a modicum of disagreement among faculty about how these goals will be consistently achieved.

In the end, concern over faculty collaboration has not been in the desire to collaborate or even at some institutions described in these studies, the ability and time to collaborate. Instead, the concern has been the extent to which faculty should be expected to have a like-minded

approach to teacher education when in the midst of collaboration. Hammerness (2006), in her

longitudinal review of Stanford's teacher education program, gives voice to a concern expressed

among teacher educators and students in Southeastern State University's social studies education

program (Dinkelman, 2010), a concern that will be discussed further in Chapter Four.

Hammerness' concern rests simply in the potential development of a "party line" among faculty

and within coursework "students felt that they needed to parrot back" (p. 1262). Her concern that

a thematic curriculum might result in preservice teachers' dismissal of a potentially valuable

curriculum is a concern that will receive further consideration in a following section, when the

benefits and shortcomings of a thematic curriculum are discussed.

Continuous Program Evaluation

Another feature of effective teacher education programs, continuous program evaluation,

frames program coherence as something that exists best when in perpetual motion. The

evaluative process of a teacher education program and its effectiveness can occur through

informal conversations among faculty members, reflections upon student feedback, or more

formalized and periodic faculty meetings where members consider the structure and intended

effects of program experiences upon student learning. Hammerness (2006) perhaps summarizes

this attribute best when she suggests that:

> Coherence in teacher education programs should not be seen as summative results to be
>
> achieved that culminate in having 'arrived at' coherence. Rather, efforts toward
>
> coherence should be understood as part of the steady work of such programs, a
>
> continuing and necessary effort of adjustment, revision, and calibration (p. 1263).

At Stanford, this process of adjustment and revision occurred through regularly scheduled

meetings where faculty members discussed the "vision of the program in light of how to address

the gaps" (p. 1261). Rather than perceive the teacher education program as a finished product that cannot be altered, faculty used student feedback and their own experiences as course instructors to develop new opportunities for student learning. For instance, several results of these faculty meetings included the addition of a required course on assessment, and a yearlong project known as the "Teaching Event" where students completed a series of reflective writing assignments.

However, these additions to the curriculum are not left immutable. Instead, faculty are allowed and expected to express their concern about any program addition or revision, even after implementation. In the case of the "Teaching Event" and assessment course, several faculty members "felt that students had become overwhelmingly focused on the new assignment cycle to the detriment of other powerful experiences and assignments" (p. 1261). Conversations such as these take place at many of the programs described in the coherence literature as teacher educators consider the design and implementation of teacher education programs as a never-ending, albeit challenging, progression. The remainder of this section describes what emerged at some of these programs as faculty members seek to provide the most effective experiences for preservice teachers in an ever-evolving educational landscape.

The dominant form of program evaluation occurs through conversations among faculty members, either through informal conversation points or in the more formalized setting of a weekly to monthly meetings. At the University of South Florida, the conversations that occurred among faculty were the result of a commitment to communication. Graber (1006) notes that "when faculty are concerned about issues such as curricular overlap, and are committed to deliberate and frequent communication with their colleagues, a powerful program intervention begins to take hold" (p. 457). To the faculty members in the physical education program,

coherence and the promotion of effective learning was a high priority. Though there were no formalized settings for program review and renewal, faculty members insured that conversations took place on a regular basis. This commitment to collaboration and program renewal led to a program that provided students a coherent message about the goals of the program and the expectations of faculty.

As noted in the section on faculty collaboration in program design, faculty at many of the institutions that Darling-Hammond (2006) discusses involve themselves in regular faculty meetings or curriculum reviews. For example, curriculum reviews occurred at Bank Street College and Trinity University, where faculty members are encouraged to share new course syllabi and ideas about the state of the programs. Program evaluation occurs not only in regular meetings, but it exists in the teacher education classroom as well. At many of the institutions, faculty members consistently ask for and receive "feedback and critique from their peers" as it is deemed important by faculty and administration at all levels that they hold "their teaching practice up to close examination and scrutiny" (p. 298). Due to the formalized feedback faculty receive in regular curriculum reviews and the informal feedback peer observation provide, faculty in Darling-Hammond (2006) are continuously involved in the process of program evaluation and revision.

For the social studies program at Southeastern State University, program evaluation occurred in two formal spaces: monthly faculty meetings and the bi-weekly ESOC 9700 meetings. The ESOC 9700 seminar brings faculty and graduate teaching assistants together to explore social studies teacher education in both theory and practice. The ever-changing membership of each year's 9700 group regularly uses some of their time together to critique the current state of the preparation program and to offer solutions to existing problems. Evidence of

the program's willingness to continuously evaluate program practices is the implementation of field instructor breakout sessions (Cuenca et al., in press). As discussed in the faculty collaboration section, breakout sessions emerged out of the university supervisors' (or field instructors, as they are known within the program) belief that a reduced number of field visits would hinder their fieldwork with student teachers. As a result, ESOC 9700 members developed the bi-weekly breakout sessions that would allow supervisors to build stronger, more continuous relationships with student teachers and assist them with adversities on a regular basis.

At other institutions, program evaluation and revision is primarily the result of formative feedback. At many of the programs evaluated in Howey and Zimpher (1989), faculty members take seriously the feedback of students, either through course evaluations, sustained conversations in the midst of learning, or large scale evaluative procedures. For instance, at Michigan State University there was an Office of Program Evaluation that oversaw the evaluation of each teacher education program. The office

> [W]as established to coordinate the evaluation of all the undergraduate to provide an
> information base for the continuing development and improvement of programs. It also
> provides technical support to individuals in the various programs who are sustaining
> program evaluation and, finally, contributes to research on teacher education (p. 202).

These evaluations occur across programs, such as college-wide research on student beliefs, or were focused on program-specific issues. However, this form of program evaluation is a rare case in the institutions studied by Howey and Zimpher (1989). For the most part, program evaluation occurs through a consideration of written student feedback about individual courses or the program as a whole, and regular conversation between faculty and students during office hours.

The discussion of this attribute ends with a return to Tom (1997), who argues that, for faculty who endeavor continuously onward in search of coherence, "program renewal is dependent on our sustaining a particular mindset" (p. 125). Like Hammerness, Tom suggests that this mindset is one in which evaluation and revision is a never-ending process. However, he draws a distinct difference between this mindset and the capacity for continuous evaluation and revision. Tom mentions various barriers to a lasting commitment to revision: "the press of time, the call of our current students, and limitations of follow-up study [of program revisions]" (p. 125). Tom suggests these barriers can be overcome not only through the mindset he and Hammerness propose, but also through the deliberate self-study of individual and program practices that might sustain the renewal process.

A Thematic Curriculum Approach

Another attribute of coherent teacher education programs is a thematic approach to the curriculum preservice teachers experience in their teacher training. Teacher education is often critiqued for the fragmented nature of coursework and field experiences (e.g., Goodlad et al., 1990; Tom, 1997). One response by teacher educators is to redesign preservice experiences around common themes. At the core of a thematic curriculum is a conceptual framework around which a program is structured (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Although the physical structure (e.g., sequence of courses, interaction between courses and field experiences) of a program is important, the work of program design can falter if faculty cannot first agree on a conceptual framework that grounds the program and anticipated student learning experiences. Conceptual frameworks may trouble some teacher educators who value allowing students to explore various conceptions of teaching and, as a result, allows them to determine for themselves what it means to teach. However, Feiman-Nemser (2001) argues that teacher education programs are not

neutral with respect to how teachers are prepared or what they are prepared for. She notes that a conceptual framework offers teacher educators and novices "a view of learning, the role of the teacher, and the mission of schooling in a democracy" that may provide for more effective teacher education (p. 1023). In the remainder of this section I explore conceptual frameworks and how such frameworks influence the arrangement and implementation of coursework and field experiences in coherent teacher education programs.

Tom (1997) provides a starting point in this discussion of conceptual frameworks. He offers two conceptions he believes should be at the center of a thematic approach to curriculum. Two of Tom's (1997) eleven design principles are directly associated with a thematic approach to curriculum. Tom is critical of how teacher education faculty often perceive the nature of "pedagogy" and how they teach ideas of multiculturalism. I discuss each idea in turn. For Tom, a strong conceptual framework for teacher education would frame pedagogy as a moral activity. According to Tom, many teacher educators have misappropriated the term "pedagogy" to mean the act, or methods, of teaching. Instead, he suggests that pedagogy is more than instructional methods or what he labels the "how-to" emphasis of teaching. Tom believes that a definition of pedagogy should include "the moral (some would say the political) dimension of the teacher's role" in the classroom (p. 106). This moral aspect of pedagogy implies that educators must distinguish "between what is appropriate or inappropriate, good or bad, right or wrong, suitable or less suitable for children" (van Manen, 1994, p. 139). Unfortunately, novice educators often enter teacher education programs with the belief that teaching is the straightforward activity of transmitting content knowledge (Lortie, 2002). Associated with this belief is the expectation that teacher educators will teach them techniques to accomplish that purpose (e.g., classroom management techniques, and instructional methods).

Tom (1997) argues that even among teacher education faculty this view of pedagogy is predominant. Tom admits that to define morality in relation to pedagogy is complicated because teacher educators and preservice teachers bring to conversations about teaching their own diverse views on morality and its appropriate place in schools. As a result, teachers and teacher educators often resort to the technical dimensions of pedagogy rather than risk challenging discussions that might help new teachers complicate their understandings of teaching as moral activity. Tom notes, however, that to entertain the idea that pedagogy encompasses the moral "does not require a teacher educator to give moral prescriptions to the novice" (p. 109). Instead, Tom argues that teacher educators are responsible for teaching preservice teachers to: consider teaching from multiple perspectives, understand the evolution of teaching over time, and to develop powerful pedagogies. According to Tom, the reconceptualization of pedagogy is a first step toward the development of a meaningful teacher education curriculum.

Tom's (1997) second principle is the inclusion of multiculturalism throughout program experiences. Multiculturalism has become part of a large number of teacher education programs over the past few decades. Tom associates the rise of multiculturalism with the advent of a globalized society. However, Tom critiques teacher education's current use of multiculturalism. He believes that much of what colleges of education teach about multicultural education is a glossing over of the ideas behind multiculturalism. Tom suggests that for teacher educators to appropriately address multiculturalism they must first "pry beneath the surface characteristics of multiculturalism" to determine what ideas are central to the direction of their respective programs and preservice teacher learning (p. 120). Tom admits that faculty consensus as to what is and is not multicultural education is "difficult to achieve and may be unwise to compel since diverse interpretations are defensible" (p. 121). However, conversations of multiculturalism and

its place in teacher education curriculum are necessary. In a thematic curriculum the ideas of

multiculturalism and pedagogy as a moral activity cannot occur in one specialized course with

little connection to other teacher education coursework. Tom warns that if that were to occur

preservice teachers would quickly dismiss or forget the ideas presented in a multiculturalism

course. As a result, they would not incorporate those ideas into their continued thinking about

teaching or classroom practice.

Conceptual frameworks are also of great concern at Michigan State University.

Specifically, teacher education programs provide a concrete approach to the development of

coursework and field experiences through a conceptual framework (Barnes, 1987). While a

conceptual framework details the goals and philosophy of programs, the conceptual framework

at MSU also "describes how the program is organized to achieve the desired outcomes" (Barnes,

1987, p. 14). Although a common framework allowed faculty to construct consistent student

learning experiences the presence of a conceptual framework is not enough to ensure effective

preservice teacher learning experiences. Sequential and interconnected coursework and field

experiences built around common ideas are necessary. Barnes suggests that these conceptions or

themes must be more than "rhetoric" because:

> If all program courses, practices, and management strategies used in the program do not
>
> create and support a consistent image of what the philosophy of the program means in
>
> day-to-day classroom life, the program will not contribute to the schema development
>
> that is needed (p. 15).

In other words, what students are taught in teacher education must be experienced *through*

teaching examples across all coursework and field experiences. Otherwise, students primarily

associate their thinking about teaching and learning with what they learn from field experiences.

Darling-Hammond (2006) notes that positive teacher education experiences such as those mentioned in the previous paragraph are "seamless" in a way that "coursework is carefully sequenced based on a strong theory of learning to teach; courses are designed to intersect with each other and collectively … and they are tightly interwoven with … students' work in schools" (p. 97). Some examples from programs in her study might shed light on how a thematic curriculum looks in practice. At Bank Street College, the curriculum is built around the idea that preservice teachers must first experience good teaching in their university coursework. Accordingly, at Bank Street "almost all courses are taught in a workshop fashion" (p. 197). Through the workshop experience students are provided a variety of opportunities to enact the instructional methods they learn. More often than not students learn through small groups activities. Additionally, students do not proceed through their program without experience in the processes of teaching. Instead, students "not only connect concrete problems of practice with theoretical ideas and ongoing fieldwork but also foster habits of mind that raise questions about students' interests and readiness as well as subject matter and its purpose" (p. 197). The key to these experiences is participation in courses where professors "practice what they preach."

At Wheelock College, students pointed to experiences with "good teaching" in teacher education coursework as a significant influence on their own practice (Darling-Hammond, 2006). Instructors of content and pedagogy courses regularly used the methods they expected preservice teachers to use in the classroom. Preservice teachers in these programs noted that disconnects between teacher education and the classroom that peers at other institutions noted did not occur at Wheelock. Professors taught with the methods used in the classrooms where students are placed for practicums, explained pedagogical moves and instructional decisions

made in coursework, and consistently connected coursework and field experiences to the goals and expectations of the respective programs.

Many of the programs discussed in the thematic curriculum literature are elementary education programs and a large number of them are conceptualized through a developmental approach to teaching (Black & Ammon, 1992; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Howey & Zimpher, 1989). Howey and Zimpher (1989) note the preparation of teachers in their study followed a deliberate path from "a focused and technical perspective of teaching to multidimensional perspectives [that] reinforc[ed] more artistic conceptions of teaching" (p. 213). Students in these programs were introduced to general teaching ideas as they initially considered their role and responsibilities as educators. Students built on these initial experiences as they became more aware of the complexities involved in teaching and learning. For example, at the University of Toledo the elementary program was "characterized by an introductory career decision-making course; moves through general pedagogy, educational psychology, and skill orientation; and then proceeds through methods of teaching in the various disciplines" (p. 213). Howey and Zimpher suggest that the key to the experience, at least in the programs studied, is the developmental approach to education. Within these programs, however, faculty members ensured that students were not overwhelmed with too many competing ideas or program goals. Instead of "extended lists of rather disparate objectives" students in these elementary programs had to meet a small number of specific expectations (p. 247).

Black and Ammon (1992) provide a further description of the developmental approach to student learning in the elementary-level Developmental Teacher Education (DTE) program at the University of California-Berkeley. Curriculum in the DTE program is constructed around a belief that "teachers' pedagogical understandings develop through sequential, qualitatively

different levels" (p. 331). To that end, students in the two-year program began their studies with several courses on Piagetian developmentalism, core subject methods courses, and multicultural education courses. In the second year students applied what they learned in their initial coursework to core seminars in math, science, and literacy. Just as important, students completed five student teaching experiences throughout their two years in the program. Students in these field experiences were expected to apply what they learned in coursework.

Developmentalism is not just a conception of learning taught in the DTE program. Black and Ammon suggest that if students are to make sense of the curriculum faculty members "need to establish conditions that would maximize the likelihood of students making our objectives their own" (p. 326). One example of this process includes "ordering courses in a manner that helps students acquire increasingly higher-order understanding and by allowing time for the recursive, self-paced constructive process" (p. 326). Black and Ammon found that the most powerful component of the DTE program was the connection between coursework and the conceptual framework. Students experienced the conceptual framework on a daily basis in coursework and field experiences. These experiences included opportunities for preservice teachers to learn through the "same developmental principles that apply to children learning in schools" (p. 333). Such experiences made the process of how students learn "real" for prospective teachers.

Finally, physical education coursework at the University of South Florida coursework is built around a conceptual framework of movement and development (Graber, 1996). As Graber suggests, "simple consistency, persistence, and integration offer one explanation for why the students at USF abandon or significantly alter their previous commitments to implementing a traditional curriculum" (p. 456). Instead of being presented with a variety of approaches to

physical education the faculty members were in agreement about what students needed to achieve in coursework. Graber notes that faculty at USF believe this agreement allowed for effective teacher education experiences.

In this section I explored aspects of a thematic curriculum. First, these programs have a common conceptual framework around which student experiences are developed. These conceptual frameworks are a part of each university and field-based experience. The ideas expressed by faculty are not disjointed and do not occur in one course among many. Rather, what students learn about teaching is consistently reinforced. Finally, faculty "practice what they preach." They do not lecture on developmentalism or certain instructional methods. Students witness in their field placements what they experience in teacher education coursework. In the next section I discuss an attribute that allows students to explore a thematic curriculum in a social context, student cohort groups.

Student Cohort Groups

The benefits of participation in student cohort groups have been well documented in the literature on coherent programs. For instance, Howey and Zimpher (1989) note that cohort groups provide a "collective sense of pride and public accountability" (p. 249). Additionally, Howey and Zimpher point to the impact cohort groups have on the cohesiveness of students in programs and the development of teacher identity. Tom (1997) adds that these shared ordeals provide students with a "sense of self-confidence and professional commitment" that mixed classroom environments cannot provide (p. 154). In the remainder of this section I elaborate on the benefits of student cohort groups in a coherent program and some cautionary notes about relying solely on cohort groups to achieve coherence.

Howey and Zimpher (1989) observed several programs in their study where long-term participation in cohort groups allowed students to grow closer together. These experiences enabled students to take on complicated and thought-provoking tasks or ideas. Such complicated tasks or milestones provided students with a sense of shared experiences known as "shared ordeals." Student cohort groups and the shared ordeals they provide have a significant presence at many of the schools in the study. Several examples might provide some detail on the effect of student cohort groups. The elementary teacher preparation program at Ball State University was a four-year program. Students enrolled in the program their freshman year and completed the program their senior year. Approximately 20 percent of students drop out of the program in the first two years. The students left tended to grow closer together and appeared "dedicated to pursuing teaching as a career" (p. 213). Howey and Zimpher also interviewed a number of students at the University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire who commented on their shared ordeal moments. Students noted the accomplishment they felt once they had progressed past the ordeal. Those students who completed the block of courses that preceded the senior year referenced end-of-term parties and the creation of t-shirts that "indicat[ed] they have survived the 'block'" (p. 213). To a large degree a sense of community developed among these preservice teachers. For students these shared ordeals consisted of something as small as a difficult assignment or as large as the completion of a field experience or block of courses. Howey and Zimpher point out that not all ordeals are deliberately included in the program experience. However, the incidental ordeals had an equal effect on the development of "individual and collective pride" (p. 250). They do suggest, however, that faculty make an attempt to have "such milestone events or checkpoints … purposefully built into programs at key points" (p. 250).

Tom (1997) suggests that student cohorts may help alleviate the bureaucratization of teacher education. Tom referenced his regular interactions with other teacher educators who proudly exhibited carefully constructed databases. These databases helped faculty keep track of "field placements needed for [the] next semester or the demand for student teaching supervisors over the next academic year" (p. 149). The databases also assisted in the student advisement process. Tom believes cohort groups alleviate the bureaucratic issues associated with "rolling" admissions because faculty members are aware of instructional and supervisory needs in advance.

Tom suggests that teacher educators should acknowledge the social dimension of learning and learning to teach rather than treat preservice teachers as individual learners who experience teacher education at their own pace. Such an acknowledgement would recognize that preservice teachers "have relationships with one another and, ultimately, develop collective obligations to the overall profession" (p. 149). For Tom, student cohort groups provide one such outlet for continued social learning through a series of shared experiences. Shared ordeals at Washington University occurred during the one semester students are in a cohort group. In this block of classes the shared ordeal is the stress that students associate with the completion of coursework and student teaching. Specifically, this stress is the result of students having to "cope concurrently with new methods content and teaching responsibility" (p. 152). The stress students experienced brought them closer together and allowed them to provide mutual support for one another.

Darling-Hammond (2006) briefly mentions student cohort groups in relation to field placements at professional development schools. Darling-Hammond found that student cohort groups at those colleges and universities with PDS relationships created "a built-in support

network, offering the student teachers a friendly ear for discussing issues, planning, and instruction" (p. 100). One last study points to the positive impact of cohort groups. In particular, Graber (1996) references the socializing nature of student cohort groups. She notes that students at USF who "show initial resistance to the program orientation often are co-opted by peers who have been persuaded" (p. 456). Graber's intention here is not to suggest that students faced peer pressure from colleagues to become like-minded. Instead, she points to the close friendships and "esprit de corps" developed among students throughout coursework and fieldwork. Participation in the cohort allowed students to openly critique learning experiences and challenge pre-existing ideas about teaching.

Graber's comments bring to light several critiques of cohort groups. Tom (1997) notes that shared ordeals "may strike some teacher educators as antithetical to the norms of a helping profession and perhaps even bordering on fraternity hazing" (p. 154). He points out that the shared ordeals students experience at Washington University were not "characterized by the arbitrary or excessive use of power" (p. 154). These experiences consist of milestones that students complete collectively, such as a challenging assignment or block of courses. Finally, Lamb and Jacobs (2009) caution that cohort groups alone do not ensure coherence. As with each study discussed to this point the development of a coherent program consists of a number of attributes. Combined, these attributes provide effective teacher education experiences for preservice teachers. This inclusion of student cohort groups into a teacher education program is but one attribute among several that can lead to a coherent program. In this section, I explored four of the five attributes of coherent teacher education programs. The four attributes discussed to this point focused primarily on the university-based component of teacher education. In the

next section I describe the final attribute of integrative field experiences and how these experiences can reinforce university-based learning.

Field Experiences in Coherent Programs: A Theoretical Perspective

In Chapter One, I explored the concern over disconnected experiences between fieldwork and university coursework and its potentially damaging effect on student learning. Many preservice and inservice teachers have long lamented the lack of "realism" teacher education provides preservice teachers about what occurs in schools. Instead, those who have experienced teacher education often come to the conclusion that teacher learning does not occur through coursework, but through field experiences and interactions with teachers who understand the realities of the classroom (e.g., Britzman, 1986, 2003; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Guyton & McIntyre, 1990).

Darling-Hammond (2006) contrasts these experiences of fieldwork in "traditional" teacher education programs with those from coherent, reform-oriented programs. She suggests that in programs where coursework is disassociated from field experiences, preservice teachers' field experiences inform how they perceive teaching and learning. The 'one shot,' traditional approach to field experience generally takes place in the last semester of a program. This experience often occurs after students completed coursework. For these students, what was learned in university coursework is not often referenced in student teaching. In contrast to the traditional field experience model, Darling-Hammond (2006) notes that effective programs "require students to spend extensive time in the field as observers and participants in the teaching process … examining and applying the concepts and strategies they are simultaneously learning about in their courses" (p. 99).

The core argument of my study is that preservice teachers might bridge university and field-based experiences through the implementation of an alternative student teaching model, paired student teaching. In the first section of this chapter, I explored the benefits and challenges of certain alternative approaches to student teaching that included paired student teaching. In the second part of this chapter, I explored four of five attributes of coherent teacher education programs. In this section, I explore the final attribute of coherent programs – integrative field experiences. The two components of integrative field experiences I present in this section not only describe what makes field experiences successful for coherent programs but also provide the theoretical lens for the study. To date, researchers have offered evidence that field experiences in coherent programs are connected to rather than independent of coursework and are considered carefully and deliberately. I begin with a discussion of connected coursework and field experiences.

Field Experiences Connect to Coursework

Researchers of coherent teacher education programs have found that a key component of successful field experiences are their connection to university coursework. In this section I explore how teacher educators at various institutions have promoted this connection. Students at five of the six programs in Howey and Zimpher (1989) completed field experiences with an explicit connection to all coursework. Michigan State University was the lone exception where field experiences were deliberately delayed. Faculty at MSU were concerned by the potentially negative influence early field experiences might have on students' perceptions about teaching. Instead, MSU developed a mentor program "wherein supervising teachers in the field can be knowledgeable about the emphasis on student misconceptions and conceptual learning and relate these experiences to their classrooms" (p. 221). Alternatively, at the five programs with

integrative field experiences practicums occurred regularly throughout the programs as faculty found value in the experiential nature of fieldwork. However, faculty members were careful to make connections between fieldwork and coursework.

At Luther College, experience is important to preservice teacher development. Field experiences at Luther provide students with opportunities to engage with ideas promoted in coursework. Howey and Zimpher (1989) referenced a student from Luther who commented on the expressed connection between coursework and fieldwork. The student stated: "one thing that is carried throughout when I'm in the schools is I always think about the 'hands-on' nature of the experience … activity-centered things … active learning … discovery … creativity" (p. 39). This form of field experience, where students are allowed to explore conceptions of teaching learned in coursework, occurs at other institutions in Howey and Zimpher (1989).

At Indiana, Howey and Zimpher (1989) observed field experiences that varied by course instructor. Howey and Zimpher use two instructors to elaborate on this variety. One social studies methods instructor at Indiana focused on a critical perspective to teaching. In the field component of the class students were expected to critique the practice they observed through the lens presented in class. Another instructor used field experiences outside the classroom to encourage students to think beyond the confines of the school environment. The instructor regularly used a local museum as an instructional tool where students "develop instruction based on their experiences at the museum" (p. 148). Although field experiences were approached in different ways, the students still valued their experiences because they saw connections between coursework and fieldwork. No matter when fieldwork began or if it shared a common design or purpose across all courses the programs in Howey and Zimpher (1989) exhibited success through

the field component of their programs. This success was measured in preservice teacher retention and implementation of ideas learned in coursework.

Of the research on program coherence reviewed, I found only one study that focuses solely on field experiences. Grossman et al. (2008) explored how preservice teachers perceived their field experiences in a survey of 15 institutions that prepare K-6 teachers for New York City schools. Of the 15 institutions surveyed there were 22 elementary programs. 14 of these programs were graduate programs and the other 8 were undergraduate programs. The findings of the study came from 248 student surveys across the 15 institutions, a review of program field experience documents, and interviews with program and field placement coordinators. Survey questions focused on preservice teachers' "experiences in the field, including the relative consistency between fieldwork and coursework, the nature of supervision, and the quality of their cooperating teacher" (p. 276).

If the goal of a research study is to investigate the presence of coherence, then there is a benefit to the exploration of preservice teachers' perceptions of coherence between coursework and field experiences. However, if the aim of the study is to document perceptions of coherence between fieldwork and university coursework there exists a possible limitation in the data collection process of Grossman et al. (2008). In conducting a study whose findings rest primarily on surveys of students and what program coordinators *say* happens in programs the researchers did not acknowledge that perceptions of study participants are partial and may not fully reflect the complexity of the experiences in question. Also, the researchers did not mention the goals of the various programs or how these goals played out in field experiences. Nor did Grossman et al. consider the lived experiences of preservice teachers in the particular programs and what actually occurred in fieldwork and coursework. Instead, the researchers attempted to quantify the

presence of coherence through a statistical analysis of program features such as the number of field experiences required or the number of supervisory visits. Although the descriptive program features in the study are indicative of a coherent experience, Grossman and colleagues made no attempt to understand the nature of these features of the programs in terms of enactment. However, the authors do allude to future studies that "could begin to unpack some … characteristics that contribute to coherence, including shared vision or the organization of coursework" (p. 282).

With that methodological concern noted, the findings of Grossman et al. (2008) align with other research on coherent programs. Grossman and colleagues found that those programs with higher instances of coherent practices (i.e., field experiences throughout the program, a significant number of supervisory visits, and program involvement in mentor teacher selection) resulted in preservice teachers who "reported significantly more program-fieldwork coherence" (p. 282). In particular, students who perceived a coherent link between the field and campus noted the presence of field experiences throughout their programs. However, early and often field experiences do not necessarily result in students' implementation of university learning into practice.

If these experiences are to have some influence on preservice teachers' perceptions of teaching, then there must exist noticeable connections between the coursework and fieldwork. Those same students who noted a large number of field experience placements also commented that these field experiences were most directly connected to methods coursework. These students also noted a significant amount of field experience hours for each course. Due to the nature of data collection Grossman and colleagues could not elaborate on the nature of field experiences that students linked to coursework. Nor could they elaborate on the assignments students were

expected to complete. However, Grossman et al. do point to the need for directed assignments that bridge coursework and fieldwork. In particular, they suggest that faculty structure assignments so that students are provided with opportunities to apply what they learn through coursework to classroom settings.

Likewise, Tom (1997) points to the positive influence integrative field experiences can have on student learning. Contrary to the elementary program at MSU that was discussed in Howey and Zimpher (1989), Tom (1997) suggests that field experiences should not be delayed until the final semester of a program. If done appropriately, early field experiences may provide disruptive learning opportunities that "may break down the apprenticeship of observation" (p. 137). Like other institutions the field experiences at Washington University were not offered for the sake of providing students with a large number of hours in the classroom. Instead, field experiences were designed so that students were asked to "confront their assumptions about teaching, learning, and schooling" (p. 138). These experiences included students' personal investigations of their thoughts and experiences with teaching and learning. They also incorporated ideas and assignments from coursework that asked students to consider alternative approaches to what they observed in fieldwork.

Darling-Hammond (2006) also describes field experiences directly connected to coursework. Students are expected to hold a theoretical orientation toward teaching that is the result of sustained field experiences that connect to coursework. Specifically, university coursework is designed around the intersection of theory and practice so that students are regularly "pose[d] tasks and problems to be explored in the clinical setting and that support analysis and further learning about practice" (p. 154). Several programs provide evidence of these field assignments and the idea of guided observation. At the University of Virginia,

students took a course titled Curriculum, Management, and Conflict Resolution. In this course, preservice teachers learned about models of classroom management. But they were also asked to complete a series of field assignments that connected to the class. For example, students studied various conflicts and classroom management issues that occurred in their field placements. They applied what they have learned in the management course to observed conflicts through the production of case studies. Darling-Hammond (2006) also referenced the reflective logs students were expected to complete at Alverno College. During field experiences, reflective log questions asked preservice teachers to consider student and cultural diversity, exceptionalities, developmental needs, and student motivation.

Diez (1999) describes the field experience component at Alverno College in an earlier account of the elementary program. The elementary education program at Alverno is like many of the programs described in this chapter in that it is centered in a development approach to teaching and learning. Students concurrently completed initial coursework and field experiences that "require them to apply the frameworks they are learning with individual students or small groups in tutorial settings" (p. 233). As students progressed through the program they took on larger instructional tasks and assignments. Diez also elaborates on the reflective logs that students are required to complete. These faculty generated logs "guide students in each of four semester long field experiences prior to student teaching … [and] direct students to make links between theoretical knowledge and practical application" (p. 233). The assignments and structure of field experiences at Alverno have been the result of a faculty belief that field experiences serve a purpose greater than providing students with field contact hours. Instead, faculty members "believe that it is critically important to create experiences that model the kind of learning environment they expect teacher candidates to create for their students" (p. 233).

Finally, field experiences at Southeastern State University are integrated across the curriculum, with a field experience component to the introductory course in social studies education and as a stand-alone course in the block semester. Additionally, student teaching occurs in conjunction with a weekly student teaching seminar and recently instituted field instructor breakout sessions (Cuenca et al., in press). Breakout sessions were primarily implemented to counter the reduction in student teacher observation visits. However, they were also the result of concerns that university supervisors felt disconnected from the student teaching experience *and* the student teaching seminar. Although seminar instructors had the opportunity to meet with student teachers on a weekly basis the supervisors believed that they had limited space to reinforce student learning in their three field visits.

Cuenca et al. (in press) found that field instructor breakout sessions promoted coherence through stronger connections between field and university-based teacher education. Prior to breakout sessions the university supervisors interacted with student teachers approximately once a month. In the time between visits student teachers had little recourse other than the weekly seminar meeting to discuss the problems they faced or ideas they wanted to attempt in teaching. With generally large numbers of students in the seminar, there was little time available for all student problems or ideas to be explored. In contrast to the student teaching seminar the breakout sessions provided a space for supervisors to help students more fully explore their teaching. Cuenca and colleagues suggested that this was the result of the smaller numbers of student teachers with whom the supervisors worked. Additionally, they suggested that supervisors had a greater understanding of the students' school contexts than seminar instructors and other students might have.

This review of the literature on integrated coursework has provided a set of examples in how various teacher education programs approach course and fieldwork integration. Although each program addressed this integration differently there is a common thread that connects the research and the programs. At the core of each program is the belief that field experiences are educative and reinforce what is taught on campus. However, such experiences do not come easily. The idiosyncratic nature of field experiences so often critiqued can directly impact what and how students learn in fieldwork, and how they perceive teacher education (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Grossman et al., 2008; Hawkey, 1997). Coherent teacher education programs have confronted this idiosyncrasy through the direct involvement of faculty in the field placement process. I turn now to the literature that describes this involvement.

Carefully Constructed Field Experiences

The ability for students to see connections between coursework and fieldwork does not occur through happenstance. The faculty in programs explored in this chapter carefully structure field experiences through a set of expectations and a determination of who works with preservice teachers. Many of the field experiences discussed in the literature occurred in PDS or lab schools that had a distinct relationship with teacher education programs. Alternatively, those programs without school partnerships carefully consider who mentors students from their programs. The remainder of this section explores this aspect of integrative field experiences.

Darling-Hammond (2006) presents several approaches that teacher education programs have taken to insure student success in fieldwork. These approaches include professional development for mentor teachers and the use of professional development schools and lab schools. However, for each of these programs there is a key component to the field placement process. This component is the careful consideration of the mentor teacher. Many of the

programs have direct control over the selection of the mentor teacher. Alverno College is one of those institutions without a professional relationship with local schools. Therefore, Alverno built close relationships with individual teachers or teaching teams. Alverno used these close relationships to regularly "request specific teachers to work with particular student teachers" (p. 157). These requests insure that students were placed with teachers who understood their responsibilities as mentors and the goals of the program. Darling-Hammond also notes that programs "often place novices with their own graduates who have learned a sophisticated practice and a way of thinking about teaching that are compatible with the program's university-based work" (p. 154). She suggests that this practice increased coherence between fieldwork and coursework as preservice teachers were regularly encouraged to practice what was learned in coursework. Preservice teachers also took part in conversations with mentor teachers that reflected the conversations they had with university instructors.

Many of these programs also provide mentors with handbooks to limit misunderstandings about the student teaching process or the idiosyncratic practices of mentor teachers. These handbooks detailed mentor responsibilities and what student teachers are expected to complete in terms of workload, assignments, or other aspects of their work. Some programs also have "regular meetings with [mentor teachers] to discuss the university-based curriculum, the clinical curriculum, and questions about mentoring and supervision" (p. 161). These meetings occurred in large group form or by individual placement, reinforced program expectations, and allowed teacher educators to address unanswered questions that mentor and student teachers might have about the student teaching process.

Darling-Hammond (2006) shares three examples of programs with differing school partnerships to contrast those programs without university-school partnerships. The first school

partnership she presented is the lab school at Bank Street College. This lab school, called the School for Children, is a private school the college operates. Bank Street also had partnerships with local public schools that adhere to the lab school model. Darling-Hammond notes that student observers and student teachers could be found in many of the classroom in the lab school and the local school partnerships. These preservice teachers observe and teach in the classrooms of teachers who were graduates of Bank Street College. For the most part, these teachers modeled what was taught to them when they were preservice teachers at Bank Street. There also exists a close physical relationship between the college and the school as they share the same building space. Darling-Hammond observed the interactions of preservice teachers, teacher educators, classroom teachers, elementary students, and parents on a regular basis. These interactions regularly occurred in such spaces as the library and school cafeteria, which was shared by all individuals in the building. Such interactions created an environment that minimized the traditional disconnects between university and schools.

As Darling-Hammond notes, lab schools have largely gone out of style and been replaced by professional development schools. The teacher education program at Trinity University serves as Darling-Hammond's example of a PDS relationship. At the time, Trinity University's network consisted of two elementary and three secondary schools. All field experiences and student teaching at Trinity occurred in these schools and in the classrooms of teachers who had "been designated as mentors by the university" (p. 178). These mentors are provided adjunct faculty status and professional development through the university. Their primary responsibilities were to "serve as guides, role models, collaborators, and coaches for Trinity students, modeling the kind of in- and out-of classroom habits of professional practice Trinity hopes to inculcate in its teacher education students" (p. 178). Unique to Darling-Hammond's study is Trinity's lack of

university faculty-run methods courses. Mentor teachers instructed preservice teachers in the use of subject-specific instructional methods. Placing this responsibility on mentor teachers required a close school-university partnership to insure that preservice teacher learning matched the expectations of the teacher education program.

The final partnership model Darling-Hammond described is the professional development district model at the University of Southern Maine. Darling-Hammond notes that this model is unique in that each school district involved in the partnership "admits a cohort of fifteen to twenty students who progress through the internship as a group" (p. 182). A district teacher and a teacher educator from USM served as site coordinators for each cohort and direct the students' coursework and field experiences. All cohort experiences and coursework occurred in the specific district where students were admitted. Additionally, teachers at partnership schools instructed preservice teachers in a variety of courses and were heavily involved in program management. The programs in Darling-Hammond provide valuable insight into how effective teacher education programs construct field experiences. Programs maintain control over the field placement process instead of allowing for a wide-range of field experiences that might produce negative outcomes. This aspect of program control is the result of programs that choose who mentors preservice teachers and/or that build close partnerships with local schools and school districts.

There also exists a careful consideration in how students complete field experiences in the physical education program at the University of South Florida. Beginning with the second semester students "convene with teacher educators at a local middle school that has been designated as a Professional Development School" (Graber, 1996, p. 460). Students and teacher educators met twice a week at the PDS and regularly included classroom teachers in their

conversations. As a result, strong and collegial relationship developed between teacher educators and physical education teachers at the school. University faculty placed students with mentors acknowledged as "strong models" for initial field experiences and student teaching. Additionally, students were "supervised at least bi-weekly by pedagogy faculty from the university" (p. 460). As a result, university faculty members had a degree of control over how classroom teachers mentor preservice teachers..

The selection of mentor teachers occurred in a variety of ways in the 22 programs investigated in Grossman et al. (2008). This included the student selection of their mentor, school administration selection of mentors, and teacher education program control over the selection process. Many of the programs in the study found it difficult to control the field placement process due a number of factors (e.g., student and school requirements for student teaching, limited number of experienced, and a lack knowledgeable mentor teachers). Grossman and colleagues suggest that their findings point "to the importance of programmatic control over field experience" (p. 283). Their analysis found that "candidates from programs whose faculty took primary responsibility for choosing cooperating teachers reported significantly higher perceived levels of program-field coherence than did candidates from programs that allowed school sites (e.g., principles) or the candidates themselves to choose" (p. 280). Students perceived greater coherence between coursework and fieldwork in programs with control over the placement process. Additionally, Grossman et al. found that the number of supervisory visits also influenced the degree to which preservice teachers perceived coherence. Preservice teachers were provided with more opportunities to discuss the goals and expectations of their respective teacher education programs the more interactions they had with their university supervisors.

Finally, Grossman et al. (2008) provide a cautionary note that points to the importance programs should place on the quality rather than the quantity of field experience hours. Grossman and colleagues recall the work of Dewey (1904/1964) and suggest that "it is not the number of hours spent in the field but how that time is used that makes field experiences educative" (p. 283). The various studies detailed in this section suggest that coherent programs have considered this problem and provide field experiences that are educative and reinforce what students learn in coursework. However, field experiences that are meaningfully connected to coursework also require considerable faculty involvement in the placement process. If teacher educators are concerned about the lasting effects of teacher education, then the idiosyncratic perspectives of classroom teachers cannot dominate field experiences. Instead, if the goal of a teacher education program is coherence and the lasting effects of said coherence then preservice teachers need to complete field experiences in classrooms where mentor teachers beliefs and practices align with those of teacher education programs. Additionally, opportunities for coherence are increased when there are university supervisors who are knowledgeable of how to best assist student teachers. More importantly, in coherent programs supervisors and mentors are directly and more often involved in the teacher education process.

<div align="center">Summary</div>

In this chapter I explored two teacher education reform measures: alternative approaches to student teaching and coherent teacher education programs. Both reform movements have received increasing consideration over the past few decades as traditional field experiences and preparation programs have been critiqued for their ineffectiveness in teacher preparation. Specifically, preservice teachers have long acknowledged the influence field experiences have on their practice and thinking about teaching (e.g., Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Feiman-Nemser,

2001). Proponents of alternative student teaching models point to the isolating effects of traditional student teaching experiences (e.g., de Lima, 2003; Feiman-Nemser, 2001) and the dominance of mentor teachers in the training process (Davies, 2005; McIntyre & Byrd, 1998) as evidence for field experiences that promote cultures of collaboration and professional growth (e.g., Holmes Group, 1986, 1990; Taylor et al., 1992; Yopp & Guillaume, 1999). As one of those alternative approach to student teaching, paired student teaching provides students with a shared student teaching experience. From the research to date there is evidence that paired student teaching challenges the hierarchical nature of student teaching (Bullough et al., 2010; Gardiner, 2010); reinforces ideas of collaboration and professional support (Bullough et al., 2002; Baker & Milner, 2006); and reduces feelings of isolation and a 'sink or swim' mentality (Bullough et al., 2002, 2003).

Another preservice teacher critique is that teacher education programs are often seen as largely impractical and disconnected from the classroom (e.g., Darling-Hammond, 2006; Tom, 1997). Accordingly, teacher educators have sought to reform traditional teacher education programs that often put emphasis on theory at the expense of practice and provide disjointed learning experiences for preservice teachers (e.g., Darling-Hammond, 2006; Howey & Zimpher, 1989). Research into reform measures intended to increase program coherence has sought to understand what makes certain teacher education programs successful through their impact on preservice teachers' practice and professional beliefs. Several conceptions of coherence have emerged (conceptual, structural, enacted). This chapter focused primarily on the attributes of coherent teacher education programs, namely faculty collaboration in program design, continuous program evaluation, a thematic curriculum approach, student cohort groups, and integrative field experiences.

As this literature review draws on distinct bodies of research to establish a conceptual frame for this study, there is a shared link between them all – field experiences that allow preservice teachers to explore notions of good teaching. At the end of Chapter One I stated that the purpose of this research study was to investigate the extent to which the paired teaching model contributes to student teachers' learning and integration of one teacher education program's vision for teaching and learning. Toward this goal, the components of a coherent field experience (i.e., integration with coursework, carefully considered placements) serve as the analytic tool for my investigation of paired student teaching and how the model might contribute toward a coherent teacher education program.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

In Chapter One I explored several problems that challenge preservice teacher education. Preservice teachers bring to teacher education a wealth of personal experiences with teaching that inform how they perceive the roles and responsibilities of teachers (Cole & Knowles, 1993; Lortie, 2002). What these preservice teachers learn about teaching on college and university campuses is often at odds with what they believe teaching is, how it occurs, and where real teacher learning takes place. Research on preservice teacher development has found that many preservice teachers believe teaching occurs in an isolated manner (Feiman-Nemser, 2001) and is simple and straightforward (Labaree, 2004; Lortie, 2002). These same teachers also believe that teacher learning takes place through "real" classroom experiences and not the academic study of teaching (Britzman, 1986; 2003). As such, many teacher educators have sought to reform preservice teacher training experiences because preservice teachers so often value fieldwork over university coursework (e.g., Armaline & Hoover, 1989; Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1985, 1987).

In Chapter Two I described the alternative student teaching model of paired student teaching (e.g., Bullough et al., 2002, 2003, 2010) and a characteristic of effective teacher education known as program coherence (e.g., Darling-Hammond, 2006; Howey & Zimpher, 1989). Each of these seeks to improve the quality of preservice teacher experiences through better integration of campus and field-based teacher education. Additionally, both reforms seek a lasting influence on teachers' practices. The purpose of this study is to investigate how a paired

student teaching experience might promote coherence between the goals of a teacher education program and the practices of preservice teachers. In this chapter, I illustrate the research design and methods used to collect and analyze data of the lived experiences of those individuals involved in one paired student teaching experience. I return briefly to the research question that guides this study:

> If the intended goal of the social studies teacher education program is coherence, what opportunities and challenges does paired student teaching provide toward meeting this goal? More specifically,

- To what extent does the mentor teacher in a paired student teaching experience facilitate the student teachers' learning and integration of a social studies education program's vision for teaching and learning?

- To what extent does the university supervisor in a paired student teaching experience facilitate the student teachers' learning and integration of a social studies education program's vision for teaching and learning?

- To what extent does a paired student teaching experience facilitate for student teachers the learning and integration into practice of a social studies education program's vision for teaching and learning?

Case Study Research

For this study I used a case study design to investigate how participation in a paired student teaching placement allowed preservice teachers to learn and integrate into practice the vision for teaching and learning promoted by a social studies education program. Stake (2000) notes that "as a form of research, case study is defined by interest in individual cases, not by the methods of inquiry used" (p. 435). More so, Merriam (1988) suggests that case studies allow "an

examination of a specific phenomenon, an event, a person, a process, an institution, or a social group" (p. 9). In this particular study the individual phenomenon or case of interest is the paired student teaching experience and how it might influence program coherence.

Case study researchers have described various forms of case study. Merriam (1998) describes three forms: *particularistic*, *descriptive*, and *heuristic*. Stake (1995, 2000) also describes three forms: *intrinsic*, *instrumental*, and *collective*. Finally, Yin (2003) offers five forms of case study research: *critical*, *unique*, *representative*, *revelatory*, and *longitudinal*. After a careful consideration of each form I came to the conclusion that Merriam's (1998) descriptive form of case study research best reflected the aim and structure of my study. What sets descriptive case studies apart from other forms of case study research is that the "end product … is a rich, 'thick' description of the phenomenon under study" (p. 29). Merriam provides further descriptions about the nature of descriptive case study. She notes that it should:

- Illustrate the complexities of a situation – the fact that not one but many factors contributed to it;
- Show the influence of personalities on the issue;
- Show the influence of the passage of time on the issue;
- Include vivid material – quotations, interviews, newspaper articles, and so on;
- Obtain information from a wide variety of sources (pp. 30-31).

There are a number of complexities involved in my study. The larger context of a teacher education program frames my research. However, the investigation focuses on one component of the program experience – the student teaching semester. How each individual involved in the paired teaching experience contributes to the paired student teachers' learning and integration of program goals is influenced by a number of factors. These might include such factors as the

nature of individual program experiences and personal biography. In other words, participation in paired student teaching is only one factor among many in the preservice teachers' learning and integration of program goals. Additional factors might include the influence of the preservice teachers' mentor teacher, university supervisor, current and former course instructors, and preservice teacher peers. Another influence might consist of the preservice teachers' participation in coursework and field experiences over time. Finally, extensive data collection procedures are needed to document these complex interactions and influences that occur in university and school environments. In the following sections I describe how I came to focus on the four individuals involved in the paired student teaching experience, data collection and analysis procedures. I then turn to a brief consideration of my subjectivities as a researcher and the generalizability of my study. I begin with the selection of research participants.

Selection of Research Participants

I used purposeful sampling to secure the necessary participants for my study (Patton, 2002; Stake, 2000). Due to my focus on the student teaching experience as a whole, I required participation from those individuals who make up the student teaching triad (i.e., student teachers, mentor teacher, and university supervisor). Because each individual holds a distinct role within the student teaching triad, I was forced to vary participant sampling procedures. Additionally, because context is of relevance to case study research I was also in need of secondary research participants (Merriam, 1998). These secondary participants included the: course instructors for the paired teachers' professional block of courses (ESOC 4350, 4360, 4450L), social studies program coordinator, social studies student teaching seminar instructor, and other preservice teacher members of the student teaching seminar and paired teachers' breakout session group. In this section I elaborate on the varied approaches I used to obtain the

necessary participants for the student teaching triad and secondary research participants. I begin with the paired student teacher participants.

The selection of paired student teacher participants was based on several criteria. Specifically, the preservice teacher: 1) was scheduled to student teach in Fall 2009; 2) was enrolled in the Spring 2009 professional block; 3) had exhibited an aptitude for collaboration in the Spring 2009 professional block; 4) had volunteered for participation in paired student teaching; and 5) had requested a student teaching placement within a relatively close distance of other preservice teachers' who had volunteered for paired teaching. Many of these criteria were based on ideas presented in the paired student teaching and program coherence literature about effective training experience. Prior research on paired student teaching points to the need for well-considered student teacher partnerships with previous educational or personal relationships (Nokes et al., 2008; Smith, 2002). Additionally, the program coherence literature notes participation in student cohort groups as one attribute of effective programs (e.g., Howey & Zimpher, 1989; Lamb & Jacobs, 2009).

The first step in participant selection was to determine who was scheduled to student teach in Fall 2009. Initially, 16 students had enrolled for both student teaching (ESOC 5460) and student teaching seminar (ESOC 5560) in Fall 2009. One additional student was enrolled for the seminar only. Of the 16 students enrolled in both the seminar and student teaching, I quickly removed three students as potential participants based on criteria number two. These three students were members of previous professional blocks and had no shared educational or personal relationships with the other 13 students. The 13 potential participants who remained were enrolled in the Spring 2009 undergraduate professional block that consisted of 17 students.

The other four students from the Spring 2009 block had delayed student teaching until the Spring 2010 semester or later.

I then reflected on my instruction of these 13 students in one of the block courses (ESOC 4360) to further reduce this number. I took into consideration the work students had completed in my course, their contributions to class discussions and activities, and the feedback other students had provided about student work in small group settings and assignments. From my analysis of student work and feedback I removed two more students as potential participants. Once I had reduced the potential participant list to 11 students whom I believed could succeed in paired student teaching I contacted each student. In my communication I first asked if the student was willing to participate in paired student teaching and my study. I then asked those students who volunteered "to send me a list of students you would like to work with, and who you would not like to work with in student teaching in the fall" (personal communication, 5 March 2009). In all, nine of the 11 students I invited volunteered to participate in paired student teaching.

After I reduced the number of potential participants to nine, I used the students' placement and partner requests to construct four paired placements. With eight students requested across four placements, there was one student left as an "alternate" if unforeseen circumstances removed a student from student teaching early in the placement process. One such event occurred in May 2009 as one of the eight students originally selected for participation did not receive a passing grade in two of three professional block courses. This student had to repeat these two courses in Fall 2009 and her student teaching was delayed until Spring 2010. As a result, the placement request for the ninth student volunteer was altered to fill the open slot. This alteration was made with careful consideration. The "alternate" (Eleanor) and the student she was placed with (Jamie) had previously worked together on a number of assignments in the

block courses and had indicated a strong willingness to student teach with the other in the initial survey.

After the creation of the four paired placements I moved to the selection of mentor teacher participants. Aspects of program coherence also influenced the criteria for mentor teacher participants. Specifically, mentor teacher participants were expected to have: 1) worked previously with student teachers from the social studies program and 2) received positive reviews from those student teachers. Ideally, mentor teachers were to be program graduates. In the end this was not a determining factor in requesting their participation. However, several of those requested were graduates of the social studies program, including the mentor teacher featured in this study (Kay). Because paired student teaching was a relatively new innovation for the social studies program I directly contacted a number of teachers who had previously served as mentors for preservice teachers from the social studies program. However, I received a response from only one teacher. Therefore, I used a different tack to insure that the assigned mentor teachers knew the goals of the program and had successfully worked with student teachers in the past. I was in direct communication with the program coordinator over a period of days to assign mentor teachers to the four paired teaching requests. These requests were forwarded to Office of Field Experiences at Southeastern State for placement. I then used digital communication to contact those requested mentor teachers to inform them of the placement request and to provide some information on the paired student teaching model.

Over the summer months of 2009 two of the four requested paired placements were confirmed. The remaining four students were placed at the requested schools though the students were placed with separate mentor teachers. Once the two remaining placements were confirmed I contacted the respective school district central offices for approval to conduct research in the

specific schools. I received approval from both districts in July 2009 and contacted the two assigned mentor teachers to invite their participation in my research. By the end of July 2009 both mentor teachers had agreed to serve as research participants.

The final participant chosen for the two cases was the university supervisor. The selection of the university supervisor was based specifically on the units of supervision assigned to graduate teaching assistants for Fall 2009 and Spring 2010. I included Spring 2010 as criteria for inclusion in case I had to delay data collection until Spring 2010. Several supervisors expressed an interest to participate however only one supervisor (Cliff) was assigned four or more student teachers in each semester. At the time I was in need of a supervisor who could supervise four student teachers because I was still under a multiple case study design. Therefore, I approached Cliff to serve as the supervisor participant and he volunteered his participation in July 2009.

As I previously noted, the research design initially consisted of a multiple case study approach. For several weeks at the beginning of the semester I proceeded with data collection for the two cases. However, after initial interviews with the primary participants and a field observation at each school site one of the paired teachers removed himself from student teaching. As a result, I lost the comparative nature of the study and, in consultation with my dissertation chair, I continued with a single case study design. The focus, then, rested on two student teachers (Eleanor and Jamie), their mentor teacher Kay, and university supervisor Cliff.

Case study research often requires the additional study of those contexts that bound the case (Merriam, 1998). Because my study investigated coherence between fieldwork and coursework, I required the participation of the student teachers' course instructors, program coordinator, and fellow Fall 2009 student teachers. The program coordinator would provide context for the overarching goals and expectations of the social studies program. The

participation of the individual course instructors would provide specific detail about the social studies education concepts addressed in their respective courses. Therefore, the selection of each of these individuals was distinctly purposeful. The course instructor participants included Eleanor and Jamie's instructors for their final two semesters of coursework and fieldwork: Curriculum (ESOC 4350), Senior Practicum (ESOC 44450L), and Student Teaching Seminar (ESOC 5560). As the Methods (ESOC 4360) instructor I responded in writing to the interview questions posed to the three course instructors. Finally, I was aware that the ordeals student teachers experienced and shared with one another might influence Eleanor and Jamie and the other paired teachers. At this time I still had four paired student teaching participants and each had provided their consent. In an effort to make accessible the shared experiences among the larger group of preservice teachers, I requested and received the participation of the other 12 preservice teachers enrolled in the student teaching seminar on the first day of class (19 August 2009). Two of these 12 students were also enrolled in the field instructor breakout session with the paired student teachers and their participation was requested at the same time.

<div align="center">Data Collection</div>

One feature of case study design is the lack of specific data collection requirements (Meyer, 2001; Yin, 2003). Meyer (2001) notes that this feature is a particular strength of case studies as researchers can tailor "the design and data collection procedures to the research questions" (p. 330). Because my research question is focused on the student teaching experience, I needed a conceptual framework that could best document that experience. Specifically, I looked to Guyton and McIntyre's (1990) handbook chapter on student teaching and school experiences. Toward the conclusion of the chapter they provide guidelines for the study of student teaching and supervision. Guyton and McIntyre offer several data sources and contexts

Figure 3.1. A Conceptual Framework for Researching the Student Teaching Experience of Southeastern State University's Social Studies Teacher Education Program

(Teacher Education Contexts)   (School Context)

TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM EXPERIENCES	PROCESSES OF SUPERVISION	STUDENT TEACHING

STUDENT TEACHING SEMINAR	FIELD INSTRUCTOR BREAKOUT SESSIONS

-Structure
-Purpose/Goals
-Curriculum

-Interactions
 Among
 Members
-Feedback and
 Evaluation

-Interactions
 Among
 Triads
-Conferences
-Feedback and
 Evaluation

-Interactions
 Among
 Members
-Feedback and
 Evaluation

-Interactions
 Among
 Members
-Performance
-Teaching Skills
-Approach to
 Teaching

DATA SOURCES FOR RESEARCH

-Handbooks
-Interviews
-Program
 Material

-Assignments
-Observations
-Recordings of
 Seminar
-Descriptions
-Digital
 Components

-Interviews
-Observations
-Recordings of
 Conferences
-Descriptions
-Feedback and
 Evaluation

-Observations
-Recordings of
 Sessions
-Descriptions

-Interviews
-Observations
-Ratings of
 Performance
-Analysis of
 Interactions
-Lesson Plans

This conceptual framework is adapted from Guyton and McIntyre (1990) (p. 527).

researchers should use to document the process of student teaching and supervision (i.e., interactions among triads, supervisory models, conferences). These data sources include "interviews, observations, recordings of conferences and seminars, descriptions [of school and teacher education program contexts], and journals" (p. 527). Because the specific context of the student teaching experience in the social studies program bounds this study, I adapted Guyton and McIntyre's conceptual framework to account for the seminar and breakout sessions. Figure 3.1 on the previous page provides a visual representation of this adapted conceptual framework.

Effective qualitative studies also require a degree of triangulation due to the weaknesses all data sources hold. Patton (2002) notes that triangulation is used to "build on the strengths of each type of data collection while minimizing the weaknesses of any single approach" (p. 307). Interviews, observations, and documents work together to provide a rich data set from which to construct greater understandings of the phenomenon under study. These multiple data sources also lend themselves to possibilities for enhanced research validity (e.g., Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2002; Yin, 2003). Table 3.1 on the next page provides an overview of these data sources. I discuss the three forms of data collection in the sub-sections that follow.

Interviews

Participant interviews serve as a way to access how people interpret specific lived experiences. According to Seidman (1991), "at the root of in-depth interviewing is an interest in understanding the experience of other people and the meaning they make of that experience" (p. 3). As such, Seidman advocates the use of semi-structured interviews where "interviewers use, primarily, open-ended questions. The goal [of the interview] is to have the participant reconstruct his or her experience within the topic under study" (p. 9). Semi-structured interviews allow

researchers to guide conversations around specific topics of interest while providing

opportunities to further explore unexpected but potentially significant participant responses

Table 3.1. Overview of Data

Interviews	Observations	Documents
Primary Interviews • 3 semi-structured sessions audio-recorded and transcribed Secondary Interviews • 1 semi-structured sessions audio-recorded and transcribed	Student Teaching • 4 day-long observations and field notes • 2 supervisor observations and field notes, and post-observation conferences audio-recorded and transcribed* ESOC 5560 Seminar • 14 seminar meetings videotaped and field notes • 6 field instructor breakout sessions videotapes and transcribed, and field notes	Classroom Materials • Assignments • Student handouts Seminar Materials • Course Syllabus • Assignments • Course handouts • Online discussion posts • Eportfolio Supervision Materials • Pre-observation forms • Post-observation reports • Supervisor field notes Program Materials • Course syllabi • Program website • Program standards

* Although I did not observe the third supervisor visit, the post-observation conference was audio-recorded and transcribed.

(Gillham, 2000; Patton, 2002; Seidman, 1991). Gillham (2000) labels these follow-up questions

"probes" (p. 46). Probing questions can serve a variety of purposes for the interviewer. Several

of these purposes include providing the interviewer with clarification, justification, relevance,

accuracy, and reflection (Gillham, 2000, pp. 47-52).

Seidman suggests that researchers use a three-interview structure to achieve the necessary

level of understanding about a participant's experiences. The first interview asks participants to

create a personal biography so their experiences within the topic of study are contextualized within their life experiences. Zeichner and Gore (1990) suggest that interviewing participants about their personal biography can capture "the socializing influence of the full range of life experiences" (p. 334). In the second interview participants provide detailed accounts of their experiences in immediate relation to the topic of study. In other words, the second interview should occur while the participant experiences the phenomenon under study. Subsequently, the third interview asks participants to "reflect on the meanings" they made during the previous interviews following the conclusion of the phenomenon (Seidman, 1991, p. 12). Although the first interview took longer to complete due to questions about personal biography, each round of interview took approximately an hour to two hours to complete per participant. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.

Using Seidman's (1991) suggestions, I interviewed the principal research participants three times during the study. Table 3.2 on the next page details when each interview occurred in relation to the other interviews. For the student teachers and university supervisor, the first interview occurred approximately a week prior to the start of student teaching. The mentor teacher interview took place the week after Eleanor and Jamie began student teaching. These first interviews focused on the participants' personal stories and expectations for student teaching, their experiences with teaching and teacher education, and their perceptions of the social studies program's vision for teaching and learning. Although many of the questions I asked were the same for each participant there was some difference based on the participant's role and responsibilities within the student teaching triad. Student teacher first interviews focused primarily on personal biography, pre-teaching and teacher education experiences, conceptions of teaching learning through the teacher education program, and personal

expectations for the student teaching experience and paired student teaching. Questions about

pre-teaching experiences focused on elementary, secondary, and post-secondary school

experiences.

Table 3.2. Overview of Interview Schedule

PARTICIPANT	ROLE	INTERVIEW 1	INTERVIEW 2	INTERVIEW 3
Eleanor	Student Teacher	13 August 2009	21 October 2009	8 February 2010
Jamie	Student Teacher	13 August 2009	21 October 2009	9 February 2010
Cliff	University Supervisor	11 August 2009	19 October 2009	30 January 2010
Kay	Mentor Teacher	24 August 2009	22 October 2009	X*

* I made every effort to schedule a third interview with Kay. These efforts included regular digital and phone communication and a school visit. However, Kay did not respond to these scheduling requests at any point.

In the initial mentor teacher and university supervisor interviews I asked the same

questions in relation to personal biography, pre-teaching and teacher education experiences, and

expectations for the student teaching semester. However, I used additional structured and

probing questions determined by participant roles and responsibilities. For instance, in the

mentor teacher interview I focused on how Kay conceptualized her practice as a mentor teacher,

her beliefs about teaching practice, and the sociocultural contexts of her classroom and school.

For Cliff's first interview I asked questions related to beliefs about teaching and teaching

experience; but I also asked about how he conceptualized his practice as a university supervisor.

See Appendix A for copies of first interview protocols for each primary participant.

Second interviews took place in the ninth week of student teaching (19-22 October 2009).

Eleanor and Jamie had three weeks left in their student teaching placement at this point. They

also had another six ESOC 5560 seminar meetings and two breakout sessions left. Questions that

guided each interview included questions about paired student teaching, program goals, and the student teaching experience. However, other questions were determined by the specific experiences of each participant to that point in the semester. Finally, third interviews took place approximately two months after Eleanor and Jamie graduated from Southeastern State University with a bachelor's degree in social studies education. My original intent was to complete these interviews four to six weeks after Eleanor and Jamie had completed their program. This would have placed the third interviews in the middle of January 2010. However, Kay did not respond to repeated requests for a third interview. I contacted her through digital and phone communication and made a school visit. Yet she did not contact me to schedule the interview. Therefore, I proceeded with final interviews for the other three participants whiled I attempted to schedule the interview with Kay. In the end there was no third interview with Kay. As a result, I have no data that expresses Kay's thoughts on paired student teaching or her work with Eleanor and Jamie after the fact.

Finally, I conducted a single interview with the social studies education coordinator and the instructors for Eleanor and Jamie's professional block and student teaching seminar. Because the seminar instructor and program coordinator was the same individual this interview took place at one time (7 August 2009). Interview questions with the program coordinator/seminar instructor identified in this study as Tom focused on program goals and their development over time, attempts at program coherence, coursework and field experiences, and expectations for the student teaching seminar and paired student teaching. Interviews were also conducted with Randall the Senior Practicum instructor (30 September 2009) and Jason the Curriculum instructor (26 September 2009). Interview questions for these two individuals focused on program goals and the courses they taught. These three interviews took approximately one hour

each and were audio-recorded and transcribed. See Appendix B for interview protocols for these three interviews.

Observations

To supplement the three-interview schedule I conducted a series of field observations in university and school-based contexts. According to Patton (2002), the collection of observational data serves several purposes. Through observation the researcher is "better able to understand and capture the context within which people interact" (p. 262). Such first-hand experience allows the researcher to make connections between other data forms and what occurs during observations. Observations also enhance validity as they provide checks to those findings generated from interviews and other data sources. Because descriptive case studies should account for "the influence of the passage of time on the issues," I conducted these observations over a period of five months (Merriam, 1998, p. 30). Observations began with a field observation of Eleanor and Jamie on 31 August 2009. The observation period concluded with "Eportfolio night" presentations on 9 December 2009. Table 4.2 on the next page provides an account of when these observations occurred. All observations listed in the table occurred in the Fall 2009 semester therefore I do not include the year for each date listed.

Angrosino and Mays de Perez (2000) suggest that field observations be focused in nature. They note that focused observation "necessarily entails [formal and informal] interviewing, because the insights gleaned from the experience of 'natives' guide the [researcher] in his or her decisions about what is more of less important in that culture" (p. 677). In other words, focused observations allow researchers to explore issues of relevance and ignore events or conversations not pertinent to the investigation. For example, my observations focused on issues that pertained to paired student teaching and program coherence. While I took note of most events in the course

Table 3.3. Overview of Observation Schedule

Student Teaching	Breakout Sessions	ESOC 5560 Seminar
• 31 August	• 2 September	• 26 August
• 3 September*	• 16 September	• 2 September
• 18 September	• 30 September	• 9 September
• 8 October	• 14 October	• 16 September
• 22 October*	• 28 October	• 23 September
• 27 October	• 18 November	• 30 September
		• 7 October
		• 14 October
		• 21 October
		• 28 October
		• 4 November
		• 11 November
		• 18 November
		• 2 December
		• 9 December**

* Denotes dates I observed Cliff's supervision of and post-observation meetings with Eleanor and Jamie.
**Denotes Eportfolio night.

of my observations, I framed these notes through the core themes of the social studies program,

what Eleanor and Jamie learned in coursework, and how Eleanor and Jamie integrated those

themes and learning into practice. Additionally, for each of these observations I created open-

ended narratives that provided a detailed account of the interactions between primary and

secondary participants (Rossman & Rallis, 1998). I later used these narratives to develop

interview questions and to assist in the generation of rich description of the phenomenon

(Merriam, 1998). In the following sub-sections I elaborate on my observations in school and

university-based contexts.

School-Based Observations.

In total I conducted six day-long field observations at the school where Eleanor and

Jamie student taught, Adams County High School. These observations were divided into two

categories: four days when Eleanor and Jamie were not observed by Cliff; and two days when

Cliff observed Eleanor and Jamie. On those days I observed Eleanor and Jamie without the presence of Cliff, I focused on three aspects: 1) building a sociocultural understanding of school and classroom environments; 2) documenting the student teachers' practice in relation to the goals of the social studies program; and 3) documenting mentor teacher assistance in relation to their conception of mentoring and the stated goals of the social studies program. In an effort to build a comfortable working relationship with the student teachers and mentor teacher, I scheduled the first field observation in advance. I conducted the remaining three observations randomly throughout the semester so that my presence would not influence how Eleanor and Jamie planned and implemented their lessons.

My remaining observations took place on two of the three days Cliff visited Adams County High School for field observations. For these observations I focused on the three aspects mentioned above. However, I also sought to document how the presence of Cliff could potentially influence the interactions between Kay and student teachers and the student teachers' alignment with the goals of the social studies program. In other words, I wanted to see if Eleanor, Jamie, and Kay altered their behaviors and actions due to the presence of Cliff. More importantly though, I wanted to document the assistance Cliff provided as supervisor and the connections he provided between fieldwork and program learning.

Because I knew my focus was on the development of Eleanor and Jamie in relation to the goals of the social studies program I was largely uninterested in their students as research participants. I acknowledged that the interactions between students and preservice teachers could serve as evidence of how the preservice teachers bridged program goals and practice. However, I believed I could document those interactions through my observation field notes. Additionally, I was able to avoid student and parental consent that other forms of observation (i.e., videotaping

or audio-recording) would have required. I did, however, audio-record and transcribe the post-observation conferences between Cliff and the student teachers.

University-Based Observations.

Outside the school environment I conducted observations of the student teaching seminar and field instructor breakout sessions. I observed six of the seven breakout sessions Cliff conducted with his student teachers. While I was interested in the breakout sessions at large my particular focus was on conversations that related to the core themes of the social studies program and what Eleanor and Jamie learned in coursework. In addition to my field notes, I videotaped and transcribed each session to provide accurate accounts of relevant dialogue. I chose to videotape rather than audio-record these sessions due to the number of participant voices as I wanted to correctly attribute statements to specific individuals.

The final set of observations occurred in the student teaching seminar. On the first night of class (19 August 2009), I introduced myself to the students and described the study and my need for their participation. After I received the student teachers' consent I began my observations of the student teaching seminar on the second night of class (26 August 2009). In all, I conducted field observations of 14 of 15 seminar meetings. To document Eleanor and Jamie's participation in the class, I videotaped these class meetings and took detailed field notes of Eleanor and Jamie's contributions to class conversations. Like the breakout sessions, I videotaped these meetings so that I would have an accurate account of any relevant dialogue. However, I did not transcribe these seminar meetings due to their length and the sporadic contributions of Eleanor and Jamie to class discussions.

Documents

Hodder (2000) suggests that the collection of documents relevant to the topic of interest can assist the researcher in understanding the case as "'what people say' is often very different from 'what people do'" (p. 705). Documents allow researchers to contrast how research participants or institutions contextualize what is practiced against how that practice is idealistically represented in writing or mission statements. To understand research participants and institutions the researcher must recognize that culture "has to be interpreted in relation to a situated context of production, use, discard, and reuse" (Hodder, 2000, p. 706). In this study, there was an explicit need to collect a variety document sources that offered a way to distinguish between "what people say" they do and what they actually do. If I was to investigate the enactment of a teacher education program (what is done) I had to first understand the structural and conceptual components of the program (what is said). The collection of several document sources allowed for this understanding.

The largest set of document sources came from the social studies education program. Documents that might inform the structural and conceptual aspects of the program include those that detail program or course goals. For example, the program website provided information about the overarching goals of the program (i.e., "commitments to social justice, equity, and democratic principles in education and the world beyond schools"). These commitments are framed by a set of teaching standards known as the Social Studies Education Preservice Framework for Accomplished Teaching (or as it is known within the program, SURGE) that is also provided on the website. The social studies program website also provides visitors with additional information about the program structure (i.e., the sequence of courses), admissions, and the student teaching experience.

Additional program sources included course syllabi and student work. For the purposes of this study I collected course syllabi for the five social studies program courses Eleanor and Jamie were enrolled (ESOC 2450, 4350, 4360, 4450L, and 5560). These course syllabi provided me with an overview of what Eleanor and Jamie encountered during coursework. If Eleanor and Jamie integrated into practice what they covered through coursework then these syllabi would provide some evidence of how or what Eleanor and Jamie were expected to teach. Because this study focused on the student teaching semester I collected assignments specific to the student teaching seminar, ESOC 5560. These documents included periodic course assignments, peer observation reports, and online discussion posts. Course assignments were assigned periodically by the instructor with an aim to provide students with real-world applications for program goals. Students also completed two peer observations during the student teaching semester. Such observations were intended to have student teachers reflect on their own practices and the instructional practices of other student teachers. Finally, student teachers participated in an online discussion forum that provided them with additional opportunities to discuss their student teaching experiences.

Another set of documents came from the student teachers themselves. During their time in the program, Eleanor and Jamie wrote and revised a document known as a teaching rationale. This document received consideration in the students' initial course in social studies education, was revisited and revised in the professional block, and received a final revision as part of the capstone assignment for the student teaching semester. I gained a greater understanding of Eleanor and Jamie's development and thinking about social studies education over time through a review of their three versions of the rationale. Mentioned earlier, I also collected Eleanor and Jamie their capstone assignment prior to "Eportfolio night" where students participated in

conversations of the portfolio with other students, faculty, graduate assistants, and "friends of the program." These portfolios provided insight into how they interpreted the program framework and the framework's intersection with practice at the conclusion of the program.

The final document source from the program is the result of Cliff's three observations of Eleanor and Jamie. Prior to each observation student teachers complete pre-observation forms. University supervisors use student teacher responses on these forms to provide context for the observations and post-observation conferences. During each observation the supervisor takes field notes in an individualized and contextualized manner that is determined by the type of lesson observed, student teacher ability level, and how the supervisor conceptualizes his or her practice. Following the observation the supervisor generally conducts a post-observation meeting to discuss the student teacher's instruction. Each observation cycle is completed when the supervisor writes an observation report and shares this report with the student teacher, mentor teacher, and seminar instructor. This observation process yields a series of field notes, forms, and reports from the supervisor and student teacher. I collected these artifacts for the three observation periods for insight into possible connections between program goals, coursework, and the student teaching experience.

The final set of document sources came from the school site. The first documents from the school site I collected included information gleaned from the school website. The website provided information about academics, student demographics, and school policies. The information gleaned from the website provided necessary details about the sociocultural context of the school which was reinforced through observations of the school environment. I used this information to construct the context for Adams County High School in Chapter Four. To provide further detail to the data collection process I also collected all of the assignments that Eleanor

and Jamie produced for student teaching. These assignments included PowerPoint lecture notes, readings, student handouts, homework assignments, exams, and in-class assignments.

Data Analysis

According to Merriam (1998), the "most basic presentation of a [case] study's findings is a descriptive account" (p. 178). Multiple data sources work together to provide a rich data set from which the researcher can construct a greater understanding of the phenomenon under study. However, to provide a descriptive account of the phenomenon, the researcher must first analyze the data collected for "categories that cut across the data" (p. 178). One approach to the creation of data categories is the use of open coding (e.g., Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Merriam, 1998; LeCompte, 2000). The process of open coding allows the researcher to "enter into a qualitative analysis of the relations to other codes" across multiple data sources collected over time (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2008, p. 202).

Throughout the coding process I focused initial codes and eventual categories on two levels of analysis, the: 1) core themes of the social studies program and 2) integrative field experience attribute. Although the focus of the study is on program coherence, it is necessary to define what makes the experience coherent for preservice teachers. For the purposes of this study the preservice teachers' understanding and implementation of the core themes determines to what extent coherence is achieved. As such, I began my analysis with the coding of data related to the core themes. The social studies program in this study professes five themes of "good teaching" around which all student coursework and field experiences are ideally built. This vision of "good teaching" includes reflective practice, collaborative inquiry, rationale-based practice, a culturally responsive and equitable classroom, and active student engagement and worthwhile learning. I provide a more detailed description of these five themes in Chapter Four.

To provide a sense of how I coded the core themes I turn to two examples of interview text related to collaborative inquiry. Collaborative inquiry refers to the expectation that educators work together to figure out problems of practice. Examples of collaboration might include planning or teaching lessons with another teacher or jointly inquiring into the nature of education. The first coding example comes from the first interview with Cliff. In this interview I asked Cliff to define collaborative inquiry. Cliff proceeded to frame much of his definition through what he perceived as classroom realities. He said:

> I'm really good friends with other [teachers], but I certainly don't agree with the decisions they're making for their school or their classroom. I think that's where collaborative inquiry really has a PROBLEM. IT'S A GREAT IDEA, BUT I'm not really sure how that's going to TRANSLATE FROM OUR PROGRAM to what the [student teachers] are ACTUALLY GOING TO CONFRONT (Interview, 11 August 2009).

As I analyzed the text I made quick note of several statements related to the applicability of collaborative inquiry. Cliff had issue with how to bring the idea of collaborative inquiry from the teacher education program into the classroom. From his experiences collaboration did not occur with many teachers in school and he suggested that preservice teachers would find it difficult to achieve collaborative inquiry.

Two initial codes emerged from this unit of data. The first code "*realities of the classroom*" spoke to Cliff's own experiences as a teacher and the difficulties he faced when he sought out collaborative environments. According to Cliff, teachers held too many competing conceptions of teaching to make productive collaboration with other teachers a realistic possibility. This belief led directly into the second code "*translation into practice*." Cliff was deferential to the idea of collaborative inquiry with the statement "It's a great idea." However, he

quickly returned the conversation to bridging theory and practice. His comments suggested collaborative inquiry was a wonderful theoretical concept with little real world application. With this in mind, I initially coded the remainder of this data section as "*translation into practice*."

An interview with one of the student teachers appeared to challenge Cliff's interpretation. In the second interview I asked Eleanor to re-define collaborative inquiry. She immediately focused on the practical implications of the core theme. She said:

> THAT'S ALL I DO. Every day it's good collaborative inquiry. It's having two heads instead of one, basically. That's an old cliché, but I mean two heads are better than one. I DON'T SEE ANYTHING REALLY BAD that has come out of it. Like one of us has an idea and other one can suggest we CHANGE a little bit of it, and then it has the POTENTIAL of being a REALLY GOOD LESSON. … I just think it's NEVER BAD TO HAVE AN EXTRA PERSON in there making a lesson plan with, to throw out ideas together, and a lot of other people don't have the option to have someone else in there to brainstorm with. Collaborative inquiry is GREAT (Interview, 23 October 2009).

When I first read this section, the amount of declarative and relatively absolute statements surprised me. What immediately stood out was the way in which Eleanor described her collaborative experiences with Jamie. She began her definition of collaborative inquiry with "That's all I do." I coded this and several other statements like "Collaborative inquiry is great" with the code "*positive experience*." However, these statements "waved a red flag" in my data analysis (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 80). As a result, I was careful not to uncritically accept wholeheartedly her interpretation of collaborative inquiry. I looked to how she later interpreted the paired student teaching experience. I especially looked at the collaborative nature of paired student teaching. Although Eleanor was supportive of peer collaboration she was slightly more

resistant to the idea because she felt Jamie had taken advantage of her at several points in the semester. After further analysis I revisited the initial "*positive experience*" code and relabeled it as "*personal positive experience*." This change reflected Eleanor's own interpretation of collaborative inquiry and how it reflected in paired student teaching.

A second initial code emerged from this unit of data that was reflected in the interviews with Jamie as well. This initial code spoke to the value Eleanor placed on collaboration and how it assisted in immediate classroom practices. She commented that the presence of a second person in the classroom allowed for the exploration of ideas that could result in improved instruction. Because Eleanor attributed the production of better lessons or curricular ideas to the collaborative relationship, I coded this section of data "*value of collaboration*." As I noted previously, I did not limit my analysis to how participants understood or enacted the core themes. A second level of analysis was required to determine the degree to which coherence was present in the student teaching semester.

This level of analysis also focused on paired student teaching and how it influenced coherence. With a study focused on the student teaching experience, I looked to the literature on integrative field experiences to frame my analysis. The literature on coherent programs suggests that fieldwork is effective when it exhibits noticeable connections to coursework and program goals. In other words, mentor teachers and university supervisors are knowledgeable about the goals of teacher education programs and reinforce those goals in their work with preservice teachers, while university-based instructors bridge theory and practice on a regular basis. Additionally, teacher education programs choose mentors and supervisors carefully and provide them with a degree of training and expectations for their work with preservice teachers. The goal

of this process is to limit the idiosyncratic nature of field-based teacher education often found in traditional education programs.

I return to the two data examples to describe how I worked through this level of analysis. In the first example Cliff expressed concern over the applicability of collaborative inquiry in schools today. That Cliff valued collaboration but was somewhat resistant to the potential enactment of collaboration did not reflect the value that the program placed upon collaboration. In consideration of his role as a university supervisor, I labeled this unit of data "*uncertainty*" in that he was uncertain about the place of collaboration in schools. Because Cliff was uncertain about the ability to implement collaboration into practice it was conceivable he might not place a focus on the idea in his interactions with Eleanor and Jamie. As such, I focused further data collection and analysis on this possibility. The "*uncertainty*" code would later emerge as part of the conceptual category "Uncertain Certainties."

In the other unit of data Eleanor noted "a lot of OTHER PEOPLE DON'T HAVE THE OPTION to have someone else in there to brainstorm with" (Interview, 23 October 2009). Several initial codes emerged from this one piece of data. First, Eleanor expressed that her experiences with Jamie were a "*unique experience*." With this statement, Eleanor acknowledged that her student teaching experience was unlike the experience of anyone else in the program. Built-in opportunities for collaboration existed with the paired student teaching experience. This recognition resulted in the second code "*paired teaching promotes collaboration*." Both codes would eventually emerge in the third conceptual category "Incomplete Coherence."

In addition to open coding procedures, I kept a researcher journal to help make sense of data (Charmaz, 2001; Ezzy, 2002). This journal provided me with initial interpretations of the data and provided several questions that guided future interview questions. According to Ezzy

(2002), "keeping a journal … encourages researchers to reflect routinely on their emerging understanding of the data" (pp. 71-72). One such journal entry provides an early example of what would later emerge as the third conceptual category "Incomplete Coherence." The day after my first school-based observation of Eleanor and Jamie I wrote:

I see two student teachers that are trying to get through the content and not give into feelings of 'sink or swim.' However, I also see student teachers who either:

1) Forget the program goals and the need to implement them into practice;

2) Don't actually agree with the goals and choose to ignore them; or

3) Don't fully understand the goals and try to implement them to the best of their ability even though it may be a weak attempt (Researcher journal, 1 September 2009).

Although Eleanor and Jamie expressed a belief in the core themes and acknowledged the implied presence of them in prior coursework, they were uncertain about how to enact them in practice. Two weeks prior to this journal entry they were asked to complete an assignment for the student teaching seminar about active student engagement and worthwhile learning. Even though their definitions were rudimentary each suggested the presence of active student engagement in their classroom. They also provided several examples. Therefore, when I arrived for the first field observation, I expected to see aspects of active student engagement in practice. What I observed instead was the complete opposite as they attempted a group work assignment that was not well prepared and resulted in many students disengaged or off-task. I had witnessed some disconnect between what Eleanor and Jamie described in breakout sessions and student teaching seminar and what they implemented in practice. This disconnect sparked the journal entry above and provoked further investigation of this issue the remainder of the semester.

Several themes emerged as I analyzed the data. These themes include: 1) Passing the Buck; 2) Uncertain Certainties; and 3) Incomplete Coherence. Because this study investigated one case, there were no other cases with which to conduct a cross-case analysis and provide external validity (Merriam, 1998). However, internal validity was achieved through the triangulation of data sources, member checks, peer examination, and the collection of data over time (Merriam, 1998). The data collected for this study consisted of five months of university and school-based observations, interview sets with each participant, and documents from the teacher education program and school site. At several points in the data collection process, I shared emerging themes with research participants for their input. For instance, early in the data collection process I found that paired student teaching provided built-in opportunities for student teachers to engage in emotional and pedagogical support. I had also noticed that the shared experiences of Eleanor and Jamie allowed them to provide a degree of conceptual support for one another to discuss their teaching rationales. This occurred at least in student teaching seminar. Therefore, I shared these initial findings with Eleanor and Jamie in the second interview to see how they interpreted the intersection between paired student teaching and collaboration. Through these conversations I came to acknowledge that paired student teaching promoted different forms of collaboration but that collaboration itself did not exist as a stand-alone category. I also shared biographies with several of the participants to check for accuracy and appropriate representation. Finally, at various points in data collection and analysis I discussed my findings with colleagues in the social studies program to gain new perspectives on my data.

Researcher Subjectivity

For any researcher of teacher education, researching a known and personal setting – such as the teacher education programs in which they are enrolled or employed – is often an expedient

exercise due to familiarity, location, and cost. However, as Conklin (2009) notes, "little attention has been paid … to the complexities of conducting such research and the ethical principles that might guide the researchers in these situations" (p. 112). In researching teacher education experiences, teacher educator researchers must consider their own place within teacher education programs and how this familiarity potentially influences their interactions with research participants and data.

Researching the lived experience that occur in one's own program provides certain insights for the researcher into the nature of the program, but it also poses risks to the data collection and analysis process. As such, in the remainder of this section I describe my own place within the social studies education program at Southeastern State University and my prior relationships with research participants. In Fall 2009, I was in my fifth year as a doctoral student in the social studies program. My first two years were spent as a part-time doctoral student and full-time classroom teacher. I enrolled as a full-time doctoral student in Fall 2007, and the fall of 2009 was the start of my third year as a graduate teaching assistant. In that time, I had supervised student teachers in middle and high school settings, including Adams County High School, and instructed sections of all but one of the courses offered in the undergraduate teacher preparation sequence. The only course I had not taught at the time was Social Studies Curriculum (ESOC 4350). My familiarity with supervision and teaching at each level of the undergraduate program provided me with certain insights into the types of experiences the student teacher participants (Eleanor and Jamie) had throughout their preservice preparation program. This familiarity allowed me to construct an in-depth investigation of the phenomenon under study. However, I also had to carefully consider my own experiences within the program in an attempt to minimize the influence of my subjectivities on the data I collected.

The first potential subjectivity is the result of my prior relationships with Eleanor and Jamie. Specifically, I served as the Social Studies Methods (ESOC 4360) course instructor for Eleanor and Jamie in Spring 2009. I grew to know Eleanor and Jamie as individuals, not just students, over the course of a 15-week semester. I was aware of their strengths and weaknesses as students and potential educators, but I was also aware of personal moments in their lives outside the classroom. This personal relationship I had with the student teachers prior to the research could potentially cloud my assessment of their practice, interpretations of their relationships with each other and their supervisors, or how I present their narrative in the findings section of this study.

I also had a rather strong personal relationship with the supervisor (Cliff) prior to this study. Cliff and I were enrolled in many of the same doctoral courses and we had developed a friendship, and as a result, interacted with similar social circles. However, more relevant to this study was our professional relationship. In Spring 2008, I served as supervisor for the student teacher Cliff mentored. That same semester Cliff was part of my initial investigation into paired student teaching at Southeastern State University (Butler et al., 2010). Cliff served as the critical friend in this study of the field-based teacher education of paired student teachers. Cliff's participation in the initial study would mirror his own experiences as a supervisor in this study as he expressed uncertainty about the responsibilities of supervisors and mentors in structuring the experience of paired student teachers in his role as critical friend. How Cliff considered the paired student teaching experience did not change between these two studies and I could not discern any influence the previous research had on his participation in the study, potentially due to his altered role within the research.

I had little interaction with Kay prior to this research. I had previously supervised a student teacher at Adams County High School and been introduced to Kay. However, my knowledge of Kay as a teacher and person was the result of interactions with other graduate teaching assistants and faculty. I had heard from Cliff and other colleagues who had taken coursework with her that she was a good teacher but had an off-putting personality at times. I was aware she had received positive feedback from preservice teachers in the past and I personally looked forward to working with her as a mentor teacher. In regard to the secondary research participants, I had existing relationships with Tom, Randall, and Jason. Jason and I enrolled as full-time doctoral students the same semester, had taken several of the same doctoral-level courses, co-taught several sections of a course, and often collaborated as we taught sections of the block courses (ESOC 4350, 4360, 4450L). We had a strong personal and professional relationship, and as a result, I was well aware of his instruction from the Spring 2009 semester.

Randall was my first faculty interaction at Southeastern State University. He served as my initial advisor and doctoral committee chair for a time. But, more importantly, he was the department graduate coordinator and Fall 2009 was his first semester as department head. However, by the time I conducted this study my interactions with Randall were more collegial in nature. Potentially the most complicated relationship was with Tom. Tom spearheaded the re-organization of the program I investigated in this research. Additionally, he was the chair of my dissertation committee and chair of the social studies program where I worked as a graduate teaching assistant. Tom was my direct supervisor in several capacities. And although Tom strove to create open spaces within the program (Dinkelman, 2010), I still acknowledge a power dynamic as Tom supervised my work as a student and employee.

My place within the social studies program provided me with insights into the design and inner workings of the program. Additionally, I was provided opportunities to build relationships with many of the participants in my research. These relationships allowed for rich and detailed interviews with participants. However, Kay and I did not have the relationship I had with other participants. Our relationship was strictly research-oriented; which might have led to the limited responses she provided to interview questions and the lack of a third interview. As such, much of the first finding of Chapter Five (Passing the Buck) is drawn from the narratives constructed by other research participants (Eleanor, Jamie, and Cliff) and my own observations of Kay's interactions with the student teachers. Kay's voice is not as present because her voice was largely absent in the data collection process.

<div align="center">Generalizability</div>

Qualitative research studies have often received critique for their lack of generalizability (e.g., Denzin, 1983; Guba & Lincoln, 1982, 1984; Stake, 2000). According to Denzin (1983), interpretive researchers are not concerned with generalization because researchers cannot successfully sample human experience. Individuals are influenced by their life experiences and the social contexts in which they are located. Instead, interpretivists argue that interpretive research such as case study research should add to the overall understanding of human events and experiences while recognizing the unique contexts in which the research was completed. However, Williams (2000) argues that interpretivists do "generalize and this is inevitable" (p. 209). According to Williams, researchers ought to make *moderatum* generalizations that are the result of the "cultural consistency that makes social life possible" (p. 220). In other words, William suggests life provides certain constants around which an interpretive researcher can

claim some degree of generalization to situations different, though similar, to those the researcher studies.

Stake (2000) suggests "most academic researchers are supportive of the study of cases only if there is clear expectation of generalizability to other cases" (p. 439). As Stake posits, the source of this critique is a belief that "research should contribute to scientific generalization" (p. 439). He notes that those who conduct case study research have "little interest in the advance of science [as] their designs aim the inquiry toward understanding of what is important about that case within its own world" (p. 439). In line with Stake's argument, my primary goal for this study was to better understand paired student teaching at one program and how participation in the paired teaching model might promote coherence in that program.

With the aim of better understanding established, the potential generalizability of the findings of case study research on paired student teaching *and* program coherence does warrant further discussion. Clearly the findings of this study will speak most strongly to those who immediately work in the social studies program under study. All teacher education programs are structured or conceptualized in manners that suggest a range of more or less coherence. Those programs with fewer features suggestive of coherence cannot simply implement an alternative student teaching model and expect to achieve the sorts of gains toward coherence investigated in this study. As I noted in Chapter Two, coherence is the byproduct of several attributes that work together to provide effective learning experiences for preservice teachers. As an innovative reform, not very many teacher education programs use paired teaching as a student teaching model. However, a contextual understanding of paired student teaching at Southeastern State might help other teacher educators consider their potential or current use of this alternative to traditional student teaching or even how they might develop their own coherent programs. I can

only hope that through an explicit focus on the structure of school and teacher education program

contexts and experiences my research might have some value in generating a greater

understanding about paired student teaching and program coherence.

Summary

In this chapter I illustrated the research design and methods used to collect and analyze

data of the lived experiences of those individuals involved in one paired student teaching

experience. To investigate these experiences I used a descriptive case study design (Merriam,

1998) that took into account the "complexities of a situation" as well as the influence of

personalities and time (p. 30). The study also uses a variety of vivid data sources that provides

the "rich, 'thick' description" necessary for case study research (Merriam, 1998). After I

described the overarching design of the study, I detailed how I came to focus on the four primary

participants Eleanor, Jamie, Kay, and Cliff. Each participant was a member of a student teaching

triad (i.e., student teacher, mentor teacher, or university supervisor). Because the roles and

responsibilities assigned to each participant differed, it was necessary to select each participant

based on criteria specific to their position. For instance, Kay was a graduate of the program who

had successfully mentored practicum and student teachers in the past. Eleanor and Jamie were

members of a cohort who perceived value in the collaborative nature of paired student teaching

and volunteered their participation.

In the remainder of the chapter, I described data collection and analysis procedures.

Meyer (2001) notes that a particular strength of case study research is that the researcher is

allowed to tailor "data collection procedures to the research questions" (p. 330). With a research

question focused on the student teaching experience I framed my data collection procedures

through Guyton and McIntyre's (1990) conceptual framework for the study of student teaching

and supervision. This framework takes into account student teachers' experiences in university courses and fieldwork and the process of supervision. Data sources included interviews of those involved in the student teaching process, observations of classroom and university-based experiences, and the collection of documents pertinent to the student teaching experience. To analyze these data sources I used open coding procedures to construct initial codes and categories around the program core themes and theoretical perspective described in Chapter Two (e.g., Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Merriam, 1998). This theoretical perspective focuses on the integrative field experience attribute of coherent teacher education programs. In the next chapter I describe the personal and institutional contexts of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

CONTEXT

This chapter is predicated on the belief that participant and institutional contexts and experiences help shape the end result of a case study (Merriam, 1998). With this consideration I use this chapter to describe the institutional contexts in which data and the personal biographies of the four primary research participants were collected. I start with a description of the social studies education program at Southeastern State University. In that section I consider the social studies program in the three ways, the program's: 1) history and context; 2) conceptual framework; and 3) physical structure. After I describe the social studies program, I provide a description of Adams County High School. I then conclude this chapter with biographies of the four primary participants – Eleanor, Jamie, Kay, and Cliff. I turn now to the social studies program at Southeastern State University

The Social Studies Education Program at Southeastern State University

Southeastern State University is a "Doctoral/Research University – Extensive" (McCormick, 2001) and the flagship institution of the state university system. The origin of Southeastern State dates to the post-American Revolution period as citizens sought a local institute of higher education. Southeastern State is located in the "college town" of Florence. The college of education at Southeastern State was founded in 1908. Today there are approximately 5,000 students enrolled in the college. This number is divided equally between undergraduate and graduate students (COE website). In its current form the college is divided into nine departments. The social studies program is one of three programs currently housed in the

Department of Elementary and Social Studies Education. The social studies education program at Southeastern State has a history that dates to the early 1960s when it was originally formed as the Department of Social Science Education.

In 2004 the college of education was restructured into what are now the nine departments. What were then the separate departments of social studies and elementary education merged to form one large department. This new department was named the Department of Elementary and Social Studies Education and currently houses three programs: elementary education, middle grades education, and social studies education. Even before the reorganization, the social studies program provided instructional support for the elementary and middle grades social studies methods courses. According to the program website, the social studies program is:

> [R]esponsible for the planning and oversight of programs leading to secondary teacher certification (grades 6-12) in history, geography, economics, and political science. Its programs are planned in cooperation with departments in the College of Arts and Sciences and approved by the [state] professional standards commission. The social studies program also provides courses in social studies education to the elementary and middle school education programs (ESOC website).

Each program is recognized for the strength of their graduate programs (*US News & World Report*, 2010). The elementary program ranks third nationally. Because *US News & World Report* does not rank programs by content area, the social studies program is ranked through its core student population. The social studies program ranks third nationally in secondary education (grades 6-12), a ranking it shares with other programs in the college with a secondary focus.

Within the college of education social studies is considered a "high demand" major. This status reflects the large number of students who seek enrollment each semester. At the time of this study, the program was in the process of a reduction in the number of undergraduate students admitted each year. Prior to 2009-2010 there were approximately 20 students enrolled in each of four sections of introductory course (ESOC 2450) offered per year. The 40 students enrolled in ESOC 2450 each semester vied for one of the 25 undergraduate slots each semester. However, in 2009-2010 the program underwent a two-year process to reduce the annual acceptance rate to 25 undergraduate students. According to the social studies program website,

> For academic year 2009-2010, space in the major is limited to 35 new students admitted
> during two application periods – Fall (20 students) and Spring (15 students) Beginning in
> 2010-2011, the number of newly admitted students is limited to 25, admitted during one
> application period in January (ESOC website).

With a small number of faculty members and a relatively large enrollment at each level (i.e., undergraduate, masters, and doctoral), the undergraduate students who are accepted into the program rarely take a class with a tenured or tenure-track faculty member. Due to faculty research and service commitments, the program largely relies on graduate teaching assistants to staff the undergraduate teacher preparation coursework. Exceptions have included faculty members who regularly instruct the senior field experience course (ESOC 4450L) and the student teaching seminar (ESOC 5560).

After several faculty retirements in Spring 2009 the program was left with three tenured or tenure-track faculty and four experienced graduate teaching assistants for the 2009-2010 academic year. Of the faculty who remained, Tom joined Southeastern State in 2002 and served as social studies program coordinator. Randall came to Southeastern State in 1999, had served

several years as graduate coordinator for the department, and continued in this position after he was selected department chair for the 2009-2010 year. Finally, Heidi joined the faculty in 2006 and was an untenured professor. That each faculty member was provided some amount of course reduction provided complications for the program. Tom and Randall received course reductions for their service to the program and department, while Heidi had a research grant that provided a course reduction. However, the college granted some relief with the addition of a temporary lecturer position and two graduate teaching assistants for the 2009-2010 year. These additions replaced much of the lost instructional time of the three retirements and the course reductions for Tom, Randall, and Heidi. The lecturer was a recent graduate from an out-of-state institution and would later leave for a tenure-track position after one year at Southeastern State. Three of the four experienced graduate teaching assistants in 2009-2010 were in their third year and one was in her second year.

Because this study focuses on the idea of coherent programs I use the remainder of this section to describe the conceptual and structural components of the program. One way of conceptualizing the framework of the program is through the "five core themes" embedded in a larger set of program standards used in the secondary initial certification programs (see Appendix C). These core themes are those program standards around which the faculty and graduate teaching assistants are expected to structure all courses and field experiences. After I illustrate the social studies core themes I shift to a description of the program structure. The undergraduate preservice program follows a three-semester track that includes an introductory course and field experience, a nine academic credit hour block of coursework and field experience, and a student teaching experience and associated seminar. Although I provide an overview of each structure, much of this description focuses on the design and expected

outcomes of the specific courses and field experiences in which Eleanor and Jamie were enrolled as course content is specific to each instructor. I now turn to the conceptual framework known as the five core themes.

The "Conceptual Framework," or the Five Core Themes

The current iteration of the social studies teacher preparation program developed under the leadership of Tom. Tom joined Southeastern State in 2002 after several years as a faculty member at another "doctoral extensive" university. When Tom joined Southeastern State he noted that what was then a department lacked a conceptual framework around which to build a vision for teaching and learning. The preservice preparation program also lacked a physical structure that Tom believed would best support an effective framework. These factors necessitated some revision on the part of Tom and what Tom hoped would be other interested faculty. However, there were few interested faculty as many of those Tom worked with were close to retirement and "weren't all that interested or invested in the framework" (Interview, 7 August 2009). As a result, program revision was an isolated affair with little involvement from others.

Fortuitously, the state had enacted a federally funded program that sought to redefine teacher education. The Systematic Teacher Education Program, or STEP as it was known, had developed a set of knowledge, skills, and dispositions for effective teaching divided among six domains: Content and Curriculum, Knowledge of Students and Learning, Learning Environments, Assessment, Planning and Instruction, and Professionalism. In recent years the social studies program-specific version of this framework has taken on the name SURGE. The current SURGE framework can be found in Appendix C.

Tom used the STEP framework "to guide the outcomes of the program and the [capstone assignment]" (Interview, 7 August 2009). However, Tom went beyond the STEP framework to provide preservice teachers with an experience tailored to the social studies program. He used his "experience as a teacher educator and reading of the literature" to determine a set of ideas that would ground the social studies program (Interview, 7 August 2009). According to Tom, "the origins of the framework and the core themes have one foot in the STEP framework and one foot in my own set of commitments I bring to teacher education" (Interview, 7 August 2009). The overall framework has undergone revision several times since the initial development in 2002. In the summer of 2007, Tom and Heidi revised "the framework into something that was more suitable for preservice teachers of social studies" (Interview, 7 August 2009). The revision of 2007 saw the emergence of five core themes that would explicitly frame the program.

Tom and a group of graduate teaching assistants engaged in further revision in the 2008-2009 academic year. The impetus for this revision was the perception that the 42 standards in the framework were too many for social studies preservice teachers to accomplish. Through negotiation and pilot studies of a new framework SURGE was officially reduced to the current 27 standards listed in Appendix C. Four of the five core themes remained untouched in this recent revision. However, the culturally responsive classroom theme was revised to include an emphasis on social, linguistic, and cultural diversity. This alteration was made in an attempt to better define culturally responsive practice.

The five core themes are those program standards students are expected to experience in each course and field experience throughout the program. The current core themes expect accomplished preservice teachers to:

- Use knowledge of social, linguistic, and cultural diversity to create an equitable and culturally responsive classroom;

- Organize classroom experiences to promote active student engagement in the pursuit of worthwhile learning;

- Articulate clear and defensible rationales for curricular and instructional decision-making;

- Systematically reflect on their own practice to improve teaching and learning; and

- Engage in collaborative inquiry (SURGE Framework).

I turn now to a further description of these themes and how they would be seen in the practice of a preservice teacher. I should note that no official description of the program framework exists. Therefore, the descriptions I provide are based on interviews with Tom and my own interpretations of the core themes. As such, I caution readers not to consider these descriptions as definitive accounts of the core themes. They should instead be viewed as an attempt to provide some conceptual boundaries for the purposes of this study.

Culturally Responsive and Equitable Instruction.

Of the five core themes the theme of culturally response instruction is likely the least defined and most "difficult core theme for our students to wrap their minds around to implement into practice" (Tom Interview, 7 August 2009). Tom attributed this confusion to faculty and graduate teaching assistants who have not engaged in an extended dialogue about how to define this standard. As a result, competing definitions exist that take into the consideration of several researchers of culturally relevant or responsive teaching (e.g., Gay, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). However, as the primary instructor for the student teaching seminar,

Tom has normally included the work of Ladson-Billings (1995) into his definition of culturally responsive teaching.

Generally, Tom defines this standard as an expectation that preservice teachers "are aware that those they teach aren't like them. They have different cultural frameworks and worldviews that they bring with them to school" (Interview, 7 August 2009). Tom often uses this personal definition and the work of Ladson-Billings (1995) when he and his students discuss this program standard in student teaching seminar. Tom focuses specifically on the conceptions of 1) self and others, 2) social relations, and 3) knowledge. According to Ladson-Billings (1995), a culturally relevant (or responsive) educator acknowledges the importance of community in and out of the classroom. Community spaces are encouraged through the promotion of public engagement and collaborative learning. Additionally, culturally relevant teachers consciously believe that all students can succeed, engage in equitable relationships with students, and believe teachers and students simultaneously create and share knowledge.

Active Student Engagement in Worthwhile Learning.

Research presents the idea of good teaching in varied forms. For example, Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005) define good teaching as a synthesis of reflective practice and collaboration with others. Within the social studies education program good teaching is defined as "*teaching that leads to active student engagement in worthwhile learning*" (ESOC 5560 Week 2 Assignment). This theme is one Tom brought with him to Southeastern State. According to Tom, active student engagement asks teachers to consider how students can learn through the active inquiry and application of knowledge rather than the passive receipt of knowledge through teacher-centered instruction. Worthwhile learning compliments active student engagement in that learning becomes more than just an exercise in factual recitation. What determines worthwhile

learning is a complicated endeavor; however, teachers can begin to tackle the concept by addressing the question: "what is the purpose for the content or concepts I teach?"

Conceptually, this theme likely has origins in the work of Dewey (1897, 1914/1944, 1938/1997). Dewey (1897) argues that a focus on rote memorization and teacher-centered instruction introduces students to "a passive, receptive, or absorbing attitude" (p. 79). On the other hand, a teacher who pursues active student engagement shows "concern for the intellectual engagement of their students with the content which you could see in the kinds of activities, the way they ask questions, the way they try and involve students in class activities" (Tom Interview, 7 August 2009). However, Tom did not feel he and others have achieved complete success in how preservice teachers understand the pursuit of worthwhile learning. When it came to the definition and enactment of worthwhile learning many of the students who graduate have "a difficult time trying to articulate what's worth knowing" (Interview, 7 August 2009).

Rationale-Based Practice.

Like active student engagement the core theme of rationale-based practice is one Tom brought with him to Southeastern State. This theme was absent from the original STEP framework but was included in the SURGE framework due to Tom's "own interest in the question of worthwhile knowledge" (Interview, 7 August 2009). In a study of their own practice as student teaching supervisors at Southeastern State University, Ritter, Powell, and Hawley (2007) suggest that:

> Ideally the process of developing a rationale compels preservice teachers to wrestle with questions of what is worth knowing and how best to teach that knowledge or those skills and values. In this sense, the rationale is pitched as a foundation for teacher decision-making, albeit with the understanding that it will always be evolving (pp. 342-343).

Dinkelman (2009) echoes this sentiment when he suggests that a rationale for teaching goes,

> [B]eyond the empty rhetoric of a 'teaching philosophy' and toward a practical, vital
>
> statement of the aims that direct the very real deliberation teachers engage in as they sort
>
> out questions of what is worth knowing and how best to teach it" (p. 92).

More succinctly, a rationale for teaching asks the teacher to answer the question: "What are you

teaching *for*?" (Dinkelman, 2009, p. 91, emphasis in original).

Although Tom acknowledged the importance of a rationale for teaching, he also

conceded that not each decision a teacher might make finds some connection to the rationale.

However, Tom found that the rationale's existence as a physical document that receives

consideration through the program is the result of some deliberate thinking on his part. He noted,

"I would like students and beginning teachers to come out of our program habituated to thinking

about how they're going to teach and what they're going to teach with reference to a considered

rationale" (Interview, 7 August 2009).

Reflective Practice.

Reflective practice suggests that teachers learn from their mistakes and triumphs in the

classroom through a critical evaluation of practice (Bransford, Darling-Hammond, & LePage,

2005). According to Zeichner and Liston (1987), reflective practice "entails the active, persistent,

and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge" (p. 24). Zeichner and

Liston (1987) draw their conception of reflective practice from Dewey (1933) who differentiated

between reflective action and routine action. Although the social studies program generally

adheres to this definition it also relies on the work of van Manen (1977) to guide expectations for

preservice teacher reflection. According to van Manen (1977), reflective practice works at three

levels: technical rationality, practical action, and critical reflection. Tom described his reflective

practice as "more than mindless technical, rationale approaches that see teaching as merely following a script" (Interview, 7 August 2009). The focus of technical rationality is on effective pedagogical and classroom management practices rather than treating "the institutional contexts of classroom, school, community, and society … as problematic" (Zeichner & Liston, 1987, p. 24).

Tom further suggested "reflective practice means that teachers are professionals who make well-considered decisions about their work, who are mentally alive to the challenges of their craft, and who see teaching as a learning problem" (Interview, 7 August 2009). What Tom mentioned as the problematization of education is the second level of reflection where common "assumptions and predispositions" surrounding education are dissected (Zeichner & Liston, 1987, p. 24). Finally, the third level of critical reflection asks teachers to question "which educational goals, experiences, and activities lead toward forms of life which are mediated by concerns for justice, equity, and concrete fulfillment" (p. 25). This level provides the largest challenge for teacher education programs because of the limited time spent with preservice teachers and the limited exposure students often have to classroom and real world issues.

Collaborative Inquiry.

That teaching is an isolating affair is a feeling many teachers often reinforce through a desire for "autonomy and noninterference" (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, p. 1033). Collaborative planning or inquiring into the nature and purpose of education with others are ideas that preservice and inservice teachers often distrust. Instead, many teachers join together for purely social purposes and not for professional development or personal support in the classroom. Collaborative inquiry asks teachers to move beyond the isolating effects of the individualized classroom and encourages teachers to work together in collaborative contexts. However, for

inservice teachers to value collaborative inquiry, they must first experience effective collaborative relationships in their initial teacher training (Bransford et al., 2005).

According to Tom, the inclusion of this standard as a core theme is a "nod to the enormous complexity of teaching" and that teachers "are best served by communities of engaged reflective teachers who care about the field and are willing to share what they know about it with others" (Interview, 7 August 2009). This consideration echoes the value other teacher educators place on the impact collaborative inquiry can have on teachers' practices. Bransford et al. (2005) argue that if preservice teachers work together in learning communities during teacher training then they might later come "together to create coherent curriculum and systems that support students, and collaborate in ways that advance their combined understanding and skills" (p. 13). Finally, the enactment of collaborative inquiry early in a teacher education program provides opportunities for preservice teachers to view collaboration as a normal "part of the professional role [of teacher] and an important, ongoing activity rather than as a threat to what they have previously been doing" (Hammerness et al., 2005, pp. 365-366). Now that I have elaborated on the five core themes I turn to the physical structure around which the SURGE framework is built.

The Physical Structure of the Undergraduate Program

Student learning in the undergraduate social studies program is scaffolded across three semesters. In the first semester students are exposed to the theories, practices, and issues related to social studies education. This occurs in a two-hour weekly seminar and 60-hour field experience (ESOC 2450). After the successful completion of ESOC 2450 students are allowed to apply for entry into the program. Admission is based upon the strength of the rationale document developed in ESOC 2450 and students' content-area grade point average (GPA) in previous education and social studies content area coursework. Before they begin the second semester of

program coursework students generally take one additional semester of subject-specific content (i.e., history, political science, geography, or economics). Students then enroll in a nine-hour block of social studies education coursework (ESOC 4350, 4360, 4450L). These courses provide preservice teachers with a concentrated examination of the theories, practices, and issues touched on during the first semester. This examination includes an additional 60-hour field experience. Preservice teachers conclude the program with a 12-week student teaching experience (ESOC 5460) and student teaching seminar (ESOC 5560). The seminar prepares students for the capstone assignment and provides a space to examine issues related to student teaching. Table 4.1 details the structure of the undergraduate social studies preparation program.

The social studies preservice preparation program follows the traditional approach to teacher preparation that places student teaching at the end of preservice experience (Darling-Hammond, 2006). However, the program has the mark of the three physical attributes of coherent programs. These include the use of student cohort groups, field experiences connected to coursework throughout the program, and a conceptual framework (SURGE) that provides a foundation for student learning. Additionally, there are certain "commitments to social justice, equity, and democratic principles in education and the world beyond schools" that buttress the five core themes (ESOC website). These commitments to "social justice, equity, and democratic principles" provide a social studies focus for core themes that predominately inhabit non-social studies specific ideas of good teaching. But, how preservice teachers define social justice, equity, and democracy is largely dependent on who teaches those preservice teachers.

Although there is a framework around which the program is structured (Appendix C) there is no guarantee that course instructors or university supervisors explicitly consider the framework in their instruction. Of the six total courses Eleanor and Jamie were enrolled (they

Table 4.1. The Structure of the Social Studies Teacher Education Program at Southeastern State University

Semester I

ESOC 2450/2450L	**Initial Field Experience and Seminar in Social Studies Education** This weekly course exposes students interested in a career in social studies education to an overview of theory, practice, and issues related to social studies education. Attached to this course is 60 hours of fieldwork. All students who apply to the social studies education program must receive a satisfactory grade in this course, complete the necessary fieldwork, and submit an admissions document known as a "teaching rationale."

Semester II

ESOC 4350	**Social Studies Curriculum in Secondary Schools** This course exposes students to curriculum theories and assists students in the design of curriculum that promotes cognitive and affective learning. Issues/concepts learned in this course generally include course syllabi, unit plans, and the theoretical and practical underpinnings of social studies curriculum.
ESOC 4360	**Methods of Teaching Social Studies in Secondary Schools** This course exposes students to a variety of instructional methods (i.e., discussion, group work) as well as forms of assessment. Students generally revisit and revise their teaching rationale in this course.
ESOC 4450L	**Senior Field Experience in Social Studies Education** This course provides students with 60 hours of fieldwork in local schools and an associated weekly seminar where students explore issues of classroom management and make connections between field observations and concepts learned in other coursework.

Semester III

ESOC 5460	**Student Teaching in Social Studies Education** This 12-week field experience provides a culminating experience for those who seek initial certification in social studies education. Students are expected to plan lessons and instruct students in a middle or high school setting under the supervision of school and university-based personnel.
ESOC 5560	**Student Teaching Seminar** Student teachers enroll in this course in conjunction with student teaching. This weekly seminar prepares students for a capstone assignment and provides students with a space to examine issues related to their student teaching. On a bi-weekly basis this seminar shares time with "field instructor breakout sessions" that allow university supervisors to meet collectively with those student teachers they supervise to discuss problems of practice.

were enrolled in separate ESOC 2450 courses), two instructors made no reference to the core themes in their syllabi. These included the senior field experience course (ESOC 4450L) and Jamie's introductory course (ESOC 2450). However, the inclusion of the core themes in the other syllabi does not insure the explicit investigation or discussion of the themes in practice. Indeed, Eleanor and Jamie could not list the core themes prior to the student teaching seminar. However, when presented with the core themes in the first interview they acknowledge their implied presence in coursework. I will touch on some of these implied connections in the biographies of Eleanor and Jamie. Tom considered the potential lack of coherence when he commented:

> Ideally, we would have a set of instructors who understand these core themes in the same ways and are very skilled at teaching them in their various components along that program map. Realistically, I don't get the sense that the program map has been a key factor in the way people think about their courses (Interview, 7 August 2009).

Tom suggested there might be several causes for this lack of coherence. First, instructors might not consider the program framework important. In other words, course instructors who have been in the program a long time might not have the "buy-in" into the framework due to its relative newness. He also considered the possibility that the transient population of graduate teaching assistants made "coherence a little more difficult to achieve" (Interview, 7 August 2009). However, Tom was quick to point out that faculty and graduate teaching assistants were still "getting used to the [new] framework" and hoped that conversations in spaces like ESOC 9700 would further promote the understanding and use of the program framework. In the remainder of this section I explore the undergraduate preparation program in terms of the physical structure of coursework and field experiences. I begin with the pre-admissions course ESOC 2450.

ESOC 2450, Introduction to Social Studies Education.

The first course in the academic sequence provides students with an initial exposure to social studies education. Jamie, in particular, found that this class was different than what she had expected as she thought the program was going to "teach me how to teach" (Interview, 13 August 2009). Like Jamie, many preservice teachers initially believe that the purpose of teacher education is to expose them to certain pedagogies and practices they assume constitute teaching (Labaree, 2004; Lortie, 2002). ESOC 2450 directly confronts these expectations with an initial exploration of the theories and issues involved in teaching social studies. Although certain pedagogies are used to explore content the course lacks a specific focus on practice. Instead, the exploration of practice is reserved until the second semester in Social Studies Methods (ESOC 4360).

The specific focus of the ESOC 2450 course is the initial development of a teaching rationale. This document serves dual purposes. First, it is part of the admissions packet students submit when they apply for the program. Second, the rationale provides an initial attempt for preservice teachers to examine their thinking about social studies. This first attempt at a teaching rationale asks students to address the following questions:

1) What are the most important goals of social studies in terms of what students should know, be able to do, and value as a result of taking social studies?

2) Why are these goals valuable for democratic society?

3) How do issues of cultural diversity, power and privilege, and multiculturalism inform your thinking about both the content and methods of social studies?

4) Give and explain an example of what you might teach under your vision of social studies and how you might teach this. Make it clear how this example relates to your answers to the previous three questions (ESOC 2450 F07 Syllabus).

A review of ESOC 2450 course syllabi since Fall 2007 shows the course instructors' explicit focus on helping students prepare for the rationale document. Most instructors, like Heidi in Fall 2007, divide the course into sections that generally address the topics of each question. Heidi used the following themes for her course schedule:

I. Students and Schooling: A Context for Teaching Social Studies

II. Visions of Social Studies Teaching: Purposes and Possibilities

III. Democracy and Diversity

IV. The Persistence of Practice/The Challenges of Teaching

She also asked students to contemplate the rationale document early in the semester with a graded pre-rationale assignment. However, not all course instructors follow what has become an unofficial structure to the ESOC 2450 curriculum.

The instructor for Jamie's section in Spring 2008 followed a drastically different curriculum. The instructor made reference to the rationale in his syllabus but did not provide the questions for students. He also did not provide assignments in advance that would prepare students for the final rationale assignment. The content of the course focused predominately on the "power and privilege" section of the rationale assignment. He focused this examination explicitly on fascism, militarism, and corporatism (ESOC 2450 S08 Syllabus). However, for much of the semester these topics were discussed with little connection to education. Only at the end of the semester did the instructor make connections between these topics and social studies

education. Even the stated goals for each course differed greatly. Table 4.2 details the course

goals for the Fall 2007 and Spring 2008 sections of ESOC 2450.

The final aspect of ESOC 2450 is the 60-hour field experience. The purpose of this initial

field observation is to provide students with exposure to the realities of the classroom and the

possibilities of effective social studies instruction. Despite the importance placed on this field

experience many of the students "don't see their time in schools as rich opportunities to explore

the world of teaching social studies" (Tom Interview, 7 August 2009). Instead, students mainly

Table 4.2. ESOC 2450 Course Goals for Fall 2007 and Spring 2008

Fall 2007 - Eleanor	Spring 2008 - Jamie
• Examine how social studies has been taught traditionally and develop an understanding of why the status quo persists. • Develop an understanding of the social injustices that persist in US schooling. • Develop a critical inquiry stance toward observing social studies teaching and learning in classrooms. Students should learn how to ask critical questions about social studies classrooms, but also be tentative in their judgments. • Examine powerful possibilities for teaching and learning social studies and the purposes associated with those possibilities. • Experience powerful possibilities for teaching and learning social studies as students in our university classroom. • Develop the ability to articulate the experience of being students engaged in these methods. • Develop an appreciation for the complexity and challenges of implementing powerful social studies teaching and learning. • Develop the ability to articulate the pedagogical decisions that these methods involve for teachers.	• Analyze the historical and current state of public schooling within a socio-political context and explore the question, "What does this have to do with social studies?" • Document and reflect on observations of school contexts, culture, administration, teachers, students, and resources available for instruction. • Articulate and reason about aims, purposes, and practices in social studies education. • Develop an initial rationale for teaching and learning in social studies education.

observe and have little interaction with students in the classroom. An additional cause for concern with the field component is the placement process. Because ESOC 2450 is a pre-admissions course students have not completed liability waivers and background checks prior to enrollment in the course. They must complete these forms before the Office of Student Services will process their placement requests. This process often takes several weeks to complete. As a result, many students are not placed in local schools until the mid-point of the semester and sometimes even later in the term. The uncertainty of when students in ESOC 2450 receive placements makes it difficult for course instructors to construct appropriate assignments that bridge coursework and fieldwork. However, certain course instructors have attempted to include field observations in the design of their courses. In particular, Heidi provided students with a field experience handbook to guide field observations and expected students to "write weekly journals that bring together your observations of your field experience, your reflections/reactions to our weekly readings, and your thinking about how the field experience and readings are contributing to your developing rationale" (ESOC 2450 F07 Syllabus).

   ESOC 4350, Social Studies Curriculum.

ESOC 4350 is the first of three professional block courses in the second semester. Class meetings occur for three hours once per week. In Spring 2009 the social studies Curriculum course focused explicitly on the idea of democracy. The particular focus of the course was to provide preservice teachers with the "tools necessary for individuals to deliberate and dialogue with one another about controversial issues in pursuit of solving common problems for the common good" (ESOC 4350 S09 Syllabus). As such, the course was developed around a set of questions that could help preservice teachers "design a social studies curriculum that encourages

students to become active, democratic citizens" (ESOC 4350 S09 Syllabus). These questions included:

1) What is democracy?

2) What social contexts help and hinder democracy's implementation?

3) What does it mean to be a democratic person?

4) What are democratic values? How do these values play out in society and schools?

5) What are the purposes of public education? How do these purposes align with democracy and what it means to be a democratic person?

6) How does the social studies curriculum contribute to these public purposes of schooling? What should be the purpose of social studies?

7) What is democratic education? What does this 'style' of education look like in schools? (ESOC 4350 S09 Syllabus)

To conceptualize the class through the concept of democracy was common practice as many of the courses offered in the program have held such an orientation. However, what separated this particular curriculum course from other curriculum courses was the disregard of certain assignments that other instructors regularly included in ESOC 4350.

Most curriculum instructors include one of two assignments: a course syllabus or a curriculum unit plan. Occasionally, curriculum instructors expect students to complete both assignments. The previous semester (Fall 2008) Jason required students to complete both a course syllabus and curriculum unit plan. The goal of these assignments was to provide students with the experience of curriculum generation. However, in Spring 2009 Jason redirected the class to focus on controversial issues and various interpretations and examples of a democratic citizenry. According to Jason, his goal was to provide students with real world examples of

democracy in action and to explore democracy in the classroom (Interview, 26 September 2009).

Examples included Abraham Lincoln's (1992) address to the Young Men's Lyceum of

Springfield, Illinois, selections from de Tocqueville's (1969) *Democracy in America*, and Martin

Luther King Jr.'s (1963) *Letter from a Birmingham jail*. As such, Jason felt that the curriculum

unit plan and course syllabus did not fit within the scope of the Spring 2009 course. The major

assignment for the semester consisted of a final paper that asked students to espouse their

"definition and understanding of democracy and its relationship to schools" (ESOC 4350 S09

Syllabus). However, Jason did bridge the theoretical and practical components of democratic

education when he asked students provide two lesson plans that "illustrate how you put your

theory of democratic education into practice" (ESOC 4350 S09 Syllabus).

    ESOC 4360, Social Studies Methods.

    ESOC 4360 is the second professional block course and occurs three hours once per

week. The Methods course exposes preservice teachers to a variety of instructional and

assessment strategies for the social studies classroom. However, many ESOC 4360 course syllabi

argue that the goal of the course is not to "simply fill 'a bag of tricks.'" Instead, the primary

stated goal of the course is to "question the usefulness of such methods and how the use of these

methods are influenced by your rationale for teaching" (ESOC 4360 S09 Syllabus). Rather than

provide students with a disconnected set of instructional strategies the larger goal of the course is

to help students understand the intersection between purpose and practice. In other words, a

teacher's selection of an instructional method should reflect a deliberate purpose for the

method's use and not simply because students might find the method "fun."

    In Spring 2009 the Methods course used social justice as a theoretical frame. According

to the course syllabus,

The theme of social justice will be present throughout this course. Several texts and corresponding readings will help us as students and instructor develop a better understanding of how the methods we utilize in social studies instruction can be used to promote the concept of social justice in our classrooms, and within our students (ESOC 4360 S09 Syllabus).

To assist students in the development of a pedagogy for social justice the course was divided into four sections: Discussion, Collaborative Work, Alternative Instruction and Assessment, and Student-Centered Classrooms. Each of these sections was assigned a primary text. Kozol's (2005) *Shame of the Nation* served as the primary text for the Discussion section. According to the syllabus the text was used for several reasons:

(a) it provides an account of where schools are at today;

(b) it will hopefully develop your understanding of educational undercurrents and how these can be challenged; and

(c) as a result of its engaging material the text will serve as a the basis for learning the discussion format of instruction (ESOC 4360 S09 Syllabus).

Of the four primary texts Kozol (2005) was the only text without a pedagogical focus. Instead, secondary readings were used to provide preservice teachers with the necessary background for the discussion methods learned.

The second portion of the course focused on collaborative work. The instructor used Cohen's (1992) *Designing Group Work* to provide students with "an understanding of how group and collaborative work can benefit students of all groups and how [teachers] can build tolerance and justice through the successful utilization of group work" (ESOC 4360 S09 Syllabus). The third section of the class focused on student empathy and understanding of others through Shur's

(2007) *Eyewitnesses to the Past*. Finally, a core concept of social justice – student-centered

instruction – served as the conclusion to the course and linked each of the previous sections

together. This final section did not focus on any specific instructional methods. Instead, this

period of time was used to revisit previous methods learned and to help preservice teachers

prepare for the rationale assignment due at the end of the course. Table 4.3 provides a list of

instructional methods covered in first three sections of the course.

Table 4.3. Instructional Methods Presented in ESOC 4360

Discussion	Collaborative Work	Alternative Instruction & Assessment
Advocate Decision Making	Historical Inquiry	Diaries
Debate	Jigsaw (Expert Groups)	Experiential Learning
Deliberation	Task Assignments	(Role-Play,
Fishbowl	(Role Groups)	Simulations)
Line of Contention	WebQuests	Film
Scored Discussion		Letters
Silent Discussion		Music
Socratic Seminar		Review Games
Structured Academic		Scrapbooks
Controversy		Travelogues
Think-Pair-Share		

Throughout the course students were expected to complete a series of lesson plans using

instructional methods covered in class. However, the principle assignment of the course was

the revision of the rationale document first prepared in ESOC 2450. The importance of the

teaching rationale was reinforced in the rationale assignment description provided to students.

The first few sentences of the assignment note:

> The purpose of a teaching rationale is to have an ever-evolving document that grounds
>
> your purposes for teaching in an easily accessible format. Rationales provide us with a
>
> forum for showing ourselves and others what we teach for in the social studies. …

Rationales serve as a window into what we do in the classroom and our defense as to the curricular and pedagogical decisions we make (Spring 2009 Rationale Assignment). Although the instructor placed a direct emphasis on the rationale he had students explore questions different than those provided in ESOC 2450. This revision consisted of three questions rather than four and provided students with a more open-ended approach to rationale development. The three questions were:

1) What is your overarching goal or theme for social studies education (e.g., social justice, democratic education, cultural transmission, multiculturalism, etc.)?

2) What methods/curricula/goals/themes (ex. Democratic classrooms, teaching the "other," etc.) exist that support the overarching goal/theme that you have for social studies education?

3) In addition to a discussion of your themes through the literature, also provide an example of how these themes would be carried out in your classroom. This is where your lesson plans should come into play as your lesson plans should be a practical representation of your teaching rationale.

ESOC 4450L, Senior Field Experience.

ESOC 4450L is the last of three professional block courses in the second semester of the undergraduate program. Like ESOC 2450 it is a two-hour weekly seminar supplemented with a 60-hour field experience. A review of ESOC 4450L syllabi since 2005 exhibits varied approaches to course content. However, most course instructors focus on classroom management. Of the three professional block courses it is the only course assigned the secondary program standard "*manage classrooms effectively to promote student learning and safety.*" With the associated field experience the course often serves as the last and only opportunity to explore

classroom management issues prior to student teaching. Randall, the course instructor for Spring 2009, had taught the course two previous times in Fall 2005 and Fall 2008.

Over the three semesters Randall's course syllabus saw little change. Several questions guided each course. These included:

What are the social studies for? How is that purpose enacted 'on the ground'? What are the obstacles to achieving the purposes of social studies? Is there a good 'fit' between purposes and actual practices? Why or why not? What does that mean for me as a future educator? How can I conceptualize what I am observing in ways that lead to better teaching? (ESOC 4450L S09 Syllabus).

To help answer these questions preservice teachers were expected to observe five hours in their school placement per week. After each observation students were asked to complete a journal entry of the experience. Students shared these journals with Randall through e-mail or the digital component of the course (at the time, WebCT).

Because there was no course text Randall used the journal entries to guide student learning. According to Randall:

Every class period, the generative questions come out of what the students send me in their journals. They have to send me a journal entry every day they're in the field and they are expected at least once a week to go to online discussion board to post a question, a problem, an observation (Interview, 30 September 2009).

Although there is no required course text Randall structured classroom management conversations around the idea of judicious discipline (Gathercoal, 1998). Randall noted that "Gathercoal insists that young people must come into a dialogue around what are the ways in

which a democratic society operates, and he uses the constitution as his basic structure"
(Interview, 30 September 2009).

The open-ended arrangement of the course allowed Randall to explore topics or problems
of interest to preservice teachers. In Spring 2009 the preservice teachers were concerned over
how they would approach the first day of class. Students felt they were generally prepared with
instructional methods and discipline techniques but how to successfully navigate the first day of
school eluded them. Therefore, at the end of the semester Randall created a role-play where he
operated the "first day" of class. Certain preservice teachers were assigned student stereotypes to
portray as he enacted the first day of school. These stereotypes included the "jock," "braniac,"
and "sweetheart" (Interview, 30 September 2009). Students played these roles and others while
Randall taught. Randall recalled that he "had a ball" with this simulation but that the preservice
teachers gained something from the experience. Specifically, he believed student fears were
eased and they began to see how to implement their rationales and teacher learning into practice.

ESOC 5460, Student Teaching.

The third and final semester of the undergraduate program consists of the student
teaching experience and the student teaching seminar. In the social studies program student
teaching is a 12-week, full-time experience. Ideally, student teaching placements are made
during the professional block semester. Approximately a month into the professional coursework
students complete a placement request form. The Office of Student Service in conjunction with
the social studies program coordinator and academic advisor request placements in local middle
and high schools. A majority of these placements are made within several months though
occasionally some students are not placed until the start of the student teaching semester.

Once placed the student teachers are encouraged to contact their assigned mentor teacher to schedule initial visits to prepare for the semester. According to the program website: "Student teachers and [mentor] teachers are encouraged to discuss opportunities for student teachers to spend time in schools during pre-planning, start-of-school year, and earlier classroom activities" (ESOC website). Additionally, the program coordinator contacts mentor teachers each semester to thank them for hosting a student teacher and directs them to the program website for further information about the student teaching experience. However, beyond this initial welcome and the occasional request for student teacher evaluations, mentor teachers are not provided with directed guidance from program faculty or university supervisors about their responsibilities as mentor teachers. As I will discuss further in the participant section of this chapter and in Chapter Five, how mentors perceive their practice is often informed through their own experiences as student teachers.

Student teachers are encouraged not to assume more than half the mentor teacher's instructional load. This expectation is the result of several program realities. First, social studies faculty believe that "student teaching is not something to merely survive, but a time of initial professional development when student teachers gain valuable experience in the classroom and have time to learn from that experience" (ESOC website). As such, a full teaching load would not allow preservice teachers the time necessary to create powerful lessons and reflect on student learning. Additionally, outside expectations exist in the form of student teaching seminar assignments and university supervisor observations. I will discuss several of the seminar assignments in the student teaching seminar section.

At three points in the semester university supervisors conduct observations of their assigned student teachers. According to the program website, "student teachers are encouraged to

have [supervisors] observe 'risky' teaching to gain additional perspectives on the challenge of

powerful social studies teaching" (ESOC website). Prior to each observation student teachers

complete pre-observation forms. University supervisors use student teacher responses on these

forms to provide context for the observations and post-observation conferences. During each

observation the supervisor takes field notes in an individualized and contextualized manner that

reflects the lesson observed, student teacher ability level, and how the supervisor conceptualizes

his or her practice. Following the observation the supervisor generally conducts a post-

observation meeting to discuss the student teacher's instruction. Each observation cycle is

completed when the supervisor writes an observation report and shares this report with the

student teacher, mentor teacher, and seminar instructor.

The program website notes that university supervisors "share a common vision about

powerful social studies teaching and learning, and much of their work is directed in support of

this vision" (ESOC website). However, there is a distinct difference between this statement and

the reality of supervisor preparation and awareness of a common vision. Tom admitted that

supervisor training is often limited to a "crash course briefing about what the job entails"

(Interview, 7 August 2009). In these meetings Tom shares observation documents that include

sample observation reports. Tom noted that occasionally he accompanies supervisors into the

field to "work with them on what an observation visit entails" but that most supervisors learn

their practice through experience as supervisors and involvement in the ESOC 9700 seminar. As

a result, supervisor training is an informal process that often leads to individualized

interpretations of how best to support student teachers and of the program's vision for teaching

and learning. I will explore this issue further in the participant biography of Cliff and in Chapter

Five.

In addition to supervisor observations, the program expects supervisors and mentors to conduct formal evaluations of student teachers. At the midpoint and conclusion of the semester the mentor teacher and supervisor complete a Student Teacher Evaluation form. This form asks the supervisor and mentor to rate student teacher practice in relation to the SURGE framework. The mentor and supervisor rate how the student teacher demonstrates each standard in practice. There are five rating options provided: 1) little or no evidence 2) limited evidence; 3) sufficient evidence; 4) clear, consistent, and convincing evidence; and 4) no opportunity to judge. Mentors and supervisors are encouraged to use these evaluations to engage in conversations with student teachers about their work to that point in the semester.

A final form of observation and feedback occurs with peers. These peer observations occur at two points in the student teaching experience. According to the program website, "the expectation is that you will open your practice to a peer once, and you will leave your classroom to collaborate with another peer once" (ESOC website). This assignment explicitly references two of the core themes, reflective practice and collaborative inquiry. The purpose of the assignment is to increase communication and joint reflection between preservice teachers and to "develop a greater appreciation for diversity among the different school settings [preservice teachers] are likely to encounter in [their] career" (ESOC website). The peer observation assignment follows the pattern of pre-observation, observation, and post-observation conferences used in university supervisor observations.

I end this description of the student teaching experience with a brief account of paired student teaching in the social studies program. According to Tom, paired student teaching:

[W]as an idea that gained traction because we have lots of students in the program, probably more students to place than we have high quality placements for them. We have

more student teachers than [mentor] teachers, so it became a numbers issue. If we have a good [mentor] teacher we can place two student teachers with, it makes our placement stress less" (Interview, 7 August 2009).

In addition to a reduction in the number of mentor teachers the program faculty and graduate teaching assistants believed that paired teaching could provide,

[A]n educationally rich student teaching experience. One of our core themes is collaborative inquiry. The idea of paired student teaching is appealing to me because it seems like it creates opportunities for collaborative inquiry that wouldn't be there in the traditional one student teacher, one [mentor] teacher arrangement" (Interview, 7 August 2009).

The social studies program first used paired student teaching in Spring 2008. Eight student teachers participated that semester. Tom recalled that although the program noted success in several of the placements "we ran into some issues with people not getting along … and we didn't pay enough attention to those kinds of relationships" (Interview, 7 August 2009). The primary issue that first semester was the non-voluntary nature of student placements. The social studies program attempted paired student teaching once again in Spring 2009. However, in that semester students were asked to volunteer their participation. As a result, there were fewer participants but none of the personal conflicts that had emerged the previous year.

Other than the request for volunteers, Tom described the "implementation of the model as lax" (Interview, 7 August 2009). When paired student teaching is mentioned as an option to preservice teachers, Tom or a course instructor might elaborate on the merits of paired teaching. However, at the time of this study there was no "program in place to get student teachers up to speed on what a paired placement can do for them, or how it might work" (Interview, 7 August

2009). Additionally, there is no training for mentor teachers or university supervisors in how to support paired student teachers. This is largely the result of a presumption of practice. According to Tom, "There was kind of this presumption that if you put good people together in a productive site, then good things would happen" (Interview, 7 August 2009). I explore this presumption further in Chapter Five.

ESOC 5560, Student Teaching Seminar.

The student teaching seminar serves as the capstone experience for the program. Student teachers attend this course once per week in the evening. Fall 2009 was Tom's fifth time teaching the course. For Tom, student teaching seminar holds two purposes. First, it "provides a place for students to talk together in making sense of their very intense teaching experiences, so in that sense it becomes kind of a forum for shared experience" (Interview, 7 August 2009). To provide this conversational space Tom uses the first 50 minutes to an hour as an "Open Forum" where students can share their ideas and problems of practice. Tom considered Open Forum an "educationally rich part of the class because through discussion of your experiences in student teaching you gain insights, but it's a less controlled period of class and the students by and large are invited to produce the content for that" (Interview, 7 August 2009). However, in the Spring 2009 semester Open Forum was replaced on a bi-weekly basis with 'field instructor breakout sessions' (Cuenca et al., in press).

Breakout sessions replaced Open Forum on a bi-weekly basis so that supervisors could more regularly meet with those student teachers they observed. The previous semester supervisor observation visits were reduced from four to three. As a result, university supervisors in the social studies program felt that their outsider status in schools and on campus had increased (Slick, 1997, 1998). To counter the reduction in field visits program faculty and supervisors

devised bi-weekly breakout sessions. What occurred in these 50-minute meetings was the purview of the supervisors. They might address pertinent problems of practice, hold informal conversations about topics important to student teachers, or explore a particular reading of interest to the supervisor and student teachers.

The second purpose of the student teaching seminar is to "systematically work through the framework standards, including the core themes," to prepare the capstone assignment known as the Eportfolio (Tom Interview, 7 August 2009). The Eportfolio submitted at the end of the semester consists of a portfolio introduction, resume, revised copy of the teaching rationale, and reflective papers for the six domains. Preservice teachers are also expected to include artifacts from their teaching in the portfolio (i.e., lesson plans, student work, course assignments). This portfolio counted for 50% of the course grade in Fall 2009. At the end of each semester student teachers share their portfolios with their peers, supervisors, and acknowledged 'friends of the program' on a night known as "Eportfolio night." How student teachers present portfolios has changed over time. The first portfolio presentations consisted of individual student teacher presentations followed by a question-and-answer session. These individual presentations evolved into panel discussions that were used from Spring 2008 to Spring 2009. In Fall 2009 panel discussions were modified into a roundtable format to allow for increased conversation between student teachers and others in attendance.

Tom prepared students for the portfolio through a directed analysis of each program standard. For the most part each of the six organizing domains of the framework received two weeks of consideration. However, the core theme of active student engagement and worthwhile learning received special attention in the second week of class. At the end of the first class

meeting Tom provided students with an assignment to explore the notion of good teaching in their classrooms. Tom asked students to:

Look for good teaching in your school this coming week. As you observe and reflect on your teaching, and/or your cooperating teacher's teaching, think, and then write, about the following questions:

- Are students actively engaged in learning?

- How often are they? How often are they not?

- How can you tell the difference – if the are or aren't?

- What specific evidence do you see as you answer these questions?

- How worthwhile is what they're learning?

- Which is more difficult to judge – active student engagement or worthwhile learning? (F09 ASE in WL Assignment)

Student teachers were then asked to assess the level of good teaching in their practice or their mentor teacher's practice if they had not assumed control over the classroom. One additional core theme received considerable focus in the student teaching semester.

Due to the admitted difficulty preservice teachers have had with the culturally responsive and equitable instruction theme Tom provided students with an assignment directly tailored to explore the theme in practice. In the assignment students were asked to "use diversity, cultural difference, multicultural education, and equity as lenses through which to examine practice" (CRT Assignment). Students were asked to draw from one of several categories – social class, ethnicity, race, gender, sexual orientation, and religion – to create two stories of their teaching to that point in the semester. In one story students were to provide "one good story (i.e., a story that

deals with difference done right) and one not-so-good story (i.e., a story that deals with difference done wrong)" (CRT Assignment).

Only one other set of standards received as much individualized attention as active student engagement or culturally responsive instruction. In the ninth week of class Tom and the students explored the Assessment domain. Assessment received special attention due to Tom's previous experiences in seminar. In the Assessment assignment Tom wrote: "My experience as both a seminar instructor and Eportfolio evaluator tells me that this standard represents an area calling for more attention in our social studies program" (F09 Assessment Assignment). As such, Tom had students create an alternative assessment that reflected the state standards, notions of worthwhile learning, and the student teachers' personal teaching rationale. Beyond these three assignments Tom often provided students with worksheets that help prepare them for the portfolio. The worksheets asked students to restate the standard, list questions they have about the standard, examples of the standard in practice, and to consider how they might pursue implementation of the standard in their first years of teaching. Students generally completed these worksheets outside of class. Tom and the students made sense of the worksheets and the standards they encompassed through group work or class discussions.

<div align="center">Adams County High School</div>

Jamie and Eleanor completed their student teaching at Adams County High School. Adams County High School is one of two high schools that serve the residents of Adams County, which lies immediately to the northwest of Florence and Southeastern State. However, several cities within the county operate independent city school systems. One of these cities is Johnston, which serves as the county seat. This split occurred in the wake of the *Brown v. Board of Education* Supreme Court decision as the cities sought to avoid integration. The city of

Johnston was home to the county high school at the time of the *Brown v. Board* decision and took control of the high school as a result.

With newly independent city school systems that served a large portion of the student population, Adams County built a new high school near the more heavily populated areas of the county. This new high school was built in 1957 approximately 10 miles from Johnston on the western border of Adams County. Over time the population center shifted and the county sought a new site for the high school more centrally located to the student population. As a result, a new county high school was built in the 1980s on the outskirts of Johnston along a major thoroughfare connected to Florence. In their current locations Adams County and Johnston City High Schools are less than one mile from one another.

The new Adams County High School is located approximately twenty miles northwest of Florence. Because the school is close to Florence and other larger cities and suburban communities many of the teachers, including Kay, choose to live in Florence and other areas. Although Adams County and the county where Florence is located are neighbors, the demographics of each is drastically different. The county where Florence is located in a suburban area of approximately 115,000 people plus a transient population of 30,000 college students. Adams County, on the other hand, still maintains its rural roots. This is quickly changing however.

Adams County is currently home to approximately 60,000 people. Over the past decade the county has had rapid growth as 10,000 people moved to Adams County in search of a semi-rural lifestyle away from the hustle of the large metropolitan area to the south. However, even with the recent influx of people the demographics of Adams County are drastically skewed from the state demographics. Approximately 65% of the state population is white, 30% black, and

seven percent Hispanic. The demographics of Adams County on the other hand are approximately 89% white, eight percent black, three percent Hispanic, and one percent Asian.

The student demographics of public schools in Adams County are slightly skewed in relation to county population demographics. Altogether there are approximately 7,000 students enrolled in Adams County schools. For the 2009-2010 academic year approximately 1,000 of those students were enrolled at Adams County High School. Of these 1,000 students 78% were white, 10% Hispanic, six percent Asian, and four percent black. The three minority groups (Hispanic, Asian, black) have experienced consistent growth in the years prior to the 2009-2010 academic year. This growth has resulted in a reduction of the white student population from 83% in 2007-2008 to 78% in 2009.

These changes in student demographics have occurred even though the student population has consistently hovered around 1,000. This change in population has been attributed to the growth of private schools in Adams County and Florence, as well as the relocation of families within Johnston city limits so that children can attend Johnston city schools. While Adams County High School is becoming increasingly diverse within a steady population, Johnston City High School is experiencing a reduction in diversity while increasing its student population. Between 2007 and 2009 the white population at Johnston City High School has increased from 77% to 81%. The largest reduction in student population has been in the number of black students. This number has dropped from 13% to 10% of the total population in the same time frame.

With its changing demographics Adams County High School has experienced difficulty in achieving adequate yearly progress (AYP) according to standards set by No Child Left Behind. In the four academic years between 2006 and 2009 the school failed to meet AYP twice.

The two years the school did not meet AYP were the result of low scores for students labeled economically disadvantaged. Students labeled economically disadvantaged, generally determined by free or reduced lunch status, made up one-third the total student population in 2009. Adams County High School is also home to a large number of special education students that made up 13% of the student body in 2009.

The school website and signs posted around the school state that Adams County High School is "committed to the relentless pursuit of educational excellence" (ACHS website). This philosophy is readily seen in the displays at the entrance of the school, in hallways, and in academic expectations for students. When visitors first enter ACHS they are confronted with several bulletin boards that promote school programs and potential careers after college. One bulletin board is devoted solely to the advertisement of colleges and universities and how students can best prepare themselves to attend these schools. As the visitors walk up the main corridor they are surrounded by display cases full of academic and athletic trophies. The message meant for visitors, teachers, and students alike is that Adams County High School promotes excellence in all forms. Finally, students are encouraged to achieve academically early on in their high school years. For example, the school expects many students in 9th grade to enroll in the advanced placement government course. At many other schools this course is generally reserved for students in the 12th grade due to the difficulty of the content. In informal conversations with social studies teachers at the school, many of them indicated a dislike of freshmen enrollment in AP government because students are not prepared for the course. These teachers admit that many of the students in AP government do not belong in advanced placement courses, but that students are encouraged to enroll in these classes because the school administration desires a large student enrollment in advanced placement courses.

The school day at Adams County High School is structured around block scheduling. As an alternative to the traditional school day where students take six classes that last approximately fifty minutes each students take four ninety-minute classes in block scheduling. Block scheduling was instituted approximately a decade before this study due to a group of teachers intrigued by the merits of block scheduling. According to the Adams County website:

> Several of our teachers attended the Southern Regional Educational Board conference and heard about it. They returned and requested that the school consider using the block scheduling structure. After two years of intensive study by the entire faculty, 98% of the faculty voted to switch to block scheduling. Our experience with this structure has been excellent (ACHS website).

The typical teacher's schedule consists of three instructional periods and one planning period. For the 2009-2010 academic year Kay was assigned two college preparation-level United States history courses and an advanced placement United States history course. Due to limitations placed upon who can or cannot teach an advanced placement course Kay served as the sole instructor for the advanced placement course. This left the two college preparation-level courses for Eleanor and Jamie to teach.

What is defined as a college preparation-level course at Adams County High School and across the state has changed in recent years. Students were previously offered one of several high school diploma options. These options included a technical degree, college preparation, college preparation with an honors seal, and gifted or advanced placement. Several years before this study the state department of education mandated that schools remove the technical degree as an option. As a result, those students who would have traditionally received a technical degree were moved to the college preparation track while most college preparation track students were

elevated to the honors track. Special education and English Language Learner (ELL) students were also included in this move as they were largely relocated to the college preparation-level and provided with only a few classes devoted solely to special education or ELL. Those classes with a large number of special education or ELL students were labeled "inclusion" classes and special education or ELL certified teacher was assigned to assist subject matter teachers.

The two classes that Eleanor and Jamie taught held the "inclusion" label. Seven of the 26 students in their first period were special education students, while five of the 17 students in second period were special education students. I provide a breakdown of the class demographics by race and gender in Table 4.4. In the second interview Kay described these two classes as "two very difficult classes to run" (Interview, 22 October 2009). She noted that several students

Table 4.4. Class Demographics for Eleanor and Jamie

	Total	Male	Female	White	Hispanic	Black	SPED
First Period	26	17	9	22	2	2	5
Second Period	17	9	8	15	1	1	7

had emotional issues or lacked focus. In describing the students in these two classes Kay said:

> You get kids that are emotionally disturbed. They will blow up at you one day for something and not the next. … There's a student who will not stay seated no matter what. If he does not have something to focus on right then, he's up and walking around (Interview, 22 October 2009).

Kay continued to explain that the inclusion teacher was of little help in these situations. Across the six field observations there were several student fights or moments where students needed assistance academically or emotionally. In these moments the inclusion teacher was either absent from the classroom or largely ignored his responsibilities to the special education students. Only

when there was a serious disturbance would the inclusion teacher involve himself in classroom management. Instead, while Jamie and Eleanor taught and confronted classroom management issues the special education teacher preferred to focus on the sports he coached after school and sat far from the students.

In addition to teaching inclusion classes without the involvement of the special education teacher Eleanor and Jamie also taught in classrooms not devoted to social studies. Kay had not been assigned a classroom of her own for the school year. Therefore, her three classes took place in three separate classrooms. Specifically, the two classes Eleanor and Jamie taught were held in physical science and biology classrooms. Even the AP course Kay taught was held in a French classroom. As such, no social studies posters or student work adorned the classroom walls that might have provided insight into how Kay enacted her beliefs about teaching. Additionally, because Eleanor and Jamie rotated classrooms the activities and assignments they prepared had to take into consideration the layout of the classrooms they were assigned. With only five minutes between classes Eleanor and Jamie had little time to rearrange desks to facilitate group work, discussion, or other forms of learning they wanted to enact.

<center>Participants</center>

In this section I share brief biographies of the four primary participants: Eleanor, Jamie, Kay, and Cliff. For each participant I describe childhood experiences that include their perceptions and experiences with K-12 education. However, what I detail beyond these childhood descriptions is determined by the particular role each participant holds in my research. For Eleanor and Jamie, I conclude their biographies prior to student teaching. I include their interpretations of the courses I described in the previous section of the social studies program. However, much of the findings relate specifically to what occurred in the student teaching

seminar and the related space of the field instructor breakout sessions. As such, I delay

conversations of how Eleanor and Jamie interpreted their ESOC 5560 coursework until Chapter

Five (Findings).

For Kay and Cliff I continue their biographies past childhood experiences into their

collegiate and teaching experiences. In light of the coherence literature that describe the positive

effect of teacher education programs who work with program graduates, Kay and Cliff's status

as Southeastern State social studies program graduates and their previous work with preservice

teachers from the program are of immediate interest to this study. As such, I provide additional

detail of these experiences and how they helped shape Kay and Cliff's work with preservice

teachers. I turn now to the biographies of Eleanor and Jamie.

Eleanor

Eleanor is from a town far from Florence. Hamlet, where Eleanor was born, is

surrounded with desert and provided its citizens with a small town lifestyle. According to

Eleanor, life in Hamlet was "pretty simple, [and] there wasn't a whole lot to do" (Interview, 13

August 2009). Although Hamlet remains a small town it has experienced significant growth in

recent years. But even with this population growth Eleanor felt as if she lived in a small town

where her mother, and by association she, knew everyone else.

For Eleanor, her first experiences with education were "fun." She recalled holding hands

with her second grade teacher and her enjoyment with constantly learning new things. As

Eleanor moved into junior high her experiences grew unpleasant. Although she was enrolled in

honors courses, Eleanor found that her disinterest and difficulty with mathematics often led

teachers to yell at her for being distracted and unteachable in class. Eleanor recalled her seventh

grade math teacher who suggested she give up her favorite sport softball to focus on her math

work. But what made junior high tolerable were the opportunities for involvement with her peers – student government, pep rallies, and dances. It was these social experiences that Eleanor spoke of most when she thought about her early years in school. What followed was more difficult for Eleanor.

High school was a struggle for Eleanor. Junior high had not been academically rigorous but in high school Eleanor found herself challenged by coursework and teacher expectations. Yet high school was where Eleanor found her academic interest. In her sophomore year Eleanor took World History with Mr. Kaminski. What separated Mr. Kaminski apart from other teachers was his interaction with students. According to Eleanor, he:

> [W]as really in touch with his students. He joked around with everybody. Most people would joke around with the boys because they knew [the boys] could take it, but he joked around with the girls too. He was just a really fun guy (Interview, 13 August 2009).

However, there was more to Mr. Kaminski than the way he interacted with students. He made learning fun. More importantly, he made connections to current events and popular culture. Mr. Kaminski taught history as a story and not as a set of facts. In the end, Eleanor felt she had learned more from Mr. Kaminski than she had from any other teacher and would later attempt to replicate his teaching style in student teaching. Eleanor so enjoyed Mr. Kaminski's class that she took US History and AP World History with him the next two years. Mr. Kaminski had reawakened a love of history Eleanor had in her youth.

In her junior year of high school Eleanor decided not to take the SATs because she knew she did not want to attend a four-year college immediately after high school. After long conversations with her parents, Eleanor came to the conclusion that the local community college

was the best alternative to a four-year college or university far from home. Eleanor reflected about the decision:

> Looking back, I think it was the best option. I wasn't ready to leave and be on my own. It sounds sad, but that's probably the truth for a lot of people. It was cheaper to go to community college, it was close to home, and I had some good experiences there. [Community college] was my jumping off point before university (Interview, 13 August 2009).

It took Eleanor two and a half years to complete an associate's degree at the community college. In that time she continued to struggle with mathematics but found that her love of history was still present. Although the history professors taught in different ways than Mr. Kaminski, Eleanor nonetheless enjoyed these courses. After two years in community college Eleanor began to consider her next steps. Florence and Southeastern State drew some of that consideration from the start.

A group of friends who lived in Florence initially brought Florence and Southeastern State to the attention of Eleanor. Eleanor visited these friends each summer in her first years of college. In her last summer trip Eleanor's friends suggested she enroll at Southeastern State. These friends knew Eleanor was close to graduation at the community college. At first Eleanor was uncertain. Her hesitancy rested primarily in the vast distance Florence was from home, but she also thought she did not meet the academic standards of Southeastern State. When Eleanor returned to Hamlet at the end of summer 2005 she reflected on the potential of finishing her degree at Southeastern State. She said: "I went back home to Hamlet and I thought about it. I just said, I want to go [to Southeastern State]. It's different, it's far away, it's in a big college town. I

just wanted to be there" (Interview, 13 August 2009). So, in late summer 2005 Eleanor applied to Southeastern State and was accepted that December.

After Eleanor completed her degree at the community college in Spring 2006 she enrolled at Southeastern State in Fall 2007. Eleanor had known since the third grade that she wanted to be a teacher, so she immediately took a number of education courses. One of these courses was ESOC 2450. According to Eleanor, even though she was challenged by the coursework and field experience component she relished this course because "it was my first taste of a teacher education program. Finally, something I always looked forward to" (Interview, 13 August 2009). Her experiences in ESOC 2450 reinforced Eleanor's belief that the social studies program at Southeastern State was the appropriate fit for her. This belief was due primarily to the fact that she was still "excited" about teaching. It was this feeling that led Eleanor to apply for admission into the social studies program. She gained entry on the first attempt and several semesters later enrolled in the Spring 2009 professional block.

Upon entry into the program Eleanor was directly confronted with an experience that did not match her expectations. The Curriculum course in particular was far different than what she imagined. She initially believed curriculum was about social studies content, and what she experienced was "more along the lines of the foundation for teaching social studies" (Interview, 13 August 2009). Although she was not exposed to the "how to" of teaching, she felt that what she missed in terms of course development (i.e., course syllabus, unit plan, etc.) would appear later through experience in the classroom. She noted: "I can still do those things. I guess it just requires finding it out on my own now, or just learning from other sources" (Interview, 13 August 2009).

The Methods course, however, met many of her expectations. Eleanor wanted to learn methods she could use in her classroom and felt the course provided many such approaches. She enjoyed the discussion portion of the course though she was not a fan of the Kozol's (2005) *Shame of the Nation* that served as the content for learning discussion methods. Eleanor felt she benefited particularly from the Shur (2007) text that provided a variety of literary methods for the social studies classroom. However, Eleanor was not supportive of every method she learned in the course. She strongly disliked the group work method. Initially she noted a dislike of the primary group work text (Cohen, 1994). But her dislike went deeper than the text. She commented: "I just don't agree with group work … Doing group work all throughout middle and high school, I never saw that it worked because there was always one or two people carrying the group, and people would slack off" (Interview, 13 August 2009). These experiences soured her perception of group work and caused some reluctance for its use in student teaching.

Eleanor learned several things from the senior practicum course with Randall. She recalled a comment Randall would make on a weekly basis: *Teach as if it mattered*. Although Randall's use of the phrase appeared repetitive at first, it caused Eleanor to rethink her purpose as a teacher. She also learned from the field experience component of the course that she did not want to teach middle school. Eleanor was interested in history, and high school was the only place she could teach the subject. Middle school social studies touched on a variety of topics within the social studies and her interest did not lie in civics, current events, or geography. As Eleanor noted: "I like a class where I can stand up there and talk about history … I like the old stuff" (Interview, 13 August 2009).

Although she saw these courses as interconnected in several ways they lacked explicit conversations of the program core themes. She recalled their presence on several course syllabi.

However, when asked to name them in the first interview she could not do so. But when provided with the program framework she was able to make immediate reference to how each course reflected aspects of the core themes. For instance, when questioned about reflective practice, she noted that Jason often made weekly alterations to the Curriculum class. According to Eleanor,

> Jason would tell on Wednesdays that what happened the previous week didn't work so he changed things up, or he would print out the schedule for what class was going to be that day and he'd suddenly take things out. He'd say, 'that's not going to work' or 'I don't like that anymore' (Interview, 13 August 2009).

She recalled exposure to culturally responsive instruction through various texts like Kozol (2005) in Methods and conversations of individual rights and responsibilities in Curriculum. Eleanor also felt she experienced cultural responsiveness in her senior field experience. She recalled that in the classroom she observed the students were divided by race. Black students sat on one side of the room and white students sat on the other side. She noted that the mentor teacher changed where students sat because "she wanted to see different cultures together, interacting together" (Interview, 13 August 2009).

In reflecting on the presence of the core themes in coursework Eleanor felt they were more of an implied curriculum. She said:

> I didn't know them [by name] before, but you can ask me about why is it important for cultural diversity or collaborative inquiry and I can tell you why. I guess it's probably more important that I acquired this on my own without saying you need to know this. I think it's more valuable that I picked upon on it on my own. I know them (Interview, 13 August 2009).

Eleanor believed that each core theme was present throughout her coursework. Even if the course instructors did not explicitly connect the content of each course to the core themes, she felt she was aware of their value. She was also adamant of her ability to define them. However, her ability to define them would differ greatly from her ability to enact them.

Jamie

Jamie was the opposite of Eleanor in many ways. Eleanor had spent much of her life prior to Southeastern State far away in a small town, desert lifestyle. Jamie was born in Florence and lived there for much of her life except for a few years. Eleanor came from a stable two-parent home. Jamie was born into a difficult home life marked by constant moves and a single mother addicted to drugs. However, it was a common love for school and history that brought them to the same social studies teacher program.

At the age of seven Jamie and her mother left Florence for the small town of Rickville three hours away. This move was precipitated by her father's death in an automobile accident at the age of three and her mother's subsequent drug abuse. Shortly after moving to Rickville to be closer to family Jamie began her first year of school. She recalls these first years of school as "fun" though not entirely memorable. Although Jamie could not recall specific experiences in these initial years she described herself as "over-achiever." She attributed her status as "teacher's pet" to her home life. She notes:

> [P]art of the reason why I really immersed myself in school was … because my mom was doing drugs and she was bouncing from boyfriend to boyfriend, and I felt like school was the one thing I could control in life so I always made really good grades (Interview, 13 August 2009).

These troubles at home would later lead to Jamie's return to Florence in the eighth grade.

Shortly after her 13th birthday, Jamie's mother was arrested and sent to prison. As a result, one of Jamie's cousins became her guardian and moved her back to Florence. Upon enrollment in a Florence middle school she noticed a distinct cultural and racial difference. Rickville schools lacked diversity while Florence schools, especially the school Jamie attended, had a rather large minority population. Along with the initial shock of the diversity that surrounded her, Jamie described her first experience with Florence schools as largely negative. She was forced to repeat several classes she had already taken in Rickville with teachers who had little control over their students.

As Jamie moved into high school she enrolled in advanced college prep courses where "it was a little better" than her middle school experiences (Interview, 13 August 2009). It was in one of these high school courses where Jamie experienced her favorite teacher Mr. Gladden. Mr. Gladden was very much like Eleanor's favorite teacher Mr. Kaminski. Jamie described Mr. Gladden as a teacher who "tried to relate more to the kids and you got to know him a little more than a lot of the teachers there" (Interview, 13 August 2009). Mr. Gladden was unlike other teachers who had their students complete "busy work." Instead, Jamie enjoyed Mr. Gladden's class because he lectured little and provided students with a large amount of group work opportunities.

After high school Jamie attended the state's liberal arts university approximately an hour south of Florence. Although Jamie enjoyed her education, she left after a year and returned home to Florence. Because Jamie had spent the year focused on academics she had made few friends and believed she would be lonely without her two best friends who had dropped out of the university. Therefore, she elected to return to Florence and attend a local community college where she subsequently graduated with an associate's degree in psychology.

Jamie was drawn to Southeastern State for economic and personal reasons. At the time Jamie was seriously involved with her boyfriend (later to be her fiancé), and she did not want to move away from him. Jamie also took into consideration the expenses associated with a move to a new city. Although Jamie enjoyed Florence, she did not see herself living the college lifestyle. Instead, she saw herself as a "country kind of person" so she chose Southeastern State because "it was the cheapest option" available (Interview, 13 August 2009). And unlike Eleanor she did not enroll at Southeastern State with the intent to study social studies education. Rather, Jamie considered crime scene forensics and psychology as potential careers prior to her foray into social studies education which she "kind of fell into" (Interview, 13 August 2009).

During her first semester at Southeastern State Jamie took a set of history and psychology courses as she contemplated her career path. After some friends and family suggested she might make a good social studies teacher, Jamie enrolled in one of the ESOC 2450 courses offered in Spring 2008. Prior to taking ESOC 2450 Jamie had an interest and background in both psychology and history and thought that if she became a teacher she "could be inclined to teach history and psychology and have the best of both worlds" (Interview, 13 August 2009).

Jamie's expectations and the realities of the program differed from the start. Before she took ESOC 2450, she "expected the program to teach me how to teach. I didn't really know that the social studies program would have a different goal than just getting info out" (Interview, 13 August 2009). This introduction to social studies education provided Jamie with varied interpretations of democracy and citizenship. In the end, "it was just kind of eye-opening in a totally different viewpoint [of social studies] than what I thought this would be" (Interview, 13 August 2009). Although Jamie felt she had learned a great deal from the course, she viewed the teaching rationale as the low point of the experience because she felt she had to write what others

in the program wanted to hear if she desired admission. Nonetheless, Jamie believed that social studies education was the correct path for her, applied for admission at the end of the course, and gained entry for the Spring 2009 semester.

As it did for Eleanor the Curriculum course did not match Jamie's initial expectations. Jamie had assumed that the course would focus on instructional methods. Although it differed from her expectations, she noted that she "liked the class because we did a lot on democratic citizenship and that's what I've moved toward [conceptually]" (Interview, 13 August 2009). She commented that the class was a "lot more about thinking of your ideals and democratic citizenship and how that plays out in the classroom" (Interview, 13 August 2009). Jamie also enjoyed the Methods course because she valued the experience of lesson planning and attempting different methods. However, the Kozol (2005) text was somewhat off-putting though she did acknowledge the need to explore the text because it exposed the realities of what occurs in many schools.

Jamie's recollections of the senior practicum course were less positive. But this negative perception was focused on the placement process and not the course instructor. She noted: "We weren't placed until late in the semester so a lot of times we came to class and had nothing to talk about because there were only two students placed" (Interview, 13 August 2009). But once students were placed in schools, the class dynamic shifted. She recalled that in the second half of the semester the conversations were beneficial because everyone could contribute. Jamie's field experience contrasted that of Eleanor. Jamie felt that her field experience did not reflect the goals of the program because "a lot of the teachers were [in the classroom] to get the information out so the kids could pass the tests" (Interview, 13 August 2009). In her reflection of the programmatic experiences prior to student teaching she felt that the Methods and Senior

Practicum courses prepared her most for student teaching. Unlike the Curriculum course, their focus on instructional methods and classroom management provided Jamie with concrete ideas she could take into the classroom.

In terms of the core themes, Jamie shared Eleanor's assessment that their explicit presence was limited to course syllabi. And like Eleanor she felt they were more implied in the coursework. Diverse classroom environments in student field experiences forced conversations of culture and equity in Senior Practicum. Jason examined equity through the lens of democracy. Rationale-based practice was a primary focus of the introductory course and Methods. Collaborative inquiry was present throughout the program as students worked together on assignments and conversed with one another about issues related to social studies. However, aside from initial class meetings Jamie could not recall course instructors who engaged in conversations about what the core themes meant. More or less, the core themes existed as a implied curriculum around which course content was developed.

Kay

Kay was born and raised in Holcomb, a city on the eastern outskirts of a major metropolitan area an hour from Florence. She described Holcomb as a "suburban white flight town" and that it "was nice, safe, and not very culturally diverse" (Interview, 24 August 2009). Community life revolved around the local high school and athletic events. Kay recalled little of elementary school, but middle school stood out to her for her involvement in athletics. She described her foray into sports as the "first time [she'd] been forced to work for something" (Interview, 24 August 2009).

High school was a challenging experience for Kay. She attended a school with an expectation that students were to have completed their first year of college by the time they

graduated high school. Due to this expectation, Kay took a large number of advanced placement and joint enrollment courses. According to Kay, high school became "very competitive because there was a small group of us and we all wanted to be at the top" (Interview, 24 August 2009). Kay described herself as a good student, however she often slept in class. She considered herself as someone who learned best through reading the classroom material and had many teachers who were unorganized and, in her words, "wasted a lot of class time" (Interview, 24 August 2009).

However, Kay did have experiences with teachers she would describe as good. Three teachers stood out among the rest. These teachers had varied instructional styles but each had structured classroom environments. What stood out to Kay was each teacher's ability to challenge students and "consider a [new] way of looking at the world" (Interview, 24 August 2009). Kay shared insight into such experience from a literature course, saying: "I read the *Great Gatsby* and read all of the literary critique of it, and I suddenly saw literature in a light I'd never seen before" (Interview, 24 August 2009).

After high school Kay attended Southeastern State University. What led Kay to attend Southeastern State was a perception that it was the best public university in the state. Additionally, Kay believed she could find success if she graduated with a degree from the university. From the start Kay had her eyes set on a business degree with a real estate license. Kay graduated after four years in college but found herself dissatisfied with the opportunities the business world provided. During the job search Kay was confronted with people who had certain goals or expectations that did not match what she wanted to achieve in her own career. As a result, Kay considered a return to school.

Prior to graduation Kay applied for admission to the social studies education program at Southeastern State to complete a Master of Arts in Teaching degree. Kay applied to the program

due to her love of history and that she lived in Florence. What Kay remembered most of the program was how her attitude about teaching developed. Certain ideas were instilled in her such as reflection and a desire to "improve constantly" as an educator (Interview, 24 August 2009). However, her initial reflections after completing her degree were mixed. She felt she "lacked things that were practical, but now that I've been teaching for a couple of years I realize how much more valuable what I learned was as opposed to the practical things that I could have been taught" (Interview, 24 August 2009).

Kay's final experiences in the field also shaped how she saw herself as a teacher. She completed her student teaching with a mentor teacher who had taught for many years and was heavily attached to the overhead projector and the lecture method. Kay saw how disengaged students were in those classes and recognized she could not use the same approach to teaching. Kay described herself as a teacher who:

[W]orks hard to make every student successful and sometimes at the cost of the higher level students. I try to incorporate current events and lessons they can take from the classroom, but a lot of time I feel constrained by standards to make sure the students know certain facts in order to pass tests. I work hard to vary lessons in order to increase student motivation because they get tired of the same old thing. I can be strict if I feel like I'm losing control, although I try to fill each class period from beginning to end with stuff I think is useful and important to them (Interview, 24 August 2009).

With all of this Kay saw her purpose as an educator who could expose students to real world problems, make connections to content, and help them learn how to become responsible citizens.

Kay provided an example in the first interview of how she attempted to accomplish this in her classroom. Kay noted that the following day students were to learn about the presidential

election of 1800 and how it exemplified a peaceful change of political power. In order to make sense of this content and its connections to real world issues, Kay described how she would "have students read of a current event from Kenya or Afghanistan where there is a difficult time with peaceful changes of power" (Interview, 24 August 2009). However, Kay's primary purpose was more nationalistic in nature, as her desire was to "give students a little pride in their country and show them we accomplished this feat [of peaceful transition] long ago" (Interview, 24 August 2009).

Over the course of her career Kay had hosted practicum observers and student teachers from Southeastern State and other local colleges and universities. Kay's first experience with mentoring preservice teachers occurred in her first year of teaching. Although these students only observed her teaching she felt unable to help them much as she was still in the process of learning how to teach. From her own student teaching and these initial experiences as a mentor Kay had apparently developed a strong sense of how she could best support student teachers in her classroom. Her own mentor teacher viewed student teaching as a time where the preservice teacher had to learn "what it's like to have discipline problems, what it's like to make a new lesson every night, and [she] wanted me to see how difficult teaching was" (Interview, 24 August 2009). In her opinion, Kay acknowledged this was not what she saw as the purpose of student teaching. Instead, she wanted Eleanor and Jamie to "learn how to do a really good job as opposed to learning what the [teaching] load is like" (Interview, 24 August 2009). Kay primarily saw herself as a mentor who would help student teachers learn how to manage a classroom. Her focus was to guide the student teachers with the day-to-day problems they faced while the university supervisor would provide connections to problem goals and learning.

Cliff

Like Kay, Cliff was born and raised in the suburban outskirts of a major metropolitan area. However, Cliff's hometown of Cedar City is on the southern side of the metro area and a two-hour drive from Florence. Cedar City is like Holcomb in many ways in that it is an affluent area that lacks significant cultural and racial diversity. But whereas Holcomb is a city with a long history, Cedar City is "a planned community and a golf cart community" that has appealed to the retired and northern transplants working in the aviation industry (Interview, 11 August 2009).

Although Cedar City is primarily an affluent community, the local schools serve a more economically diverse student population though a large majority of the students remain white. Cliff enjoyed school from the start. Both parents were teachers and Cliff was expected to take education seriously. He recalled that his parents often told him and his brother: "If you go to school and embarrass us, you will have hell to pay" (Interview, 11 August 2009). As a result, Cliff knew he had to "play the game" of school but he enjoyed it nonetheless.

Cliff's interest in the social studies emerged early in his education. By the time he completed middle school Cliff had received several social studies awards that included a school citizenship award. This success continued into high school as Cliff extended his interests and recognitions into debate club and a consistent place on the honor roll. Most weekends during the fall were spent with the debate team. This was an activity Cliff particularly enjoyed because it was "academically intensive as we were expected to research and create arguments and then defend those arguments" (Interview, 11 August 2009). The academic rigor of the debate club exemplified the type of teacher Cliff favored. Two teachers stood out to Cliff in particular. Although they approached teaching in different ways, one was an entertainer and the other into

student inquiry, Cliff and his peers considered each "phenomenal teachers" and academically challenging (Interview, 11 August 2009).

High school was where Cliff was introduced to one of many potential career paths – anthropology. Initially Cliff wanted to attend college to study psychology. However, a friend a few years older was studying physical anthropology at a university several states away. Cliff would see her at academic breaks and was fascinated by the items and ideas she brought home to share. As he neared graduation Cliff was presented with an uncertain future – psychology, anthropology, or a career in medicine. However, he received encouragement from his parents to explore what interested him academically. Due to this encouragement Cliff changed course shortly before he left for college. Originally, Cliff had gained admission to Southeastern State. He even knew in which dorm he was to live. At the last minute, however, Cliff decided to attend an out-of-state university.

Cliff chose this university for several reasons. First, he believed he should follow in the footsteps of his brother and father who had graduated from the university. Second, the school was far from Southeastern State University where many of his friends had decided to attend. Cliff wanted the fresh start an out-of-state school could provide. As he started college Cliff contemplated taking some psychology courses but decided to try a course in anthropology. What caught Cliff's attention was one professor in particular whose office was strewn with "crazy relics" and course topics that were, according to Cliff, the "coolest thing I've ever heard about … the cultural stuff was really neat to me" (Interview, 11 August 2009).

From this initial experience Cliff decided to study cultural anthropology with a focus on African and environmental studies. After he graduated with a bachelor's degree in anthropology Cliff searched out graduate programs where he might continue his studies. For his area of

expertise of environmental and ecological anthropology there were few doctoral programs in the nation. However, Southeastern State University had one of those programs. Because Southeastern State had the anthropology program closest to home, Cliff decided to accept an offer from the anthropology department for academic support as a graduate teaching assistant.

Cliff spent the next three years as a teaching assistant while he spent summers conducting research in areas of east Africa. In his third year, however, Cliff was confronted with upheaval in his department. Several faculty members left for new positions, including two of his dissertation committee members. With no faculty in his area of interest and with little desire to change research topics, Cliff was able to use his preliminary dissertation work to graduate with a master's degree in anthropology. Cliff was content with the degree change as he realized that education might be a better professional fit because he "enjoyed the contact with students" in his assistantship (Interview, 11 August 2009). As he neared graduation he considered several teacher education programs at Southeastern State where he might continue his education.

From the start Cliff had his mind set on a doctoral degree. However, his previous educational experiences in anthropology precluded him for gaining immediate entry into a doctoral program in education at Southeastern State. Instead, the social studies education program offered Cliff admission as a doctoral student if he completed the coursework and fieldwork necessary for initial certification. In addition to this offer Cliff chose the social studies due to his interest in anthropology. But his choice of Southeastern State was primarily a matter of convenience because of the proximity to friends and family.

Cliff described the experiences in the social studies program as drastically different than his experiences in anthropology. Cliff described a "group think mentality" in anthropology resistant to alternative opinions (Interview, 11 August 2009). He compared this experience to the

college of education where "in the classes that I've taken here, there's a lot more diversity of opinion, people disagree, they're happy to continue being friends and respected one another's opinions" (Interview, 11 August 2009). Cliff also recalled experiences with course instructors who modeled good pedagogy. However, what stood out most to Cliff of his time in the social studies program were the field experiences.

Cliff's practicum observation and student teaching occurred in the same school where he would later gain employment as a first-year teacher. He described his mentor teacher as a "hands-off teacher" (Interview, 11 August 2009). Due to his mentor's health issues at the time Cliff was often the only teacher present in the classroom. This was something he did not mind. Cliff commented that he was often nervous when observed, so he "enjoyed being able to teach and not feel like I had to do everything perfect because the person who observed me was there all the time" (Interview, 11 August 2009). This sense of independence and fear of observation carried over into how he interacted with preservice teachers a few years later.

Cliff attributed his style of mentoring preservice teachers to how he was mentored. During his three years in the classroom Cliff hosted a number of practicum students and one student teacher. Although he was present in the classroom more often than his own mentor, Cliff suggested that his style came from a desire to provide preservice teachers with a sense of control over the classroom. He noted:

> If you are in the classroom and the kids are looking to you [the mentor teacher] every time they're asking a question when the student teacher is in the room, then I think you have an obligation to get out of there so the student teacher can become the primary focus of instruction (Interview, 11 August 2009).

At the same time, Cliff had a collaborative rather than an authoritative relationship with his student teacher. Cliff commented that he learned a lot from the student teacher as the student "brought in some discussion techniques that I found to be really beneficial and have adapted them to fit my own practice" (Interview, 11 August 2009).

After three years in the classroom Cliff decided to attend Southeastern State University full-time so he could finish his dissertation research. To support this move he accepted a graduate teaching assistantship for the 2009-2010 academic year. One of Cliff's first responsibilities was to supervise student teachers. Cliff used his recent experiences with campus and field-based teacher education to construct his perspective on student teaching supervision. He noted:

> There's a lot of discord from teachers who host student teachers because they feel at odds with the university. They feel like the university doesn't know what they're doing and they're not there observing the [students], so they don't really understand the ins and outs of what is actually going on. They feel like they're in a better position to say what's what, so I would like to involve [mentor teachers] more [in the conversations] (Interview, 11 August 2009).

Cliff readily admitted he was unsure as to how he would accomplish this goal. Cliff weighed the potential of a fully collaborative relationship between himself, mentors, and student teachers. However, Cliff noted: "I don't think it's practical to have a large group conversation where everyone is involved. But I guess you could send observation reports to the mentor teacher, and if they were interested then they could respond to my comments" (Interview, 11 August 2009). Cliff would confront this uncertainty throughout the semester as he further considered his role and responsibilities as a university supervisor.

Summary

In this chapter I described the institutional and participant contexts of the study. The institutional contexts included the undergraduate social studies education program at Southeastern State University and Adams County High School. Although the study focuses on the student teaching semester I presented the social studies education program through a consideration of the program as a whole rather than just the individual courses or field experiences of the program. The description was divided into three parts, its: development over time, conceptual orientation, and physical structure.

A description of Adams County High School was included in this chapter in recognition of the classroom and school environment's influence on preservice teacher practice (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1987; Zeichner & Gore, 1990). As such, it was necessary to fully describe the various demographics of the school and classroom environments where Eleanor and Jamie completed student teaching. In the final section of this chapter I described the participant context of the study. This included the biographies of the four primary participants – Eleanor, Jamie, Kay, and Cliff – with a focus on their educational experiences. In the next chapter I turn to the three conceptual categories that emerged from the data collected: 1) Passing the Buck; 2) Uncertain Certainties; and 3) Incomplete Coherence.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS

In this chapter I explore three themes that emanated from a detailed investigation of one paired student teaching triad in Fall 2009. These three themes furnish a thorough description of the opportunities and challenges one paired student teaching experience provided toward the social studies program's goal of coherent learning experiences. Initially, the expectation was that the alternative model could influence how the participants learned and integrated key features of the vision of teaching and learning promoted by the program. However, these three themes point to the complex nature of field-based teacher education and the limitations of paired student teaching and the promotion of coherence. These themes also point to ways in which the social studies education program and teacher educators can improve field-based teacher education and the paired student teaching experience.

Each theme in this chapter derived from how individual participants understood the vision of teaching and learning and enacted that vision in practice. But, these themes also highlight the repercussions of a teacher education program that provided: 1) limited training or formalized support in how to mentor and supervise student teachers; and 2) few expectations for the paired student teaching experience. The three themes presented in this chapter are: 1) Passing the Buck; 2) Uncertain Certainties; and 3) Incomplete Coherence. Each theme relates to a specific sub-question of the overarching research question that guided this study. As such, each theme references a particular member of the student teaching triad. To help make sense of these themes, I return briefly to the research question guiding this study:

If the intended goal of the social studies teacher education program is coherence, what opportunities and challenges does paired student teaching provided toward meeting this goal? More specifically,

- To what extent does the mentor teacher in a paired student teaching experience facilitate the student teachers' learning and integration of a social studies education program's vision for teaching and learning?

- To what extent does the university supervisor in a paired student teaching experience facilitate the student teachers' learning and integration of a social studies education program's vision for teaching and learning?

- To what extent does a paired student teaching experience facilitate for student teachers the learning and integration into practice of a social studies education program's vision for teaching and learning?

The first theme, Passing the Buck, illustrates how a mentor teacher can conceptually uphold a vision for teaching and learning but disregard responsibility for the promotion of that vision in the practice of student teachers. This theme underscores the tensions often present between the perceived "idealism" of teacher education programs and the "realism" of mentor teachers, as well as the complications that arise when a mentor teacher disregards program expectations. The second theme, Uncertain Certainties, describes the uncertainties present in the practice of a new university supervisor. This theme highlights the idiosyncratic practices and beliefs of a university supervisor with minimal preparation from the teacher education program, and how this limits support of the program's vision for teaching and learning. Finally, the third theme, Incomplete Coherence, shares the limitations of paired student teaching in promoting coherent teacher education experiences. This theme is evidence that paired student teaching can provide certain

opportunities for coherence. But it also highlights the need for structured experiences and explicit expectations for all involved in field-based teacher education, especially if the goal is coherence.

The presentation of the first two themes follows a certain pattern. I begin these themes with an exploration of how participants initially understood the core themes and further developed their understandings over time. I then describe the extent to which each component of the experience – expectations of the mentor teacher and uncertain university supervision practices – facilitated the student teachers' attempts to integrate the core themes into practice. In the final theme, Incomplete Coherence, I consider each core theme in turn. As I present each theme, I first discuss how the student teachers' learned and attempted to integrate the theme into practice. I conclude each theme with a consideration of the extent to which paired student teaching contributed to the learning and integration into practice of the theme. I begin with the theme focused on the mentor teacher: Passing the Buck.

<div align="center">Passing the Buck</div>

Kay was in her fourth year teaching in Fall 2009. Although four years removed from the social studies program, she quickly recalled the discourse important to Tom and other faculty. In particular, the rationale stood out to her as an idea with heavy emphasis. She noted: "I heard rationale so many times. I've written my rationale so many times, [I've] changed it" (Interview, 24 August 2009). Kay spoke often about a rationale for teaching and how it develops over time. In the first interview, she disagreed with the notion that a rationale is ever finished. According to Kay, a teaching rationale continuously evolves. When Kay first taught she believed teachers should hold students responsible for required classroom materials. Preparation for class meant that students should always have pencil or paper. After several years at Title I schools, Kay

noticed "lower socio-economic students are the ones that don't come prepared to class" (Interview, 24 August 2009). But to Kay, that these students did not come to class prepared did not mean they were lazy. Instead, she came to believe they did not have access to the school supplies most teachers expect their students to possess. Kay therefore provided materials to students who could not afford to purchase their own.

By the second interview, Kay's definition of rationale-based practice shifted to include how educators address content. She noted that state standards dominate the school curriculum. However, a teaching rationale allows educators to incorporate additional content or instructional strategies that align with what teachers want to achieve in the classroom. Kay recalled the absence of the Trail of Tears in the state curriculum for high school US history. She felt the Trail of Tears was an important part of the local history and included aspects of it into her curriculum. Kay also defended her regular use of current events. According to Kay, teaching social studies meant more than factual recitation. Kay's personal rationale focused on students making connections between the historical content and events today. She believed this rationale required the use of current events in the classroom. Current events would become a common instructional tool for Eleanor and Jamie. Their inclusion was due to Kay's insistence that they were an important consideration of a social studies curriculum. However, Eleanor and Jamie would refute throughout the semester Kay's claim that her curriculum went beyond the standards.

Reflective practice was another program theme Kay recalled without prompt. She noted in the first interview the personal dynamic of reflection. To Kay, reflection could occur formally or informally. A teacher might "systematically keep a journal or you can just [reflect] in your head on a daily basis" (Interview, 24 August 2009). What was important to Kay was the act of reflection. Kay considered a number of questions key to the reflective process: "You have to ask

yourself when you're finished with a lesson, how effective was this? Did the students take from it what I wanted them to take? If not, how can I improve the lesson?" (Interview, 24 August 2009). Eleanor provided an example several days later of how Kay engaged in reflection of her own practice. On the student teaching seminar discussion board, Eleanor wrote: "Kay tries lots of things in her class and asks us all the time how we think she does, and how we see her classes responding" (ELC post, 31 August 2009). However, as I describe later in this section, Kay's understanding of reflective practice did not translate very clearly to her interactions with Eleanor and Jamie.

Kay had difficulty recalling the other three themes. However, when presented with the themes, she defined them in ways consistent with the descriptions provided in Chapter Four. She also provided several examples for each. For Kay, active student engagement and worthwhile learning was the most important of the three remaining themes. In the first interview, Kay defined active student engagement as students "working with an idea and applying it to themselves or applying it to something" (Interview, 24 August 2009). Her definition of active student engagement blended well with her definition of worthwhile learning. She noted, "worthwhile learning to me is something they can take beyond a high school classroom, whether it's evaluating a newspaper or learning about different cultural value sets" (Interview, 24 August 2009). Kay described a lesson on the Progressive Era as an example of active student engagement and worthwhile learning. She noted she often had students complete a project where they examined a Progressive-era muckraker and the politics of the era. Students then "read a current event about oil companies today and their practices in Nigeria, and they have to link the two together" (Interview, 24 August 2009). To Kay, her definition of active student engagement and how she achieved it in the classroom helped shaped her teaching rationale.

How Kay defined culturally responsive and equitable instruction evolved over the two interviews. In the first interview she described cultural responsiveness as a "respect for other cultures and your own culture, and to realize that there are different cultures out there" (Interview, 24 August 2009). She described one lesson that was especially representative of this theme. Each year,

> I do this one lesson with Christopher Columbus where we talk about his navigational expertise. And then we read an excerpt of Bartolome de Las Casas and accounts of what he had done in the New World to the Natives. So, the question I ask students is, should we judge Christopher Columbus as a man of his time or should we judge him on our cultural values today? So, it makes them aware that there are different cultural value systems that evolve over time and that there are different value systems today" (Interview, 24 August 2009).

Kay added a critical perspective to the definition in the second interview. She suggested the social studies curriculum needed to be less "Eurocentric … so you're trying to match the lessons to the students and their backgrounds" (Interview, 22 October 2009). According to Kay, students in her classroom should question the covert and overt cultural depictions present in the curriculum. But just as important, she should gear instruction to the individual needs and cultural backgrounds of the students in her classroom.

Finally, collaborative inquiry was an idea that Kay believed was an expectation of both the social studies program and administrators at Adams County High School. Kay defined collaborative inquiry as teachers "talking to other teachers about what they're doing and what you're doing" (Interview, 24 August 2009). She added in the second interview that the school administration was pushing teachers to hold regular meetings and discuss student work and

lesson plans. However, Kay was disappointed in the amount and effectiveness of collaboration that occurred in her school. According to Kay, the desire for effective collaboration was a major reason behind her decision to go back to school for an educational specialist degree. She wanted an outlet for the conversations she believed were absent at Adams County.

When asked to reflect on the core themes and their implication on her practice, Kay noted that they were evident in her practice whether she recalled them or not at the beginning of the first interview. She also recognized their importance. She noted: "I wasn't sure about them at the beginning of the [social studies] program, but after being in education for a couple of years I realize that those are the things that work toward good education" (Interview, 24 August 2009). Kay also pointed out that several of the core themes were present in regular conversations at school faculty meetings. Ideas like collaboration and cultural responsiveness "have been pushed a lot in the schools I've been at" (Interview, 24 August 2009).

How Kay defined each of the core themes was evidence that, at a minimum, a common language existed between her and the expectations of the social studies program. In the second interview, she noted: "Obviously, I kind of buy into those [themes], so it's a little easier for me to say I have a bias and could push those [ideas]" with student teachers from the social studies program (Interview, 22 October 2009). However, Kay did not see it as her responsibility to promote the core themes or other ideals the social studies program considered important. Instead, she felt that it was the responsibility of the supervisor to "push the goals of the program" (Interview, 24 August 2009). Kay saw her role as providing student teachers with technical assistance and managerial support. She provided several examples of support in the first interview: "I'm going to focus on how many students were off-task [in class] and how many

students learned what the teacher wanted to get across, and if they noticed that a certain student

had his or her cell phone out" (Interview, 24 August 2009).

Kay's primary concern was that student teachers "learn to maintain the classroom"

(Interview, 24 August 2009). As such, she held the expectation that student teachers could use

her lessons and materials. Kay did not expect students to consistently create their own lessons.

Rather, it was implementation that was her greatest concern. However, what or how learning was

implemented was contextual. Kay recalled a former student teacher in the second interview. This

student teacher was not from Southeastern State. According to Kay, the student's program did

not consider teaching in the ways she or the social studies program at Southeastern State did.

Kay did not force her approach to teaching on the student. She noted she "let him do what he felt

was the most effective teaching … it just wasn't what I would consider good" (Interview, 22

October 2009). Kay allowed the student teacher to teach in ways comfortable to him because

Kay had yet to figure out her role and responsibilities as a mentor teacher. She had not received

training from the social studies program or any other teacher education program in how to

mentor student teachers. As a result, she used her own experiences as a student teacher to inform

how she worked with student teachers. She basically interpreted this responsibility as providing

student teachers with space to experiment rather than "constrict their ability to do things"

(Interview, 22 October 2009).

Kay was considered a successful mentor teacher before the Fall 2009 semester. Several

practicum students and a student teacher had given her positive evaluations in the past. Cliff

recalled that Tom mentioned how successful he thought Kay would be after Cliff's

comprehensive exam defense earlier that summer. Cliff remembered: "Tom told me what a great

mentor teacher she was going to be. How excited he was about her [as a mentor teacher]"

(Interview, 19 October 2009). Eleanor and Jamie also held high expectations at the beginning of student teaching. Each had met briefly met with Kay before student teaching and she explained how she would support them. Eleanor noted that Kay "said she would take care of any problems with the students" and that she would be the primary disciplinarian in the classroom (Interview, 13 August 2009). Kay would take care of fights or major student disruptions while the student teachers would focus on minor infractions. Eleanor added that she expected Kay to "help when we need it and maybe stand back when we don't" (Interview, 13 August 2009). However, Eleanor was quick to state she did not want to rely solely on Kay. Instead, she saw Kay as an experienced teacher to whom she could pose questions when they arose.

Jamie added that Kay would not be responsible for all disciplinary issues. Kay informed Jamie that because she and Eleanor were in a paired placement, they should focus somewhat on classroom management. She and Eleanor could rely on Kay for lesson plans while they "worry about students that are going to sit there and sleep" (Interview, 13 August 2009). Kay encouraged the student teachers to use her lesson and unit plans because they had previously worked for her. The semester seemed to start well as all felt the expectations and support Kay set forth were amenable. However, Eleanor and Jamie's interpretation of Kay changed over time. Each complained within a month about what Kay expected from them and the assistance she provided.

An early indication that all was not well in the student teaching placement was a posting Eleanor made on the student teaching seminar electronic discussion board. Eleanor wrote:

Jamie and I have been with our mentor teacher for a few weeks now, and I'm really starting to feel more like her personal assistant than a student teacher. I really do think highly of my mentor … However, most days I get the feeling that she requested student

teachers to run her errands or grade stuff she's not interested in looking at (ELC post, 31 August 2009).

For the first several weeks of student teaching, Kay gave Eleanor and Jamie responsibility for the second period inclusion class. Initially, she expected the student teachers to use her lesson plans so that first period, which she taught, and second period were taught in the same manner. Eleanor and Jamie would observe her instruction in first period and make the necessary alterations for second period. However, Eleanor and Jamie often found themselves assigned tasks not associated with their instructional responsibilities. This included grading student work for first and third periods. Eleanor and Jamie felt these altered expectations and duties that were not related to the class they taught kept them from the opportunities for collaboration and reflection they craved at the start of student teaching.

Eleanor also commented in the discussion post from 31 August 2009 that Kay was uneasy about her and Jamie teaching content in a way different than Kay had suggested. Eleanor wrote: "She gives us weird looks when we suggest branching out from what she does … She doesn't think our class can handle a lot of the things we try to implement" (ELC post, 31 August 2009). This was not the first time Eleanor had mentioned this constraint. The topic for the second week of student teaching seminar was active student engagement. Tom conducted what he called a "speed dating" approach to discussion. The purpose of this discussion was to have students engage in a number of peer conversations in quick succession. Eleanor mentioned at one point in the discussion that Kay expected her and Jamie to focus their lessons on the standards because the "inclusion students could not handle anything past it" (Seminar, 26 August 2009). This problem would be a primary concern for Eleanor and Jamie when Cliff observed them teach a week later.

The content of the observation was focused on reform movements of the early 1900s. The class began with students answering review questions for 10 minutes. This review was followed by a 30-minute PowerPoint lecture over several reform movements that included the temperance movement, abolition of slavery, creation of public schools, and women's suffrage. Eleanor and Jamie then divided students into small groups and provided them with primary source documents related to the reforms presented in the PowerPoint. Students worked on the activity for approximately 45 minutes. Class ended with a current event over the Iraqi elections in January 2009. Cliff noted in the post-observation that students were generally "bored" with the lesson and that the lesson followed an odd structure. He wanted to know if what he observed that day was standard practice:

Cliff: Where does the routine come from? Is it Kay's routine or did you develop the routine?

Jamie: [Kay] has the routine of doing daily questions. She said they needed to be up there because she wants people to come in and get on task. Then she usually does some kind of informative thing, either a guided PowerPoint or a guided reading, or something like that, and then she'll go into an activity. So, I think we took that from her. Plus, because of the standards she's so stuck on the same routine, everyone here is.

Cliff: Why is she stuck on the standards?

Jamie: Because the EOCT at the end is on her (Post-Observation, 3 September 2009).

Several weeks later in Open Forum, Eleanor and Jamie again shared that the lessons they created were focused on the standards and tests Kay used. For Eleanor and Jamie, worthwhile learning had become what content was presented in End-of-Course Test (EOCT) study guides. Eleanor

mentioned they had to gloss over topics like the Boston Massacre and Underground Railroad because they were not on Kay's tests or in the EOCT guidebook. Jamie noted a disconnect between what the program expected and what was allowed in the classroom. She lamented about the situation:

> I come up with all these great ideas [in seminar] and feel enlightened when I leave, but I go to school and I fell like it doesn't work. The reason I say it doesn't work is because we have a mentor teacher who wants it a certain way. A lot of the things I'm learning in [seminar] I can't put into practice right now because I'm not able to. Because I have a mentor teacher who says 'I want it exactly like this.' I think that's my biggest problem. I'm learning so many cool things I want to do and I can't do them until I have my own class (Seminar, 16 September 2009).

Eleanor and Jamie felt pressure from Kay to stick to the standards because the EOCT test scores would inevitably reflect on Kay and not them. As a result, they followed the same routine of opener, lecture, activity, and current event the remainder of the semester. The student teachers did attempt small adjustments along the way. However, they faced regular criticism from Kay when these attempts were made.

Cliff suggested in the first two post-observation meetings that Eleanor and Jamie move the opening questions away from factual recitation. After the first observation, he suggested the student teachers include openers that students might find interesting. Such openers might include readings, political cartoons, or images of historical events. Cliff noted that his own students had been engaged when he used such techniques. Eleanor and Jamie welcomed the suggestion and brought the idea to Kay. They shared Kay's reaction the next time they saw Cliff in breakout session (16 September 2009). They noted how Kay was initially supportive of the idea.

However, the next day in class they showed Kay a picture they wanted to use. According to Eleanor and Jamie, Kay's reaction was not as supportive. Between the first observation and that breakout session Kay alternated several times about what she wanted the student teachers to accomplish with the opener. Some days the student teachers could use images and other days they were required to use the original factual questions. Eleanor noted this was regular practice because Kay could not decide what was and was not allowed in the student teachers' classes.

Although the student teachers faced certain constraints in their practice, not all was bad in the student-mentor relationship. Eleanor noted in the second interview that there were moments where Kay provided meaningful feedback. She noted:

> [Kay] has given us a couple of good ideas for activities to do. They are far and few between, but when they are present, it's helped. She does give some advice on how to deal with students. I think it works, but I think it works for her, and we've tried it and it doesn't really work [for us]. But [her style] is not our styles of teaching, especially my style. I think it works for her, or she at least thinks it works for her (Interview, 21 October 2009).

However, the amount of control Kay exerted over what and how Jamie taught overshadowed the rare positive interactions she had with the student teachers. Eleanor and Jamie shared with those that would listen a number of unprofessional moments. These conversations were not limited to interviews. Instead, these stories emerged in post-observation meetings, student teaching seminar, and breakout sessions. In fact, many of the student teachers' contributions to the supervisor breakout sessions focused on how Kay dominated the discipline issue.

In the second breakout session, Eleanor, Jamie, Cliff, and another student teacher engaged in the following conversation:

Jamie: I think one problem I noticed is that we aren't given the opportunity to handle

   problems. It's like they jump in if –

ST: The mentor teacher?

Jamie: Yeah, the first time – Well, we have two because we have our mentor Kay, and

   then it's a full inclusion class so there's a special education teacher, so there's two

   teachers in there. Then there's the two of us.

Cliff: I'm curious, do you think it's because it's early [in the semester]? Do you think

   it's because that particular class –

Eleanor: I think she's really reluctant to have us deal with anything outside of teaching.

   She wants to handle the little things still (Breakout Session, 2 September 2009).

Jamie also shared a lengthy exchange between her and Kay in the final weeks of student

teaching. According to Eleanor and Jamie, Kay critiqued Jamie in front of the second period

students for not hearing a student use a curse word. Jamie stated at one point in a breakout

session: "[Kay] proceeds to say, 'you can't tell me you didn't hear the F-bomb' … and starts

yelling at me [in front of the students] about how I should have heard something" (Breakout

Session, 14 October 2009). Jamie was upset because she had been critiqued in front of the

students, which she felt was highly inappropriate. In the second interview, Cliff considered the

problems Eleanor and Jamie presented. He suggested that to that point in the semester Kay "had

some difficulty managing what she would allow in the classroom and what she believed the

[social studies program] wanted" (Interview, 19 October 2009).

Eleanor did not share Cliff's assessment. She wanted help and "a lot more advice" from

Kay (Interview, 21 October 2009). But, she felt lucky to have a paired placement because the

collaborative relationship with Jamie replaced what Kay did not provide. She said:

I feel like sometimes we're kind of out there on our own. We plan a lesson and [Kay] will look it over and say it's fine, but then we get in the classroom and she'll say the lesson is terrible and we should have come to her earlier. But we didn't go to her because we knew she was going to gloss over things a lot (Interview, 21 October 2009).

Jamie shared a similar sentiment. She suggested that if she had student taught alone with Kay as a mentor she "would [have been] overwhelmed just trying to figure out something that Kay would approve of so I wouldn't have any conflict" (Interview, 9 February 2010). However, Kay believed part of the problem was that she did not fully understand the paired student teaching arrangement. She noted her uncertainty in the second interview:

I wasn't really sure what – I kind of relied on them to tell me when they thought they should take a classroom by themselves, or how they wanted to split things up, and I probably should have been a little more proactive (Interview, 22 October 2009).

Kay felt that the collaborative relationship Eleanor and Jamie had was worthwhile but it diminished the need for traditional mentor roles in the student teaching triad. Kay was also quick to blame the school schedule for the limited amount of reflection and collaboration in which she engaged. Eleanor and Jamie taught the first two periods each day. Kay taught third period. She noted that the student teachers often planned the next day's lesson while she taught her class. The result was that Eleanor and Jamie would show Kay what they planned in fourth period as "opposed to me being a part of the development process and looking at the finished product when they're done" (Interview, 22 October 2009).

According to Kay and the student teachers, reflective meetings occurred irregularly. Kay noted she regularly met with Eleanor and Jamie at the beginning of the semester, but as they "got a routine established, I tend[ed] to do that less" (Interview, 22 October 2009). For Kay, the

routine meant she did not have to engage in regular reflection with the student teachers. Eleanor felt differently. She suggested it was Kay's responsibility to initiate conversations. She argued that "if she had started them, they would have been a lot more insightful between the two of us or the three of us, but we were left to our devices to plan" (Interview, 8 February 2010). She further suggested, "it would have been great to hear from Kay, who had a different perspective, but we missed out on a lot of those opportunities" (Interview, 8 February 2010).

In the end, both Eleanor and Jamie felt Kay was not an effective mentor teacher. Eleanor suggested in the final interview that a lot of the problems were caused because Kay was unsure about her responsibilities as a mentor teacher. She noted that Kay alluded to her uncertainties at one point in the semester: "I remember one conversation where she said, 'I'm not really sure of the parameters [for mentoring].' I guess we didn't take much notice at that point, but I think she had a different idea of why she needed student teachers" (Interview, 8 February 2010). A comment by Cliff earlier in the semester exemplified the uncertainty Kay possessed as a mentor. He described her as "not a particularly good mentor … because all she does is tell [the student teachers] when they need to get the class quiet. I don't think that's enough (Interview, 19 October 2009). But Cliff also suggested she was overwhelmed with graduate school responsibilities and the advanced placement course she taught.

That Kay had other responsibilities was of little concern to Eleanor and Jamie. They wanted a mentor. So, they often looked to each other for support. Both felt the paired placement provided a better mentoring relationship than the one Kay provided. They also believed Cliff and another teacher at Adams County assumed many of Kay's duties as a mentor teacher. In the third supervision visit, Cliff asked about the collaborative environment at Adams County High School. The student teachers stated there was one teacher who regularly shared stories and lesson ideas.

Eleanor finally commented: "He mentors us more than Kay does" (Post-Observation, 22 October 2009). In addition to the lack of involvement from Kay, Eleanor and Jamie noted that Kay knew the program discourse but considered them inapplicable to the classroom. Jamie stated toward the end of student teaching that Kay "has flat out said that the program has these enlightened ideas and these nice theories but they're never going to work … [The content] is what matters, EOCT, you've got to pass it, this is it" (Interview, 21 October 2009). In reflecting on the experience, Eleanor later said:

> What really bothered me was that she went through [the social studies] program and said she knew what these themes were. But she said they weren't realistic in the classroom and there was no point in trying to push those in student teaching because they just didn't work. So, she was definitely the least helpful in that respect (Interview, 8 February 2010).

Kay's discourse had matched the discourse promoted in the social studies education program. However, Kay did not believe it was her responsibility to engage student teachers in conversations about the core themes. Or, perhaps she never fully believed in their classroom applications to begin with, as both student teachers indicated. But, no matter what Kay believed, Eleanor and Jamie were largely left to explore these ideas alone. Kay had placed certain immutable expectations on their practice without a defensible rationale other than to prepare students for the EOCT. As such, Eleanor and Jamie were often unaware of why they would use current events, primary sources, or other instructional approaches Kay expected them to use in the classroom. Additionally, reflection and collaboration was a rare occurrence as Kay felt the paired relationship and school schedule precluded her from direct involvement in the mentoring process. As a result, Kay left herself with nothing more to do than approve lesson plans and tend to significant student disruptions. The next theme highlights Cliff's own uncertainties about

university supervision and the program core themes. With minimal preparation, Cliff employed an idiosyncratic approach to supervision and was often unsure how or why he should engage student teachers in conversations about the core themes.

<div style="text-align:center">Uncertain Certainties</div>

Cliff was like Kay in that several years after he finished his education coursework at Southeastern State he still recalled several of the core themes. Specifically, he recalled the core themes of reflective practice and collaborative inquiry. In the first interview, Cliff provided a simplified definition for reflective practice: "I think of it as built-in guilt" (Interview, 11 August 2009). When pressed for further detail, he clarified: "It's having these ideals of what you might be able to accomplish as a teacher and then always refining, thinking about what you did and why you did it in order to maybe achieve the ideal" (Interview, 11 August 2009). Cliff noted he was an outsider at the school where he had recently taught in terms of reflective practice. He regularly revised his lessons and was often unsure what he would teach on a day-to-day basis. He mentioned several teachers at his former school that taught from the same lesson plans they used decades before. But, he was quick to point out he had positive personal relationships with these teachers. He simply disagreed with their traditional approaches to education.

Cliff built on this definition of reflective practice in later interviews. In the second interview, he pointed out that reflection did not have to occur after a lesson or unit was taught. Instead, a teacher might reflect in the planning stages to consider the various ways in which a lesson might achieve the intended goal the teacher set forth. He also found it difficult to separate reflective teaching from rationale-based practice. In the first interview, Cliff defined rationale-based practice at several levels. First, he suggested "a clear and defensible rationale for your curricular instructional decisions is that the state required you to do it so you can keep your job"

(Interview, 11 August 2009). However, Cliff noted that beyond the real world implications of content coverage his rationale was reflected in the academic theories related to the subjects he taught. With a background in African anthropology, Cliff felt that the world geography curriculum he had taught exhibited a Western bias. As a result, he felt it was his responsibility to include alternative interpretations of human interaction "that's not in the curriculum and or what the school or state thinks I should teach" (Interview, 11 August 2009).

By the second interview, Cliff adamantly stated: "Rationale-based practice? No, that's the same sort of thing as reflection" (Interview, 19 October 2009). To Cliff, a rationale was evidence of informed reflection on the part of teachers to determine what and how they will teach. As such, the two themes were inseparable. Cliff recalled that collaborative inquiry was another important component to the social studies program. According to Cliff, collaboration "sounds like a great thing, like you're not just out there alone. You can work with other people, two heads are better than one, that sort of mentality" (Interview, 11 August 2009). However, he was quick to point out the real world limitations of collaborative inquiry.

Cliff's experiences once again informed how he interpreted a core theme. He suggested that collaboration was encouraged at his former school. Yet, there were few teachers who held similar ideas about teaching. Cliff argued that a common discourse was needed if teachers were to achieve meaningful collaboration. He offered a scenario for what might actually occur in a forced 'collaborative' setting:

> There's going to be people sitting around gossiping or talking about how the football team is doing that season, or whatever administrator they like or don't like. They're not going to talk about making social studies better. So, I think collaboration is a great thing

and I'm glad it's an ideal of the program, but there's a lot more to it than that" (Interview, 11 August 2009).

Cliff's later evaluation of collaborative inquiry reflected this initial interpretation. He once again noted the value of collaboration when he suggested: "I think it's important to realize that it's not always a formal thing. It can be an informal thing. I think it's just reflecting with someone else in a way" (Interview, 19 October 2009). The potential limitations of collaboration rested in the formalized collaborative environments that schools implemented. In his opinion, formalized collaboration is "going to be a failure because it's not necessarily going to lead to collaboration just because they have time for it" (Interview, 19 October 2009). However, Cliff did not diminish the value of collaboration. Instead, he suggested collaboration works effectively when educators have a personal and vested interest in collaboration.

To Cliff, culturally responsive and equitable instruction is representative of the teacher's responsibility to prepare students for life in an increasingly global society. Part of this "responsibility is to teach whoever comes into your classroom" (Interview, 11 August 2009). According to Cliff,

This means that kids come into your classroom, they have different abilities, they have different backgrounds, and they're going to approach things differently. You just have to get to know each one of them and where they are, and do you what you can to help make the educational experience meaningful for them (Interview, 11 August 2009).

Cliff used personal experiences with non-standard English and low literacy levels to convey his approach to cultural responsiveness and equity in the classroom. Cliff mentioned he often took into consideration issues like ability level when he assessed students. He recalled one student who inevitably dropped out of school, but had worked hard to achieve in his class. This student

was a poor writer but "he worked his tail off … and was a good contributor to the classroom" (Interview, 11 August 2009). What the student contributed was thoughtful even if it was not at grade-level expectations. However, he noted he could look past certain deficiencies as long as the student improved and the work reflected effort. Cliff would reinforce this assessment of cultural responsiveness in a later interview when he suggested, "I think you have to meet students where they are" (Interview, 19 October 2009).

Finally, Cliff shared Kay's interpretation of active student engagement. Active student engagement meant more than physical movement, attentiveness, or the retention of factual information. Rather, active student engagement implied that students are "working through a problem to come to some new understanding that helps [them] understand things more fully and broadly" (Interview, 11 August 2009). However, active student engagement does not require a prepared lesson or problem. The spontaneity Cliff noted at the beginning of this theme served a purpose. Cliff suggested that some of the more thought-provoking lessons emerged from immediate and personal real world problems. Cliff shared an example of when a dog bit him in Spring 2009. The next day in class, Cliff used this incident to engage students in a discussion of "political engagement in your community and how a small community has a hard time providing services for citizens" (Interview, 11 August 2009). Students were enthralled with the conversation and expressed a desire to learn more about the local community.

On the other hand, worthwhile learning was a concept that Cliff viewed as unattainable and highly politicized. In the first interview, Cliff was hesitant to define worthwhile learning. He noted that what was worthwhile to him was active student engagement and, as a result, he could not define worthwhile learning. To Cliff, the idea of worthwhile learning "is necessarily politically charged, it is necessarily culturally specific" (Interview, 11 August 2009). He felt it

inappropriate for him to define what was and was not worthwhile for students to know. Instead, Cliff believed it was his responsibility to expose students to a variety of interpretations and allow them to draw their own conclusions. However, Cliff's interpretation of worthwhile learning softened over the course of the semester. He suggested worthwhile learning existed and that active student engagement led to worthwhile learning. At the same time, however, he felt that teachers should not focus on worthwhile learning. He once again reflected on the status of schools today: "It's so difficult to get kids engaged in anything to do with the social studies, that we've got to be able to achieve [active student engagement], otherwise the rest of it is not very meaningful" (Interview, 19 October 2009).

For the most part, how Cliff interpreted the core themes was consistent with the descriptions provided in Chapter Four. Aside from worthwhile learning, he saw the potential and need for each theme in the classroom. However, he was certain it was not his responsibility as the university supervisor to advocate a particular vision of teaching and learning. In the first interview, Cliff described how teaching is a highly individualized practice. He noted: "You can't be a good teacher the way that I can be a good teacher. … I think there's a really idiosyncratic aspect to teaching" (Interview, 11 August 2009). According to Cliff, all teachers individually determine what teaching and learning means to them. The core themes might encompass certain notions of what is good teaching, but they are "generalized enough to help you teach in an individual way" (Interview, 11 August 2009). In the final interview, Cliff again questioned the program standards in relation to his role as a university supervisor. He asked: "Is the purpose to communicate agreed upon understandings of each [core theme], or is the purpose to have newly inducted teachers consider those ideas and try to think of them critically and what it means for

their practice?" (Interview, 30 January 2010). Cliff commented that he personally leaned toward the second purpose.

Cliff summarized his perspective on supervision in the final interview: "I help students work through the types of educational problems they come up against and either offer advice or, in the process, help them learn how to … solve their own problems" (Interview, 30 January 2010). Cliff believed student teachers deserved individualized attention because each was confronted with specific needs. However, no one in the social studies program helped Cliff come to this assessment. Cliff recalled no formal instruction from faculty in how to supervise student teachers. He regularly engaged in conversations with social studies faculty members but these discussions often focused on his doctoral studies and not his responsibilities as a supervisor.

Cliff learned much of the specific work of supervision from his previous experiences as a student teacher and mentor teacher in the social studies program. He felt his four-year relationship with the program had provided him with a degree of insight into the work of supervision. However, he also noted the need to be proactive. Cliff had access to observation reports from the student teacher he hosted and had taken part in several of the student teacher's post-observation conferences. These experiences provided him with an introduction to field-based teacher education. Cliff also accessed the observation reports of several more experienced university supervisors in the program and engaged them in conversations about their practice.

These conversations led Cliff to believe there was little difference in the quality of his work as a supervisor and theirs. He noted that although there was no instruction in how to supervise student teachers, it was not "rocket science" and that he considered himself a good supervisor (Interview, 30 January 2010). When asked what made a "good" university supervisor, Cliff pondered the question and responded with several possibilities:

I'm still trying to figure that out. Is it enough to have classroom experience, been

recognized as a good teacher, is that enough to supervise new teachers? Is it caring about

the people you work with enough to be a good supervisor? (Interview, 30 January 2010).

He then proceeded to answer his own questions:

I think in my case, yeah. I think I'm a pretty good supervisor … I have experience

teaching. I have three years in secondary schools and my time at the university before

that. I have disciplinary knowledge. I have education knowledge. I've been in schools

(Interview, 30 January 2010).

Cliff argued that content knowledge and experience contributed to the success of a supervisor. However, he believed the most important aspect of his practice was that he genuinely cared about the student teachers he worked with and wanted to help them succeed. In reflecting upon the lack of preparation, he suggested that certain bureaucratic aspects of supervision were missed, like due dates for reports or guidelines for breakout sessions. However, Cliff believed that the lack of a formal introduction to supervision did not affect how he approached his work with student teachers. He was certain he practiced effective supervision.

Cliff exhibited care for preservice teachers early in the student teaching process. Before the semester began, he was in contact with several of the student teachers and mentor teachers. He introduced himself in writing to each. He shared with each his experiences as an educator and outlined his expectations for the semester. There was one particular expectation he wanted all student teachers and mentors to meet. That was, if the mentors were willing. Cliff had navigated the two worlds of school and teacher education for several years prior to this study. In that time, he talked to many mentor teachers who lamented their relationships with teacher education

programs. These teachers felt the programs used them for placements and offered little in return. Cliff wanted to counter that perspective.

He invited each mentor teacher to take part in the supervisory process and to engage in regular communication at the beginning of the semester. Cliff wanted mentor teachers to take part in the post-observation meetings and to contribute to post-observation reports. He found success with several of the mentor teachers. However, Kay was one of two mentors who did not involve themselves in the process. A month into student teaching, Jamie indicated this was the result of Kay's focus on graduate schoolwork and the advanced placement course she taught (Breakout Session, 16 September 2009). Yet, Cliff was adamant to provide her the opportunity to provide feedback before the program deadlines for observation report submission. Cliff would e-mail Kay reports each observation period and ask for feedback. She would provide no response. However, this small bump in the supervisory process did not deter Cliff from his primary focus, the student teachers.

Cliff saw his visits with student teachers as an "organic process" (Interview, 11 August 2009). Student teachers would send Cliff a pre-observation form the day before an observation. These forms would detail the content student teachers would teach in the lesson, the instructional methods used, how the teacher would achieve active engagement, and how the learning might be worthwhile. Cliff would primarily use the instructional component of pre-observation forms to guide his field notes and reflective conversations that took place in post-observation meetings.

Each post-observation meeting followed a similar structure. Cliff would open with a statement like: "I'd like to get an assessment from you about what you did well today, and what you didn't [do well]" (Post-Observation, 3 September 2009). From that point, Cliff would allow student teachers a short amount time to reflect on the experience before he provided his

assessment of a lesson. Many of the conversations in the three observations focused on instructional decisions and possible alternatives to certain practices Kay expected. An early example of this reflection upon practice relates to Eleanor and Jamie's use of fact-based opening questions:

Cliff: Do you feel like the questions are really accomplishing [an assessment]?

Eleanor: I feel like to a degree, because it's the most important aspect from the day before and we really stress [the questions] – First of all, I guess it kind of shows if we're teaching them well enough…

Cliff: I'm not suggesting that it's a bad idea. In fact, I think it's a good idea to have some form of assessment to see if what you've done in the last couple of days is actually sticking. But I guess what I'm asking you is, do you feel like what you're doing is accomplishing the task you set, or are there more engaging ways you might do that?

Jamie: I don't think we've ever thought about trying something new, because that's just been what – Kay has the daily questions up and we just went over that and haven't really considered if there was a different way to go about that (Post-Observation, 3 September 2009).

Cliff then asked Eleanor and Jamie to consider how the students reacted. He noted that students in the classroom appeared uninterested in the opening assignment. He suggested that perhaps the inclusion of images or readings would actively engage the students. Cliff personally interpreted active student engagement as the inquiry and application of knowledge. However, Eleanor and Jamie associated active student engagement with student interest in their pre-observation form and initial reflections. Specifically, the student teachers thought they would achieve active

engagement if students were awake, on-task, or answering a question. Cliff was reluctant to question this interpretation. Because Cliff felt it was an inappropriate to position his interpretation of active student engagement as the correct interpretation, he adopted Eleanor and Jamie's interpretation of the core theme. Therefore, he spent the remainder of the observation focused on engagement as student interest. Even when presented with opportunities to redirect their interpretation, such as when Eleanor shared an example of student inquiry and application, Cliff chose to build on the idea that the student teachers had to become creative if they wanted students 'engaged.'

Cliff would eventually share his interpretation of active student engagement in the second post-observation. Once again, the daily questions were a challenge for the student teachers. Jamie expressed in the post-observation she was "confused on how to get to the point where everyone is engaged" (Post-Observation, 23 September 2009). Eleanor agreed and said she did not see how all students would find interest in daily questions that focused on factual recitation. She noted students were bored and this boredom led to unrest in the classroom. Cliff responded with a suggestion that Eleanor and Jamie consider other possibilities of "what engagement really means" (Post-Observation, 23 September 2009). He wanted the student teachers to think beyond physical movement or attentiveness. He said,

> Me just doing the work [of daily questions] would not necessarily get me to the type of engagement we wanted to get to, which is kids turning ideas over in their heads, really thinking about things, coming up with an original or independently self-determined conclusion. … That wasn't a great definition, but it is something more than activity (Post-Observation, 23 September 2009).

Jamie considered Cliff's suggestion and agreed she and Eleanor had not thought about active student engagement beyond student attentiveness. She noted that for the daily questions they had "pictures and [readings], but we just didn't really know what to do with them" (Post-Observation, 23 September 2009). She felt that the inclusion of images or readings would result in student interest. They lacked an approach that could make the use of images and readings engagement. However, this would serve as the final conversation of active student engagement in the observations and breakout sessions. As a result, it was left to Eleanor and Jamie to decide whether or not they valued Cliff's interpretation of active student engagement. In the third theme, Incomplete Coherence, I share how Eleanor and Jamie finished student teaching with divergent interpretations of active student engagement. Eleanor would inevitably disregard Cliff's interpretation of active student engagement. She would continue to consider engagement as student interest and attentiveness. Jamie, on the other hand, would value Cliff's interpretation and write in her portfolio that active student engagement "leads to self-questioning, problem-solving, and over all deep thinking" (Eportfolio).

Other core themes would emerge periodically throughout the observations. Cliff would occasionally ask Eleanor and Jamie about their teaching rationale in an indirect manner. However, in the first post-observation meeting Cliff was explicit about the rationale and its implications on the day's lesson. He asked, "What are the purposes behind what you're doing, and how well do you feel like you're accomplishing those purposes?" (Post-Observation, 3 September 2009). Following this question, Cliff was uncertain about what direction he wanted the post-observation to continue. Did he want to explore the student teachers' rationales for teaching? Or, should he help them create alternatives to the opening questions? Cliff decided it was more appropriate to address immediate instructional needs and redirected the conversation.

He would not ask such a focused question about the rationale again. Instead, he limited rationale conversations to Eleanor and Jamie's use of a specific instructional method and the inclusion or exclusion of content. Cliff would not explore how these choices connected to larger instructional goals beyond entertaining the student teachers' standard response of constraints from the mentor teacher.

Cliff would later state that the lack of focus on the rationale document was because he never had access to the rationales Eleanor and Jamie wrote for ESOC 2450 and ESOC 4360. He noted in the second interview his goal was to consider their teaching rationales even though he had not read them yet. Cliff suggested that a rationale for teaching was important. However, he felt that student teachers had to reach a certain point in their development to engage in conversations about the rationale. He argued that at what point those conversations occurred in the student teaching process was highly individualized. In the second interview he said, "It's going to have everything to do with the type of student teacher you get and the setting they're in, but I think if it's going to happen, it will happen in the last observation" (Interview, 19 October 2009). Eleanor and Jamie would never reach the point where Cliff felt they were prepared to discuss the rationale document or how they implemented it in the classroom.

Although Cliff faced difficulty in promoting rationale-based practice and a program oriented definition of active student engagement, Eleanor and Jamie felt that Cliff regularly promoted reflective teaching and collaborative inquiry in the observations. Eleanor called Cliff "another set of eyes" on several occasions (Interviews, 21 October 2009; 8 February 2010). She noted that Cliff often made note of those daily occurrences she and Jamie missed: "We're just so caught up with making sure we're saying the thing, that we don't notice if students are paying attention or not. And I think he's another set of eyes that's strictly there to critique us and make

we're doing the right thing" (Interview, 21 October 2009). Eleanor appreciated the focus Cliff paid to her and Jamie's practice. Kay was often distracted by work not related to their teaching. As such, she did not provide them with the extensive feedback Cliff provided.

As the semester progressed, Eleanor and Jamie found they spent much of the time after class "blowing off some steam about something and move onto the next day's lesson" (Jamie Interview, 21 October 2009). They knew Kay would not engage them in regular reflection. And they had entered a routine. Cliff's visits forced reflection. Eleanor said Cliff "pushed us to think deeper, and to think outside the box, to think about all these other things we would have never thought of on our own" (Interview, 8 February 2010). Even though they felt the paired placement provided regular opportunities for reflection, the observations were beneficial nonetheless. Jamie echoed Eleanor's sentiment that the post-observation meetings provided them with new ideas they were unable to come up with together. She added: "Things that we hadn't thought of together were definitely addressed in the field instructor meetings" (Interview, 9 February 2010).

Breakout sessions, on the other hand, were a significant uncertainty in Cliff's practice. He admitted in the first interview that he was unaware of their existence or what he was expected to accomplish in these meetings. When asked how he might structure the breakout sessions, Cliff suggested one possibility, "I think right now will probably be, 'How is it going guys? What are the issues, what are the concerns? Tell me what's going on'" (Interview, 11 August 2009). Cliff would follow this approach most of the semester. He had little idea what he wanted to accomplish each meeting. Instead, he viewed breakout sessions as "a time to check in" (Interview, 19 October 2009). As such, Cliff allowed the student teachers to decide the direction of each meeting. Cliff enjoyed the sessions because they increased his limited interactions with student teachers. Eleanor and Jamie enjoyed the meetings because of the small number of

students in their group. And unlike Tom, Cliff knew the school contexts and conversations

because he observed their practice. Eleanor enthusiastically supported the breakout sessions:

>   I really did like having breakout sessions because it was a chance to talk more fluidly,
>
>   and not be so quick as in [Open Forum]. You could really open up. You could hear full-
>
>   length stories from the other two or three people in your group, and you could work on
>
>   problems, you could work on things together (Interview, 8 February 2009).

The only negative Eleanor saw with breakout sessions was that they occurred once every two

weeks. She and Jamie were faced with a number of problems in their placement and felt that

more interactions with Cliff might have helped them better cope with student teaching. However,

Jamie suggested that breakout sessions often turned into "vent sessions" and that each session

ended too quickly. She felt that more time allotted to the breakout session could allow for further

exploration of the problems student teachers posed. However, Eleanor was quick to note that

those problems did not include investigations of the core themes. Cliff allowed the student

teachers to control the direction of conversations each meeting. As such, student teachers raised

issues of immediate concern to their classroom, namely classroom management problems.

    In addition to the uncertainties about breakout sessions and if he should directly address

the core themes, Cliff was somewhat uncertain how to approach the paired student teaching

experience. Cliff noted in the first interview that he saw paired student teaching as a "mix of

collaborative teaching and independent teaching" (Interview, 11 August 2009). He suggested he

was open to observing them teach collaboratively once, but that he would like them to teach

independently after that. Cliff saw "real" teaching as teaching alone so he wanted to ensure that

the student teachers were prepared for that reality. At the same time, however, he was unsure

where he should "tell them how to collaborate because I don't know if I should or not"

(Interview, 11 August 2009). Cliff knew he wanted them to have independent teaching experiences. However, he was uncertain as to how the student teachers might support independent teaching with the collaborative relationship. He wondered: Should they plan together? Should they plan independently? These were questions that would go unanswered the remainder of the semester.

It was not until a month later that Cliff had a conversation with Eleanor and Jamie about paired student teaching. Cliff informed Eleanor and Jamie that with the addition of first period to their schedule, he wanted them to consider a move toward individualized teaching. However, Eleanor and Jamie exhibited resistance because neither wanted to teach first period for the remainder of student teaching. Cliff would later write that they "expressed some hesitation as they both enjoy teaching second period and working collaboratively in the classroom" (First Observation Report). So, Cliff took another tack. He said,

> I'm open to suggestions. You can keep the tag team in the two classes for a while. You may maintain one class collaborative, but at some point, and for a good chunk of time, four weeks or more, you are going to have to be teaching a class solo so that I can evaluate you individually. That's going to be more reflective of what you're probably going to do your first year of teaching. You had mentioned that you might alternate days and then keep one class collaborative. That's fine (Post-Observation, 3 September 2009).

This initial conversation did not immediately resolve the problem of who taught which period. It took several more weeks for this issue to resolve. At the midpoint of student teaching, Eleanor took instructional responsibility for first period and Jamie took second period.

But uncertainty over how Eleanor and Jamie collaborated remained. In the first observation, Cliff suggested the two student teachers prepare individual lessons and then

collaborate. He argued, "You're still expected to be working together. Collaboration is not always jointly planning a lesson. It's also you planning a lesson and then asking for help to figure out what is missing" (Post-Observation, 3 September 2009). However, Cliff did not make this a firm expectation and did not raise the issue again. As a result, Eleanor and Jamie continued to collaboratively plan all lessons the remainder of the semester.

Assessment was another challenge for paired student teaching. Cliff suggested he could not determine the student teachers' individual strengths and weaknesses because Eleanor and Jamie always planned together. He noted: "You don't know where one begins and the other one ends" (Interview, 30 January 2010). Cliff enjoyed the collaborative post-observation conference. However, even when he observed individual instruction he felt he could not appropriately assess the student teachers' capabilities. He summarized the challenge he faced as a supervisor of paired student teachers: "You're not just watching [one student teacher]. You're watching them both. They taught the same classes, so they inevitably taught the same anyway" (Interview, 30 January 2010).

In the end, Cliff would reflect on the semester and suggest, "it went pretty well given the fact I received no instruction" (Interview, 30 January 2010). He admitted this assessment was open to interpretation because nothing about teaching and teacher education is certain. According to Cliff, he measured success in terms of responsiveness and relationships he developed with students. He argued that if a peer or the program at large assessed him, they would inevitably "bring their own ideas about what good supervision is" to their assessment of his practice (Interview, 30 January 2010). Cliff suggested someone who "promoted a particular rationale in new teachers" would likely be unhappy with how he approached supervision (Interview, 30 January 2010). However, Cliff noted he did not subscribe to that interpretation

and felt his primary task was to promote good teaching in whatever way student teachers defined the concept, and not to some prescribed vision of teaching and learning. In the final theme, I describe how the inattentiveness and constraints of the mentor teacher and the myriad of uncertainties of the university supervisor resulted in few opportunities for Eleanor and Kay to develop and integrate their understanding of the core themes into practice. However, the use of paired student teaching allowed the student teachers to explore and inevitably value two of the program ideals – collaborative inquiry and reflective practice.

Incomplete Coherence

Unlike Kay and Cliff, Eleanor and Jamie recalled nothing of the social studies core themes prior to participation in this research. They had yet to take part in the student teaching seminar where the core themes and the remainder of the SURGE framework are heavily emphasized. As a result, when first questioned about the core ideals of the program each claimed the program goal was democratic education. Their reasoning was that democratic education was an idea each course instructor expressed in class. When presented with the SURGE framework, each recalled its presence in course syllabi but could not remember any specific standard. In the following pages, I share how Eleanor and Jamie interpreted and attempted to enact each core theme in student teaching. Interspersed within this discussion is a consideration of how paired student teaching contributed to the student teachers' understanding and implementation of the core themes. I begin with the core theme of culturally responsive and equitable instruction.

Eleanor entered student teaching with a critical interpretation of culturally responsive instruction. She noted in the first interview that cultural responsiveness meant, "keeping away from White Man's History" (Interview, 13 August 2009). 'White Man's History' was a perspective Eleanor felt she was taught in school. However, her college history courses exposed

her to "so many other people that did really important things" (Interview, 13 August 2009). She believed a more culturally responsive curriculum was necessary because "there are many different types of students that come from so many different backgrounds and they don't want to hear someone else's history" (Interview, 13 August 2009). Eleanor used this consideration of different backgrounds to define her approach to an equitable classroom. She believed students are not equal. She stated: "They don't all have the same background. They don't have the same opportunities" (Interview, 13 August 2009). For Eleanor, these differences meant she should view students as individuals and treat them accordingly.

Initially, Eleanor felt this standard was the most important for her as an educator. She did not want students to experience the mono-cultural curriculum she experienced in school. She considered how minority students might react to a curriculum that focused on white contributions to history. Eleanor suggested they might feel like outcasts in the classroom. She "did not want anyone to feel like that because [the student will] feel uncomfortable, [they] are not going to be engaged in what is taught, and it is going to be a disaster" (Interview, 13 August 2009). Although Jamie did not consider this theme the most important of the core themes, she did share Eleanor's interpretation of the theme. She also used her own school experiences to frame her assessment of culturally responsive instruction. Jamie recalled a "one-sided view" of history and that there was a need to include other voices into the curriculum. Jamie suggested she could include the voices of Hispanics, Native Americans, and African-Americans so students could learn alternatives to the "white viewpoint of things" (Interview, 13 August 2009).

Eleanor's interpretation of culturally responsive and equitable instruction changed little over the semester. In her portfolio, Eleanor wrote: "In American schools today, there are many colors, races, religions and genders, all of which need to find equal representation in the

classroom" (Eportfolio). In the final interview, Eleanor again revisited her initial interpretation that cultural responsiveness means, "staying way from teaching about white history" (Interview, 8 February 2010). Jamie, on the other hand, used conversations in student teaching seminar and the Culturally Responsive Teaching Assignment to further develop her interpretation of the theme. In her portfolio and final interview, Jamie considered cultural responsive and equitable instruction through the lenses of social, linguistic, and cultural diversity. To Jamie, social diversity indicated a "range of socioeconomic classes" in the classroom" and that teachers should remain aware of the resources students have available to them (Eportfolio). Jamie recalled conversations about 'code switching' and the 'language of power' in student teaching seminar that framed her interpretation of linguistic diversity. Linguistic diversity meant more than the recognition that students might not speak English as a first language. Instead, she wrote students should "hold onto their culture and language" but that they should learn the 'language of power' that might help them "have success in the workforce" (Eportfolio).

Although Kay supposedly put constraints on what content Eleanor and Jamie could present in class, the student teachers periodically made attempts to include the voices of "others" in the curriculum. Many of these attempts occurred when the content focused on events related to Hispanic or African-American heritage. Students read Langston Hughes and Louis Armstrong when they learned about the Harlem Renaissance. The student teachers included interviews with former slaves when they taught Reconstruction. Eleanor and Jamie provided students with a variety of textbook interpretations about the sinking of the USS *Maine* that included selections from Caribbean, Cuban, Filipino, Spanish, and United States textbooks.

However, both student teachers felt there were moments where they did not fully achieve a culturally responsive and equitable classroom. They noted that students in the two classes

would often use stereotypes and ridicule other students when they tried to cover content that

diverged from the standard curriculum. Eleanor noted in the second interview that when she and

Jamie taught the Antebellum period and slavery, the one African-American student in second

period:

> [F]elt really singled out, and students started making jokes about [slavery]. That was
>
> really tough because I didn't know how to respond with that. They were making jokes.
>
> They called him Dred Scott, and I don't know how to handle this. Sometimes I would let
>
> it go, because I don't want to make a big deal about it … hoping that is would not come
>
> up again (Interview, 21 October 2009).

Kay agreed that Eleanor and Jamie experienced difficulty with this theme. She noted that cultural

responsiveness was "something they aim for, but I think it will be something they accomplish

later" (Interview, 22 October 2009). She noted that Eleanor and Jamie would occasionally use

the resources she provided at the beginning of the semester for lessons that incorporated the

voice of 'others.' However, she was not sure how explicitly they considered the theme when they

planned most lessons because they largely maintained a traditional approach to instruction that

included PowerPoint, guided readings, and standards-based content. Cliff refused to assess

whether or not they achieved cultural responsiveness. He suggested that three field observations

did not provide him with enough perspective on their attempts to accomplish the theme.

Eleanor and Jamie believed that paired student teaching contributed little to their

understanding and implementation of culturally responsive and equitable instruction. They

entered student teaching with common conceptions of the theme and were often in agreement

about how they should structure a lesson. Both student teachers noted that the student teaching

seminar had the largest influence on how they viewed culturally responsive and equitable

instruction. Eleanor argued that the Culturally Responsive Teaching Assignment was the one

moment that made her "stop and really critique how I'd been teaching … and I guess it taught

me that you have to respect everybody" (Interview, 21 October 2009). Jamie admitted in her

final interview she and Eleanor had little practice with a culturally responsive curriculum beyond

the few lessons that included the voices of 'others.' As a result, student teaching seminar

provided the only space where she and Eleanor fully engaged in conversations about the theme.

Eleanor and Jamie experienced difficulty with the next core theme, active student

engagement and worthwhile learning. Across the interviews, the student teachers defined

worthwhile learning as learning that had meaning beyond the standardized exams. Eleanor

suggested that worthwhile learning meant more than factual recitation and what information is

"going to be on the EOCT" (Interview, 13 August 2009). Jamie felt that if students learned

certain skills from a lesson (i.e., how to write, or collaborate and converse with others), then she

had achieved worthwhile learning. Active student engagement was a more complicated theme

for the student teachers to interpret.

Each defined active student engagement as student activity at the beginning of the

semester. Eleanor suggested that "a student who is physically involved in the classroom" is

actively engaged (Interview, 13 August 2009). She added that student movement in the

classroom was evidence of this theme because "[students] can't fall asleep if they're walking"

(Interview, 13 August 2009). However, Eleanor was careful to note that a student who nodded

his or her head in agreement to what a teacher said was not evidence of active student

engagement. She recalled conversations around this idea in Methods and that engagement meant

more than nodding heads. Jamie included this example in her interpretation of the theme as well.

She argued that, "just because you're lecturing, just because they're shaking their heads [in

agreement], doesn't mean that they're engaged in what is going on" in class (Interview, 13 August 2009). She noted that students who were actively engaged were students who participated in class activities and "actually paid attention" (Interview, 13 August 2009).

In the second interview, Jamie exhibited some evidence she had considered Cliff's interpretation of active student engagement. She noted that active engagement meant more than passive learning, that students "are not just sitting there and writing down notes" (Interview, 21 October 2009). She added that students are "thinking about things … they're actually thinking about the material" (Interview, 21 October 2009). This interpretation was in a rudimentary form, however, Jamie had shown some progress in how she thought about active student engagement. Eleanor showed little development in how she thought about the theme. She admitted in the second interview that she struggled with how she defined and saw active student engagement in practice. She stated:

> I don't know how to determine if students are actively engaged or not, because I can look at someone and they are doing their work, but how do you see if they are learning from it or they are just getting through it? I guess what I've tried to do is stop making things so boring, that maybe sometimes you might have to skip over something that is boring, just give them the information in passing, and move on to the better things they want to learn (Interview, 21 October 2009).

Eleanor held to the belief that active student engagement meant student interest and attentiveness. She felt the only way she could actively engage students was through a focus on content that entertained students. According to Eleanor, students were especially engaged at "project time, when they can get out of their seats, when they can sit with their friends" (Interview, 21 October 2009).

By the final interview, Jamie was definitive in what and was not active student engagement. She stated: "It's not that students are sitting there and listening. It's that the wheels are turning. … It's thinking about things, reflecting about things, how they relate" (Interview, 9 February 2010). Although she could define active student engagement, Jamie felt she often failed to accomplish it in practice. Eleanor, on the other hand, continued to speak of student interest. She spoke of several attempts to achieve this form of engagement in her portfolio. She wrote:

> The methods I tried consisted of telling interesting stories or surprising students with shocking pictures or narratives, but still found little success with these tactics. There were times when the use of stories or astonishing pictures captured the attention of my students, but this is definitely a teaching practice I will continue to improve upon (Eportfolio).

Although Jamie considered the programmatic definition of active student engagement toward the end of student teaching, Eleanor maintained that engagement meant interest. Conversations in seminar, post-observation conferences, or with Jamie could not alter this interpretation. As such, Eleanor would have an incomplete understanding of the core themes when she finished the program. Jamie, however, would attribute her increased understanding of active student engagement to the advice Cliff provided in the second post-observation and the student teaching seminar. Neither student teacher attributed how they interpreted or enacted active student engagement to the paired teaching relationship.

Kay suggested Eleanor and Jamie rarely achieved active student engagement because they exhibited an overreliance on routine and PowerPoint. She added that the student teachers "reverted to PowerPoint or the transmission style of teaching because it is what they are used to, but the students are very used to it and the are very conditioned to act in that mode" (Interview,

22 October 2009). She suggested that Eleanor and Jamie did not regularly attempt activities that asked students to inquire into and apply knowledge because classroom discipline was easier to maintain through lecture and guided reading. She noted,

> What [the student teachers] had to entertain them with was not working, and there's no way for them to know that ahead of time, because they are new and trying it, but when the penalty for trying something new and different is so severe, you really have more of a tendency to stick with what works (Interview, 22 October 2009).

However, Kay mentioned one activity where Eleanor and Jamie attained active student engagement. Early in the semester, the student teachers taught a lesson on the Bill of Rights using a discussion method known as "Line of Contention" or "Make a Stand." Eleanor and Jamie provided students with statements to consider about specific rights, like the right to bear arms. Kay noted that students became engaged in a discussion about individual rights but that this lesson was a rare example of active engagement. Jamie also referenced this lesson as an example of active student engagement in her portfolio. She wrote:

> I designed a line of contention activity with a few of the amendments, and made statements about people's rights. I noticed that every student was engaged in the activity and were willing to state their opinion and back it up on issues such as the right to a firearm on them at all times. I believe that every student talked about their decision on where they placed on the line of contention. This activity sparked in-depth discussions on their rights (Eportfolio).

Aside from this lesson, however, Eleanor and Jamie would struggle in their attempts to achieve active student engagement.

According to Cliff, this struggle was partially due to inexperience. He suggested that Eleanor and Jamie believed the inclusion of engaging material would facilitate student engagement. He recalled the second observation where they thought engagement would occur through the use of a political cartoon. However, inexperience led Eleanor and Jamie to "disorderly say what [the cartoon] means" rather than ask students to interpret the image for themselves (Interview, 19 October 2009). Cliff believed Eleanor and Jamie bore responsibility for this failure. In the final interview, he stated that the student teachers did not take into consideration much of the advice he had provided. Cliff noted he provided the same feedback about the opening questions and provided a myriad of alternatives each observation, and that he had discussed with them how they might use those alternatives in the classroom. Rather than attempt to fine-tune several of these alternatives, Cliff stated, "their default position was to say that Kay was rigid and expected them to follow a certain structure" (Interview, 30 January 2010). From what he observed in their practice, Cliff felt they "wanted to achieve student engagement, but never really got there, not even glimpses of it" (Interview, 30 January 2010).

Prior to student teaching, Eleanor defined rationale-based practice as the defense of instructional methods teachers use in the classroom. She stated, "It's always something where you always have to know what you're teaching for, why you're teaching, why what you're talking about is important" (Interview, 13 August 2009). In this interview, however, Eleanor made no connection between the defense of instructional methods and her own purposes for teaching. Although she did not reference in the interview the rationale document she had recently revised for ESOC 4360, she had written in her rationale that her approach to teaching was shaped by certain ideas of democracy and multiculturalism. Eleanor's interpretation of culturally responsive teaching emerged in the rationale when she wrote that she wanted to expose students

"to the other side of history" (ESOC 4360 Rationale). She recalled the lack of exposure to a multicultural curriculum in school and the need to bring the voices of "others" into the social studies curriculum. However, more important to Eleanor was the creation of participatory citizens. She suggested that a democratic classroom and student activism in the school and local area could help promote this idea.

Jamie shared Eleanor's interpretation of rationale-based practice in that she might have to defend what and how she taught. Unlike Eleanor, she extended the definition to include the need for an individual purpose for teaching and how that is reflected in the curriculum. According to Jamie, her rationale focused on democratic citizenship. So, she wanted to "make sure students know how to make decisions and are aware of how to come up with ideas and defend them" (Interview, 13 August 2009). Jamie provided a full interpretation of democratic citizenship in her ESOC 4360 Rationale. She wrote that a democratic citizen was cognizant of democratic processes, tolerant of others, and could engage in research. For Jamie, research meant inquiry. She felt she could meet this goal if she taught students "how to question topics, and how to investigate them in order to make decisions" (ESOC 4360 Rationale).

The perception of mentor constraints would hinder the student teachers ability to fully enact these teaching rationales. Throughout student teaching, Eleanor and Jamie would fault Kay for their inabilities to bring their rationales into practice. In the second interview, Jamie claimed that mentor teacher constraints "restricted the kinds of things we can do in class" (Interview, 21 October 2009). Eleanor stated, "From day one we were given how to teach from Kay and we've just gone along with it, because there's no room to move around. My rationale has not come up at all. I have thoughts of it" (Interview, 21 October 2009). Eleanor felt that students in first period were disengaged and did not enjoy social studies. She wanted to know "how to light that

fire" (Interview, 21 October 2009), which she attributed to student interest. Eleanor would revisit the written rationale and incorporate Egan's (1992) approach to imagination and the use of story telling in the final weeks of student teaching.

Jamie spoke again of constraints in the final interview. She argued that she and Eleanor did not "have as much free reign as some of the other student teachers in the program" to enact their teaching rationale (Interview, 9 February 2010). Jamie suggested there were moments where she wanted to teach lessons that matched her rationale, like a community action project, but Kay kept her from teaching these lessons. However, Cliff argued that one reason the teaching rationales did not emerge in Eleanor and Jamie's practice was that they were still in the process of getting comfortable in their practice. As a result, their ability to fully implement the core theme was limited. He suggested they were "starting to try new things and they have gotten to that point where [I'm] going to try and see if we can take it another step further" (Interview, 19 October 2009). These conversations would not occur. As I noted in the previous theme, Uncertain Certainties, Cliff would not engage Eleanor and Jamie in conversations about their teaching rationales the remainder of the semester.

Jamie noted that paired student teaching allowed Eleanor and Jamie to discuss the instructional and curricular decisions of each lesson they planned. However, paired student teaching did not influence the enactment of their rationales due to perceived constraints of the mentor teacher. Often, decisions for what content or activity was included in a lesson was the result of what the student teachers thought was Kay's rationale for teaching – the EOCT. As a result, the rationale documents Eleanor and Jamie produced for ESOC 4360 and the Eportfolio were largely left out of lessons. Although Eleanor felt she and Jamie could not enact their

rationales in practice, she acknowledged that conversations of their goals for teaching did occur. However, these conversations were often limited to the student teaching seminar.

Unlike the previous three themes, Eleanor and Jamie directly attributed their understanding and implementation of collaborative inquiry and reflective practice to paired student teaching. Eleanor considered collaborative inquiry an important component of any teacher's practice. She noted, "Everybody has tons of ideas, and an idea I have might work in my classroom, but someone else is going to have a different idea that might work better" (Interview, 13 August 2009). Jamie connected collaborative inquiry to the conversations she and other preservice teachers had in ESOC 4450L. Randall had structured the course so that students could share with others what they had observed in the field. Jamie believed this collaborative environment would continue with the student teaching seminar. Both considered participation in paired student teaching as an opportunity to engage in consistent collaboration. Eleanor, in particular, looked forward to sharing a student teaching placement with Jamie. She recalled a lesson plan she and Jamie developed for their social studies methods course. Eleanor had produced a draft of the lesson and noted that, "It was okay. And then Jamie had a completely different idea and it was a lot better, so we went with her idea" (Interview, 13 August 2009). She added, "I think when you collaborate, nothing bad will come of it" (Interview, 13 August 2009).

Eleanor considered paired student teaching as an opportunity to experience student teaching with "someone who is in the exact same spot. We can bounce off each other, we can be scared together" (Interview, 13 August 2009). However, Eleanor was concerned about the potential lack of compromise. She worried that perhaps she and Jamie would have different ideas of what they wanted to achieve in student teaching, and that neither would want to compromise their beliefs. Jamie was not as concerned. She saw the collaborative experience as a "stepping

stone" toward real teaching (Interview, 13 August 2009). Jamie knew student teaching was unlike anything she had done previously. As such, she believed the shared experience would help her and Eleanor survive the challenges they would likely experience first few weeks of student teaching.

When questioned about the collaborative experience in the second interview, Eleanor first insisted: "That's all I do. Every day is good collaborative inquiry! It's having two heads instead of one" (Interview, 21 October 2009). She proceeded to describe how she and Jamie shared ideas and collaboratively developed lesson plans. She then said: "Collaborative inquiry is great!" (Interview, 21 October 2009). However, when pressed, Eleanor admitted she felt Jamie took advantage of her for planning. She was quick to point out this was not a usual occurrence, but there were days where the workload was not shared. Eleanor and Jamie had divided planning responsibilities at the beginning of the semester so that Eleanor planned any lesson with technology because Jamie did not own a laptop computer. As a result, Eleanor's share of lesson planning increased on technology intensive days.

Even though she felt taken advantage of at times, Eleanor was supportive of the collaborative arrangement. She believed that paired student teaching offered more positives than negatives. Shortly after she shared her concern, she added, "For the most part it's been wonderful. We each have an idea for the next day or lesson we're planning, and we'll formulate it until it sounds perfect. … I think it's been a good experience in all" (Interview, 21 October 2009). She suggested that participation in paired student teaching had taught her "how to cooperate, how to take a different direction when need" (Interview, 21 October 2009). Jamie's assessment of the experience remained consistent. She felt that participation in paired student teaching served as "a stepping stone instead of being thrown in[to teaching]. I've been able to

talk with someone else doing the exact same thing, not just someone that's in seminar in a similar situation" (Interview, 21 October 2009). Jamie admitted she was nervous prior to student teaching and that paired student teaching alleviated many of the fears she initially held.

Kay noted the student teachers relied on each other a lot in the classroom. However, the collaborative environment created difficulties for Kay to assess Eleanor and Jamie. She felt that Jamie was better at classroom management, but they worked so closely together that in terms of lesson planning, "when they bring me the finished [lesson plan], I don't know who is involved in what part" (Interview, 22 October 2009). Cliff also noted the challenges in observing paired student teachers. However, he commented on several positive characteristics of the collaborative relationship. He found that with the challenges they faced in the classroom, Eleanor and Jamie "developed a supportive relationship for one another" (Interview, 19 October 2009). He added that two student teachers in the classroom helped with instruction. Even when Eleanor taught first period, Jamie was present in the classroom. Cliff noted: "When one is teaching, the other is putting out fires if need be, helping out in any kind of way" (Interview, 19 October 2009). This was an informal practice the student teachers began early in the semester and continued until the conclusion of student teaching. This lead teacher – backup teacher approach allowed the student teachers to "help certain students and give them extra attention" (Interview, 30 January 2010).

Cliff suggested that, in the end, Eleanor and Jamie gained "an appreciation for collaboration, but I would suspect there is no way to prove this, time will tell" (Interview, 30 January 2010). He hoped each would value the collaborative experiences of paired student teaching and carry that ideal into practice their first year of teaching. Both would later agree in their final interviews. Eleanor learned from the experience that relationships matter in teaching. She suggested her success as a teacher and collaboration were intertwined. She argued, "If

you're by yourself trying to plan alone, trying to deal with problems on your own, I don't think you're going to be successful at all" (Interview, 8 February 2010). She believed she would continue to seek out those relationships, either with teachers from her school or with peers from the social studies program. Jamie indicated that paired student teaching taught her how to collaborate with other teachers. After her experiences with Eleanor, Jamie claimed she was "more likely to seek out a teacher who held the kinds of ideals I have" (Interview, 9 February 2010). She also reflected on how she might have viewed collaboration if she had experienced traditional student teaching: "If I had been by myself, I think I would have been more isolated and stayed to myself" (Interview, 9 February 2010).

Eleanor initially considered reflection as an individual action. Eleanor defined this form of reflective teaching as "looking back at your lessons to see what did not work" (Interview, 13 August 2009). Jamie, on the other hand, believed reflections encompassed two forms, personal and collaborative. She suggested that teachers could reflect individually, "but it's also nice to have someone there that you can reflect with and they can point out things maybe you hadn't noticed" (Interview, 13 August 2009). However, both believed the paired student teaching experience would provide them with opportunities for joint reflection.

By the second interview, Eleanor had come to recognize the potential for paired student teaching to provide opportunities for personal and collaborative reflection. She provided examples of each in quick succession. The first form of reflection she shared was personal reflection. Eleanor had experienced a particularly challenging lesson prior to the second interview. Her original intent was to complete a guided reading assignment. Instead, she experienced what she would later describe as a "potential uprising" (Personal Communication, 21 October 2009). Eleanor had gotten to the point of yelling at the class to stop the revolt.

However, this worked for only so long. Eventually, she was forced to rely on Kay to quiet the class and one particularly disruptive student. When Eleanor arrived for the interview, she was visibly upset. As she considered the day's events, she provided an honest and impromptu assessment of her need to reflect. She said:

I think tonight I'm going to have a pow wow with myself and go over what happened today, how it got started, why it continued how I let it continue, and that yelling isn't going to work. I just have to reflect on today. I have to reflect every day, but today especially, because I feel today was the first time I ever felt powerless. So, I have to sit here and think about what I can do tomorrow to stop it from happening again, what I can do the rest of the semester. How can I structure my class so that we are all equal in the classroom, but that I still have control over what's going on? I mean, I don't want to be the dictator, but I am the one who needs to steer the ship (Interview, 21 October 2009).

However, Eleanor acknowledged that reflection could occur collaboratively. She appreciated the outside perspective Jamie brought to her teaching. The paired placement often forced conversations over lessons that had not worked when she would have preferred to dismiss the lessons altogether. Jamie shared a similar assessment of how she and Eleanor reflected. She noted that much of their reflection occurred in planning period when they "talked about whether we thought the lesson went well or how we could change it" (Interview, 21 October 2009). But Jamie suggested that as the semester progressed, their reflection was largely limited to complaints of what was expected of them. She said, "I feel like a lot of our reflection is hard to do, because we don't feel like [what we teach] is practice to reflect on. It's pretty much us doing what someone wants us to do" (Interview, 21 October 2009). According to Jamie, the constraints

of the classroom negated much of their responsibility to reflect on what they taught because they believed they would not personally use the same approach to teaching.

There was an additional limitation to the reflective relationship. Eleanor noted, "there were definitely times when we would finish a class and then we'd kind of sit in our planning period and talk about what worked, what didn't work, what we should try again, what we should never try again" (Interview, 8 February 2010). However, Eleanor felt she and Jamie limited their reflective sessions to larger problems with a lesson or comments students made in class. They did not offer each other critical feedback about how they interacted with students or posed questions to students. Each believed they were still in the process of learning to teach and were not qualified to assess each other's instruction aside from general feedback. But more importantly, Eleanor noted that she did not want to engage in awkward conversations that might hurt their relationship. She noted she might have felt offended if Jamie had offered constructive criticism of her practice, and as a result, did not feel comfortable providing the same type of reflective feedback.

In the end, participation in the paired student teaching experience helped Eleanor and Jamie learn and enact two of the five core themes. The close personal and professional relationship they developed throughout student teaching allowed Eleanor and Jamie to support each other in what they considered a caustic school environment. Even though Eleanor and Jamie felt unsupported by their mentor teacher, they believed that paired student teaching provided them with collaborative and reflective opportunities many of their peers did not have. As a result, each expressed a desire to seek out collaborative and reflective environments in the first years of teaching. Although they valued and enacted these two core themes, participation in paired student teaching did not lead to increased understandings or the enactment of active

student engagement, culturally responsive teaching, and rationale-based practice. Both student teachers attributed how they understood these themes to the student teaching seminar. However, Jamie did consider Cliff influential in her re-interpretation of active student engagement. Eleanor, on the other hand, did not consider Cliff's interpretation of active student engagement and finished the program with a flawed understanding of the standard.

However, the student teachers felt that seminar only provided them with a space to converse about the core themes. They believed that the constraints of their student teaching placement limited their ability to regularly enact these themes in the classroom. As such, Eleanor and Jamie felt a more conducive environment might have allowed for the full investigation and integration of certain core themes into practice.

<div align="center">Summary</div>

In this chapter, I explored three themes that emanated from an investigation of one paired student teaching placement in Fall 2009. In the first theme, Passing the Buck, I illustrated how a mentor teacher shared a common discourse with the social studies education program, but was uncertain of her role and responsibilities as a mentor teacher. As a result, she disregarded responsibility for the promotion of the discourse in the practice of two student teachers. Instead, she believed it was the responsibility of the university supervisor to assist the student teachers in their learning and integration of the program's vision of teaching and learning. The student teachers also felt the mentor teacher placed certain constraints on their practice that lead to limited opportunities to enact several of the program core themes that made up the vision of teaching and learning. In the second theme, Uncertain Certainties, I described the uncertainties present in the practice of a novice university supervisor. This theme highlighted the idiosyncratic practices and beliefs of a university supervisor with minimal preparation from the social studies

program, and how this limited his support of the program's vision for teaching and learning. The supervisor did not view it as his responsibility to reinforce the programmatic interpretation of "good teaching." Instead, he took an individualized approach to university supervision, as he believed each student teacher was confronted with specific needs.

Finally, in the third theme, Incomplete Coherence, I shared the limitations of paired student teaching in promoting coherent teacher education experiences. Paired student teaching provided the two student teachers with opportunities to engage in collaboration and reflection. However, the use of paired student teaching could not ensure the student teachers learned and integrated the remaining core themes: active student engagement, culturally responsive and equitable instruction, and rationale-based practice. In Chapter Six, I present the conclusions to this research. I first discuss the implications of this research for the social studies education program. I then turn to a discussion of the limitations of this research and directions for future research into paired student teaching and program coherence.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, I consider the implications of the findings presented in Chapter Five. This research suggests that participation in an alternative approach to traditional student teaching, by itself, may not lead to more coherent learning experiences. Instead, this research suggests that teacher education programs should consider alternative approaches in conjunction with what makes field-based teacher education coherent, especially integrative field experiences that exhibit carefully considered placements and clear connections to coursework. Paired student teaching may serve as a quick fix for certain institutional concerns that confront teacher education programs (e.g., Bullough et al., 2010), but it is unlikely to ensure coherence apart from attention to other features of the surrounding program. At the same time, this research reinforces previous findings that indicate participation in paired student teaching leads to certain benefits for preservice teachers. In particular, previous research found student teachers that participate in paired teaching develop the skills of reflective practice and peer collaboration (e.g., Baker & Milner, 2006; Bullough et al., 2002, 2003; Nokes et al., 2008). The student teachers in this research, Eleanor and Jamie, withstood an unsupportive classroom environment through the emotional, pedagogical, and reflective support paired student teaching provided them.

Participation in paired student teaching helped Eleanor and Jamie to value collaboration and reflection – two core themes in the intellectual vision of accomplished teaching that frame the program. However, paired teaching did little to promote the remaining aspects of the program's vision of "good teaching," a vision that includes rationale-based practice, culturally

responsive and equitable instruction, and active student engagement in the pursuit of worthwhile

learning. In essence, participation in paired student teaching alone provided these preservice

teachers with little prompting toward a more complex consideration of the social studies

program's vision for teaching and learning. However, if the goal is coherence, then this research

suggests the social studies program, and others like it, think carefully about the ways in which

paired student teaching works together with: 1) the conceptual framework of the program; 2)

how mentor teachers and supervisors are prepared; 2) and the structure of the paired student

teaching experience. I consider the implications of this research in these three areas of the social

studies program in the next section in an effort to further the conversation about effective teacher

education. I then turn to the implications of this research in regard to the complicated nature of

relationships and communication in preservice teacher education. Finally, I conclude this study

with a discussion of the limitations of this research and future research directions for paired

student teaching and program coherence. I begin with the implications of this research for the

social studies education program at Southeastern State University. The implications speak to

broader interests for university-based teacher education.

<div style="text-align:center">Implications for the Social Studies Education Program</div>

In this section, I discuss the implications of this research on the social studies education

program. I will first discuss the implications of this research for the core themes of the program.

Darling-Hammond (2006) notes that effective teacher education programs have a clear vision of

good teaching that permeates all coursework and field experiences. This research is evidence that

the social studies program might lack a "clear" vision of good teaching in the broad, cross-

cutting sense. A conceptual framework known as SURGE is used to organize the curriculum of

the preservice preparation program. However, program faculty, graduate teaching assistants, and

students do not hold the same shared interpretation of the program standards that make up the

SURGE framework. Instead, course instructors and university supervisors create individualized

interpretations of the framework, which results in numerous conceptions of what is "good

teaching" at play in the course of the social studies program. Heading into the paired student

teaching arrangement, the student teachers in this research referenced the implied nature of the

framework in coursework. As a result, they entered student teaching uncertain of the framework

against which they were expected to show competency at the completion of student teaching. In

the following section, I therefore provide several suggestions for the development of a clear

vision of teaching and learning that is explicitly expressed in coursework and fieldwork.

I then turn to the implications of this research on the preparation of mentor teachers and

university supervisors. Research suggests preservice teachers often consider field experiences the

most influential component of their teacher training (e.g., Britzman, 2003; Darling-Hammond,

2006; Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1985, 1987). As such, effective teacher education programs

are careful to provide preservice teachers with field experiences that are carefully chosen, well-

supervised, and consistent in the ways they model conceptions of teaching and learning

promoted within the programs (e.g., Darling-Hammond, 2006; Howey & Zimpher, 1989; Tom,

1997). Unfortunately, this research provides some evidence that, although this social studies

program makes some effort to carefully select mentor teachers and university supervisors,

mentors and supervisors who both receive inadequate training in how to support student teachers

and are unclear of programmatic expectations or the key conceptual anchors of the program.

Mentors and supervisors like Kay and Cliff are therefore left to interpret their roles and assist

preservice teachers in ways they deem appropriate. To counter these idiosyncratic practices, I

provide several possible approaches for the preparation of mentor teachers and university supervisors.

I end this section with implications of this research for the paired student teaching experience. Smith (2002) argues that, if not carefully placed and prepared, paired student teachers can experience difficulty in student teaching due to issues of role ambiguity and territoriality. Gardiner (2010) suggests that miscommunication early in paired student teaching can lead to poorly implemented lessons. She adds that the process of mentoring paired student teachers is a complicated task that teacher education programs should support. Butler et al. (2010) echo Gardiner's call for programmatic support, as teacher education programs need to better prepare mentor teachers and university supervisors for work with paired student teachers. For the future use of paired student teaching in the social studies program, I provide recommendations for the preparation of paired mentors and supervisors, the assessment of paired student teachers, and paired student teacher roles and responsibilities. I turn now to the core themes of the social studies program.

The Core Themes

The social studies education program has a conceptual framework that organizes the coursework and field experiences of preservice teachers. This framework is known as SURGE within the program and details the "expectations program faculty hold as learning outcomes for preservice teachers in social studies education" (SURGE Framework, Appendix C). However, as I mentioned in Chapter Four, there are no official descriptions for, or elaborations of, the standards that make up the SURGE framework. Instead, course instructors and university supervisors largely interpret the framework for themselves. As such, the framework carries varied weight in shaping how courses are designed. Ultimately the design of those courses and

the ways instructors of these courses make use of the framework, if indeed they make use of the framework at all, are highly idiosyncratic.

The two student teachers in this study, Eleanor and Jamie, recalled no conversations in any of their classes that explicitly addressed the program framework prior to this research and their involvement in student teaching seminar. They were only able to define the core themes and the themes use in coursework after they were provided with a list of the themes. As evidenced in this research, how Eleanor and Jamie interpreted several of the core themes did not align with the descriptions Tom provided in Chapter Four. Additionally, Eleanor and Jamie experienced difficulty as they attempted to integrate certain themes into practice, like active student engagement, culturally responsive and equitable instruction, and rationale-based practice. According to the student teachers, this was partially due to a lack of focus on the core themes from the mentor teacher and university supervisor. They noted that among the separate spaces of the student teaching experience (i.e., student teaching, supervision, breakout sessions, and seminar), directed conversations of the core themes occurred only in the student teaching seminar. However, Cliff and Kay complicate this narrative by suggesting that inexperience and willingness to adopt a transmission-approach to teaching also hindered the paired student teachers in their effort to live these core themes in their developing practice as social studies teachers. In either case, the student teachers completed the social studies program with incomplete interpretations about the core themes and their reflection in practice.

If coherence is reflected in the development of the pedagogical practices and professional beliefs of preservice and inservice teachers, then certain alterations to the conceptual framework and how it is considered within the experiences of preservice teachers are worth consideration. First, program faculty and other stakeholders in the program should engage in conversations

about meaning of the standards embedded in the SURGE framework and how these standards convert into reasonable learning outcomes reflected in the practice of preservice teachers. As I previously noted, the descriptions I provide are the interpretations of Tom and myself. These interpretations are not meant to serve as a definitive account of how the social studies program defines "good teaching." The descriptions I provide in Chapter Four function mostly as a starting point to begin these conversations. Further exploration should consider the perspectives of all stakeholders (e.g., teachers, preservice teachers, graduate teaching assistants), not just university faculty (Winitsky et al., 2001). However, these conversations should address more than the meaning of the standards that comprise the framework.

Even if they could not articulate them by name, Eleanor and Jamie could speak to the implied nature of the core themes in the professional block of courses (ESOC 4350, 4360, 4450L). They recalled that collaboration and the rationale document were important to the program because course instructors engaged students in regular conversations about those ideals. However, in good part because of their limited field hours in schools prior to student teaching, they were not entirely certain how those ideals were reflected in practice. As such, discussion of the SURGE framework should consider how the framework is explicitly represented in each course and field experience in the program. Course instructors should do more than provide preservice teachers with access to the curricular ideas or pedagogical practices that seem useful to the revolving cast of instructors who populate the pre-student teaching courses. Rather, these instructors would do well to more consistently engage preservice teachers in conversations about how these curricular ideas and pedagogies reflect the particular ideas, values, and approaches to social studies education detailed in the SURGE framework. For example, methods course instructors should make preservice teachers aware that an instructional methods like historical

inquiry or well-executed collaborative work do more than interest students in the content or assist with classroom management. Instead, instructors could support students in investigation of how these methods result in the inquiry and application of knowledge (active student engagement) and can lead to certain worthwhile learning experiences.

Finally, the social studies program should ensure that conversations about the program framework extend their research to include those involved in field-based teacher education. Preservice teachers consider student teaching the most influential component of their teacher training (Armaline & Hoover, 1989; Britzman, 2003; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1985, 1987). As such, conversations about the program framework cannot remain the exclusive purview of the student teaching seminar or receive only scattershot treatment in earlier coursework. Field placements, and those who work in them, need a greater investment in the ideas that animate the university-based portion of the teacher education program. In the remainder of this section, I provide an example of how to address this concern in the form of several suggestions for the core themes' inclusion into one program document, the pre-observation form. These recommendations represent one attempt to bridge the gap between the presence of core themes and principles in university-based teacher education and the absence of these same ideals in the practice of field-based teacher education.

The pre-observation form Cliff used in Fall 2009 was a standard program document. As he gained experience in the program Cliff developed a better understanding of the program themes featured in this document and how the form reflected an approach to teaching social studies valued by program faculty. At the same time, however, the form itself provided little explanation for preservice teachers about the core themes. Preservice teachers were asked to consider six questions that related to the lesson they planned to teach. The questions were:

1) What is the current unit of study, how much time do you have planned for this unit, and where does this lesson fit in?

2) Briefly describe what you hope students will learn from this lesson (for example, particular skills, knowledge, etc.).

3) Why is what you described in 2) worth spending time on in school? Why is this important? In what ways do you think your lesson connects to your students' lives?

4) Briefly describe the methods and activities you have planned to accomplish what you described in 2). Also indicate how much time you think each portion of your lesson will take.

5) Explain where and how, in the plan you just described, you see students *actively engaged* in learning?

6) Assessment. How will you know if the students learned what you hoped they would? Describe any assignments that are connected with, or follow, this lesson (Fall 2009 Pre-Observation Form).

This pre-observation form does nothing to tie these guiding prompts to the core themes or how the social studies program considered those ideals. As such, Eleanor and Jamie used their own interpretations of the core themes to respond to questions. For instance, they wrote in the first pre-observation form that students would exhibit active engagement "because they are held accountable for relaying the information from their article to others" (Pre-Observation Form, 3 September 2009). Eleanor and Jamie wrote on the third pre-observation form they "hoped students will learn the content dictated in the GPS" and "learn group work skills" in response to the question about rationale-based practice (Pre-Observation Form, 22 October 2009). The preservice teachers were not explicitly asked to consider a specific interpretation of the core

themes. Instead, the pre-observation form implied the value of rationale-based practice, active student engagement, and worthwhile learning. Therefore, student teachers were left to apply their own interpretations of the core themes to their instruction. The core theme of collaborative inquiry was absent from the form, except as an implied tool used to facilitate pre-observation conferences with field instructors, and neither was culturally responsive instruction named on this pre-observation form.

As a university supervisor in the social studies education program interested in coherence, I might further illustrate the openings suggested by this research for program improvement by sharing examples of changes I made to my own practice as a field instructor, changes I believe made some contribution to a more coherent and effective student teaching experience for the student teachers with whom I worked. As I conducted this study, I began to revisit my own supervision and the documents I used in that process. Part of this revision included a reconsideration of the pre-observation form. I adapted the form to include direct and overt references to four of five core themes. I retained questions one, three, four, and six from the previous pre-observation form in this revised form. However, I altered questions two and five to include more directive and explicit language about rationale-based practice and active student engagement. I also added a question about culturally responsive instruction. Rather than ask preservice teachers what they "hope students will learn from the lesson," I asked preservice teachers to consider the following rationale-based practice question:

> WHAT ARE MY REASONS? Briefly describe how this lesson is an example of your rationale for teaching social studies. What aspects of your rationale are present in the lesson and how are they present? How would an observer recognize your consideration of the rationale in developing and teaching the lesson? (Researcher Pre-Observation Form).

These questions ask students to make explicit connections between what they hope to accomplish with the specific lesson and their greater purposes for teaching social studies. As such, they are expected to revisit earlier rationale documents. This was not an expectation in the original pre-observation form. I also altered the "active engagement" question to include the following clarification:

> Remember, active student engagement asks teachers to consider how students, rather than passively receiving knowledge, can learn through an active inquiry and application of knowledge. Complimenting active student engagement is the notion that teachers can make student learning worthwhile, instead of an exercise in recitation. Determining worthwhile learning is a complicated endeavor, however, teachers can begin to tackle the concept by addressing the question, 'what is the purpose for the content or concepts I teach?' while the learning may be worthwhile because it addresses a standard on the CRCT or graduation test; be thinking beyond these momentary exams and the impact on students' thinking and life after your class (Researcher Pre-Observation Form).

Like Cliff, I found that student teachers often considered active student engagement as nothing more than mere student interest in a lesson and some have even suggested that the idea refers to physical movement. I therefore included a redirecting definition in the pre-observation form and reviewed it with students prior to the first observation. These conversations helped student teachers better understand my interpretation of the standard and how they might accomplish it in practice.

This study and my own experiences as a supervisor in the program also evidenced a need for conversations around culturally responsive instruction in field-based teacher education. As such, I encourage the inclusion of this core theme into the pre-observation form so that student

teachers are asked to explicitly consider the need for culturally responsive and equitable instruction, at least several more times than they might otherwise. As it stands, whether this important theme is considered in the context of real school placements is largely left up to chance and decisions made by field instructors and mentor teachers to address the concern. For example, I have included the following question in pre-observation forms since this study:

> HOW DOES THIS LESSON PROMOTE A CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE AND EQUITABLE CLASSROOM? Explain where and how, in the plan you just described, you see culturally responsive teaching and examples of equitable practice? Do you include underrepresented perspectives, cultures, or races in your teaching? And how do you interact with your students and how do they interact with each other? (Researcher Pre-Observation Form).

The inclusion of questions like these in the pre-observation form provides university supervisors greater opportunities to guide students in conversations around the core themes in post-observation conferences and reports. At the very least, these questions increase preservice teacher exposure to the core themes in practice as they are expected to consider these ideals through the specific contexts of the lessons they teach. However, alterations to the pre-observation form can only encourage conversations of the core themes. Mentor teachers and university supervisors need to be aware of their roles and responsibilities in the student teaching experience, and how they might help preservice teachers develop a program-oriented vision of teaching and learning.

The Preparation of Mentor Teachers and University Supervisors

Kay and Cliff met several of the desirable characteristics identified earlier as suggestive of integrative field experiences. Both were graduates of the social studies program. As program

graduates, each was privileged through the trust placed in them to mentor student teachers in the past. Each had received positive reviews. They were reasonably aware of the program discourse three years after graduation, could engage in conversations around this discourse, and made connections between the discourse and practice. By this measure, there was some indication that the experiences provided by the social studies program continued to hold some influence over how they perceived teaching and learning several years after completion.

However, a common discourse around the core themes and previous experience as mentor teachers did not ensure each was aware of program expectations for student teaching mentoring and supervision. It also did not ensure they would understand the ways they might work to reinforce the core themes in Eleanor and Jamie's student teaching experience. At several points in the study, each admitted that uncertainties existed about their roles and responsibilities as mentor teacher and university supervisor. Kay had received no training and limited information about program expectations of her responsibilities as a mentor teacher. Cliff enjoyed more support, but still felt mostly left to learn the work of field instruction through experience. Several of the uncertainties they encountered centered on their mixed feelings of responsibility they felt toward the promotion a program-endorsed vision of effective practice. Kay saw it as the responsibility of the university supervisor to promote the core themes. Cliff believed his purpose was to help Eleanor and Jamie develop their own interpretations of the core themes rather than promote his and the program's interpretation of the program ideals. As a result, student teaching seminar served as the only primary outlet for directed conversations about the core themes in Eleanor and Jamie's student teaching experience, and the high school itself was a site bereft of any systematic attention to the foundational tenets of the program. In the remainder of this section, I use the program coherence literature and the findings of this research to explore

possible revisions to the process of mentor and supervisor preparation in the social studies program. I first discuss the preparation of mentor teachers.

The social studies education program has an online presence that includes information for the student teaching experience. This area of the program website, called the Social Studies Student Teaching Program Information or S^3ITE, provides educators with information about the student teaching process. In the past, the social studies program provided student teachers with this information in a physical document called the Student Teacher Handbook. S^3ITE includes an overview of the program core themes, schedule for the student teaching semester, frequently asked questions, and student teaching documents (student teacher evaluation, pre-observation, and peer collaboration forms). The frequently asked questions section provides visitors with the most information about student teaching.

Several recommendations for student teaching are included on the frequently asked questions page. For instance, student teachers and mentor teachers are "encouraged to discuss opportunities for student teachers to spend time in schools during pre-planning, start-of-school year, and earlier classroom activities" (ESOC website). The website also spells out student responsibilities set by the program in the form of student teaching seminar and a set of assignments that include the Eportfolio, field instructor observations, and a peer observation assignment. At the beginning of each semester, Tom contacts mentor teachers to welcome them to the student teaching experience. In this communication, Tom directs mentor teachers to the program website for further information about what is expected in the student teaching experience. However, beyond this initial welcome and the occasional request for student teacher evaluations, mentor teachers rely on their own initiative or work with field instructors for guidance about their roles. Mentor teachers are not provided directed guidance about their

responsibilities as mentor teachers beyond the initial contact and the program website. This lack of guidance may partially account for the way Kay approached mentor teaching. She was uncertain of her responsibilities to the student teachers and the social studies program. However, Kay did not ask for guidance from Cliff or Tom when they visited her classroom at several points in the semester. As such, Kay engaged in little reflection and collaboration with the student teachers. Instead, she focused her attention on how Eleanor and Jamie managed their students and disregarded any responsibility for promoting the core themes.

The literature on mentor teaching suggests that Kay's experiences are common. Jenkins and Fortnam (2010) note that, "While [mentor teachers] may be comfortable guiding student teachers through day-to-day classroom events, they receive little, if any, training in how to lead student teachers beyond these events to analyze and reflect on their teaching and the profession" (p. 23). Others point to the lack of communication that results in disconnect between university and field-based teacher education (e.g., Grossman et al., 2008; Hammerness, 2006). As a result, mentoring preservice teachers becomes an isolated affair, and there is a lack of a shared vision of powerful teaching and learning.

The coherence literature suggests that to correct this disconnect, teacher education programs must do more to help mentor teachers become better versed in the goals and expectations of the programs. Teacher learning stands a better chance of becoming transformative for student teachers when the goals and expectations of campus and field-based teacher educators are closely aligned and readily understood (e.g., Cochran-Smith, 1991; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Zeichner, 2010). Effective teacher education programs work to close the communication gap in several ways. Darling-Hammond (2006) notes that some effective teacher education programs offer professional development for mentor teachers. Other programs

provide mentors with handbooks to limit misunderstandings about the student teaching process. These handbooks detail mentor responsibilities and what student teachers are expected to complete. Carroll (2007) notes that Michigan State University offers mentor teacher study groups where mentors "examine some of the challenges of engaging mentor teachers in the work of teacher education" (p. 181).

Whichever approach a teacher education program uses, mentor teachers in effective teacher education programs are provided with clear expectations for the mentoring of student teachers. To achieve this goal, the social studies program should alter its communication with mentor teachers in several ways. First, the program website and student teacher handbook could provide an extended set of expectations for student teacher mentoring. Other than suggested conversations for student teacher workload and observation assignments, these expectations for mentor teachers are largely absent. Mentor teachers are not provided with suggested approaches for reflection and collaborative inquiry with student teachers. Program faculty would do well to routinely return to conversations about the expectations they hold for mentor teachers, and then document them within the program website and student teaching handbook.

Teacher education programs often do not provide guidance and explicit expectations for the process of student teacher mentoring (Jones & Straker, 2007; Koerner, 1992; Lucas, 2001). As a result, many mentors frame their conceptualization and practice of student teaching mentoring through their own experiences as students, student teachers, and inservice teachers. Consequently, numerous perspectives and approaches to mentoring preservice teachers have emerged (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Shulman & Sato, 2006). The mentoring literature provides a litany of conceptualizations (e.g., Borko, 1986; Galvez-Hijornevik, 1986; Saunders, Pettinger, & Tomlinson, 1995; Schien, 1978). Yendol-Hoppey (2007) argues that due to "the definitional

multiplicity surrounding mentoring … the mentoring role lacks clarity as a conceptual model" (p. 670). As such, mentors are left to determine for themselves how they can best support preservice teachers, even if this support is in direct conflict with the goals of the teacher education program. If the social studies program wants to minimize the idiosyncrasies of mentor teachers and promote coherence, program faculty must consider the various conceptualizations of mentor practice and engage mentors in conversations about how they might best support preservice teachers.

Additionally, program faculty should provide mentor teachers with these expectations in a form other than digital communication. With various work responsibilities, mentor teachers are not guaranteed to review any communication from the teacher education program. As such, the social studies program should consider individual or group mentor meetings where program faculty or university supervisors share program expectations and discuss the program curriculum and SURGE framework. If the social studies program desires coherence, these suggestions would serve as steps toward that goal.

However, clear expectations for mentors and the communication of these expectations can only ensure that mentors are aware of what the social studies program expects of them. There is no certainty that mentors will follow through with any of the recommendations the program provides them. Inevitably, to ensure mentor teachers and the social studies program hold common views of social studies education and student teaching mentoring practices, the social studies program must maintain open lines of communication, regularly evaluate mentor practices, and provide opportunities for collaboration between mentors, university supervisors, and program faculty (e.g., Darling-Hammond, 2006; Jenkins & Fortnam, 2010). Going further,

this same sort of attention to cultivating a cadre of effective mentor teachers also should extend to the preparation of university supervisors.

The literature on university supervision is in general agreement that the work of supervision is often left to adjunct faculty and graduate students (e.g., Beck & Kosnik, 2002; Guyton & McIntyre, 1990; Slick, 1997; Zeichner, 2005). The lowly status of supervision often precludes experienced teacher educators from the work of supervision. Another theme apparent in both the research literature and in common practice are the assumptions that supervision is a self-evident activity (Norman, 2007; Zeichner, 2005), and that good teachers make good supervisors (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). As a result, teacher education programs by and large do not have a rich history of formal training programs intended to help novice teacher educators learn the work of student teaching supervision (Jenkins & Fortnam, 2010; Lanier & Little, 1986; Norman, 2007; Zeichner, 2005).

Supervisors, especially graduate students new to the work of teacher education, need exposure to various forms of supervision (e.g., Glickman & Bey, 1990; Pajak, 1993, 2002) and the challenges supervisors experience in practice (e.g., Butler, Cuenca, Elfer, & Gitlin, 2010; Cuenca, 2010; Slick, 1997, 1998). Cuenca (2010) argues that novice supervisors require support as they navigate the transition from teacher to teacher educator. He specifically mentions the need for "learning communities in which the complexities of preparing teachers can be considered and the knowledge of teacher education can be constructed collectively" (p. 39).

The social studies education program currently offers graduate teaching assistants a seminar where the complexities of teacher education are considered. This seminar is called ESOC 9700. The ESOC 9700 seminar, which I described at several points in Chapter Two, serves as a learning community where faculty and graduate teaching assistants discuss the work

of teacher education. However, as Cliff mentioned, conversations in this space did not prepare him for the work of supervision. Instead, supervisors in the social studies program are often left to decipher their practice individually (Cuenca, 2010), through informal conversations with other supervisors in ESOC 9700 (Dinkelman et al., 2009), or through participation in collaborative supervisor groups (Butler et al., 2010; Ritter et al., 2007). Recently, Butler et al. (2010) formed a collaborative community of supervisors in response to the lack of directed conversations in ESOC 9700 around supervision. The group felt ESOC 9700 provided little conversational space for supervision, and they desired a space focused explicitly on the problems they experienced in the field. Questions each often felt uncomfortable to pose in ESOC 9700 were instead brought to the collaborative group. The space was free of hierarchy and allowed supervisors to openly agree or disagree with their peers. Butler and colleagues found that the collaborative space validated their work as supervisors and allowed each to negotiate the didactics of supervision, cope with uncertainties of practice, and navigate the competing relationships of supervision. Norman (2007) describes a more formalized version of this space at Michigan State University, where supervisors "make our practice public by developing and sharing records of our field-based work with interns so that we could ground our conversations in the particulars of what was said and done" (p. 162).

How supervisors are prepared in effective teacher education programs is a largely absent conversation in the program coherence literature. For the most part, teacher education or clinical faculty conduct student teaching supervision in these programs (e.g., Darling-Hammond, 2006; Howey & Zimpher, 1989). However, if graduate teaching assistants are to continue as university supervisors in the social studies program, they need collaborative spaces where they can fully explore the work of field-based teacher education. As the program moves forward, ESOC 9700

might evolve to include explicit conversations and investigations of university supervision. An alternative approach is an expectation that first-year university supervisors enroll in a separate seminar devoted to the theories and practice of student teaching supervision. In either case, course instructors should expect university supervisors to make their practice public. In its current form, university supervision in the social studies program is often an isolated and idiosyncratic practice. If university supervisors are to help preservice teachers develop a coherent vision of teaching and learning, the social studies program must do more than provide "crash course briefings about what [supervision] entails" and hope that supervisors learn their practice through experience and involvement in ESOC 9700 (Tom, 7 August 2009).

Paired Student Teaching

As an alternative to traditional student teaching, paired student teaching challenges the traditionally hierarchical nature of student teaching and reinforces teacher learning through continuous collaboration and reflection with a peer (e.g., Bullough et al., 2010; Gardiner & Robinson, 2009). In its most basic form, paired student teaching is a rather unobtrusive reform to implement and requires little sacrifice from schools, mentor teachers, or student teachers in terms of time or institutional change. Although there are few institutionalized demands, the account of paired student teaching provided by this research lends cautious support to a recommendation that teacher education programs should carefully consider the selection of paired student teachers, mentors, and supervisors, and provide clear expectations for the paired student teaching experience. In the next few pages I detail some of these recommendations.

The first issue I consider is the selection of paired student teachers. As I previously noted in Chapter Four, the initial attempt at paired student teaching in the social studies program was a haphazard affair. Student teachers were randomly paired with little consideration of

compatibility. Of the four placements, two placements consisted of student teachers from different cohort groups. These students had no personal relationship with their peer and entered student teaching with divergent approaches to teaching. Tom recalled the program "ran into some issues with people not getting along … and we didn't pay enough attention to those kinds of relationships" (Interview, 7 August 2009). As a result, future uses of paired student teaching would remain voluntary and were the result of student requests or surveys. For the purposes of this study, I used my experiences as a course instructor of potential participants for insights into which students I felt exhibited an aptitude for collaboration. Once I had a set of students I believed could succeed in paired student teaching I contacted each student. I asked each student if they were willing to participate in paired student teaching, and if so, to provide the names of three students they would prefer to work with, and the names of three students they would not want to work with in the fall. I was able to construct four paired placements for the Fall 2009 with this approach.

In the future, I recommend the social studies program institute the use of questionnaires and course instructor feedback for the placement of paired student teachers. Prior to student teaching requests, program faculty should present paired student teachers as an alternative to a traditional placement and them with background and expectations of the paired student teaching experience. I recommend the program provide preservice teachers with a questionnaire that gauges their willingness to participate in paired student teaching. Ideally, this questionnaire would include space for preservice teachers to recommend potential partners for paired student teaching. Program faculty should then consult course instructors for feedback about the students' disposition for collaboration and any other feedback the instructors might provide. The careful

consideration of pairs is necessary to avoid the conflict between partners that existed in the initial attempt at paired student teaching.

Once placed, the social studies program should provide explicit expectations for paired student teaching in terms of instructional and planning responsibilities. Eleanor and Jamie collaboratively planned each lesson for the entire student teaching experience. They team taught both first and second period until shortly before the second observation at the midpoint of student teaching. As I noted in the second theme, Uncertain Certainties, Eleanor and Jamie were hesitant to take over individual class responsibilities. Cliff had not made this an expectation until the first observation. Consequently, it took several more weeks for the student teachers to determine a suitable instructional arrangement. Cliff expressed uncertainty at several points in the second and third interviews about his ability to assess Eleanor and Jamie because he did not have the opportunity to observe how each would individually design and implement a lesson, which Cliff felt was a necessary skills for a first year teacher. This finding is evidence of a need for institutional expectations for paired student teaching.

The social studies program should provide paired student teachers with these expectations prior to student teaching and clearly describe all expectations. Jamie regularly commented in interviews that the first few weeks of paired student teaching served as a "stepping stone" to real teaching. The paired arrangement allowed the student teachers to bypass fears of a "sink or swim" approach to teaching. As such, it is beneficial for the social studies program to maintain an initial collaborative component to the paired experience. This fully collaborative experience might consist of the first two the three weeks of student teachings. To minimize the uncertainty Cliff experienced in his attempt to assess Eleanor and Jamie, the program should expect each student teacher to assume primary planning and instructional

responsibility for a minimum of one instructional period per day. If student teachers have the opportunity to teach more than two total classes, they might continue the instruction of a third period in a collaborative manner.

During this period of time, the program might expect paired student teachers to serve in the role of back-up teacher for class periods they do not teach. Smith (2002) provides several responsibilities for paired student teachers in the role of lead teacher and back-up teacher. For the lead teacher, several of these responsibilities include:

- Responsibility for delivering the lesson.

- Responsibility for management of the class.

- Self-evaluation of own teaching (p. 257).

The back-up teacher assists the lead teacher in their instruction. Several of these responsibilities include:

- Assisting individual pupils with their work.

- Assisting individual pupils to remain on-task and attentive.

- Observing and noting teaching points of interest for themselves (p. 257).

The social studies program might provide paired student teachers with a list of expectations like the one Smith (2002) provides paired teachers in his teacher education program. Clearly defined expectations for student teacher roles in the classroom are necessary. In addition, the program also should have clearer expectations to guide the planning of lessons. In this research, Eleanor and Jamie collaboratively planned each lesson. As a result, both Kay and Cliff noted difficulty in how they might assess the individual strengths and weaknesses of the student teachers. However, with Kay disinterested in assessing the student teachers, this difficulty was more relevant to Cliff who was responsible for program required assessments. Cliff suggested in the second

observation meeting he wanted the student teachers to individually plan lessons the remainder of the semester. However, Eleanor and Jamie did not consider this advice and continued to plan collaboratively. Cliff therefore felt he was unable to fully determine whether or not the student teachers were prepared for the first year of teaching. Mentor teachers and supervisors need the ability to individually assess and support the growth of paired student teachers.

The final recommendation focuses on the observation and assessment of paired student teachers. Budget constraints at Southeastern State University and the College of Education concern for mileage expenses paid for those engaged in field supervision resulted in a policy that requires university supervisors to observe two student teachers placed at the same school on the same day. For Cliff, this meant for the second and third observations he observed Eleanor first period and Jamie second period. These back-to-back observations were followed with a collaborative post-observation conference. Because Eleanor and Jamie collaboratively planned, Cliff observed the same lesson each period. He admitted he was unaware which components of the lesson Eleanor and Jamie planned. This was one of the reasons Cliff often felt he could not assess how well prepared the student teachers were for the first year of teaching or how they individually considered or enacted several of the core themes. Future supervisors of paired student teachers might alleviate this concern through the expectation that student teachers are to individually plan the lessons they teach for the second and third observations. This expectation applies to observations of shared content (i.e., a first period US History, and a second period US history) or different content (i.e., first period US History, second period Government). This expectation would allow university supervisors to observe and assess the individual strengths and weaknesses of the paired student teachers. The supervisor might also expect the student teachers

to conduct their own field observation of their peer when they are not observed. Such practice might allow for improved reflection and feedback in post-observation conferences.

<center>Implications for Teacher Education</center>

Beyond the social studies program, this research speaks to the complicated nature of relationships and communication within and across spaces where teacher education occurs. In this section, I revisit the literature on paired student teaching and program coherence to frame the conversation about relationships and communication in preservice teacher education. Although paired student teaching and program coherence encourage open communication and effective relationships among preservice teachers and teacher educators (e.g., Baker & Milner, 2006; Bullough et al., 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Graber, 1996), this investigation of the lived experiences of those engaged in the work of preservice teacher education suggests that appropriate and effective communication and relationships do not always exist in preservice preparation.

To illustrate this implication I turn to the mentor-mentee relationship elaborated upon in the previous implications section and Chapter Five of this study. To date, research studies on paired student teaching suggest several positive implications for participation in paired student teaching related to the mentor-mentee relationship. Bullough et al. (2010), in a recent review of the paired teaching literature, note that paired student teaching "increases student teacher and [mentor] teacher learning by increasing the kind, quality, and amount of teacher interaction and reflection on teaching and the feedback given" (p. 40). In their study of paired student teaching, Baker and Milner (2006) suggested participation in paired teaching compelled student teachers to "engage mentors in pedagogical discussions that rise above the particularities of a single lesson" (p. 70). For the most part, research into paired student teaching has found paired teaching to be a

positive influence on the types of relationships and communication that develop between mentor teachers and student teachers.

However, several studies have indicated that participation in paired student teaching does not always insure effective relationships and communication between mentors and student teachers (e.g., Butler et al., 2010; Gardiner, 2010; Goodnough et al., 2010). Gardiner's (2010) investigation of paired teaching mentors found that miscommunication between mentors and paired student teachers was a regular occurrence at the outset of the student teaching experience. Butler et al. (2010) and Goodnough et al. (2009) found that mentors in their studies experienced difficulty in providing the appropriate assistance to paired teachers. For the mentor in Butler et al. (2010), the paired relationship complicated the mentor-mentee relationship because he did not want to express favoritism toward one student over the other, and was uncertain in how to provide individualized support in a collaborative environment.

However, implicit in many of the studies that speak to the collaborative relationships of mentors and paired student teachers is the mentor teachers' willingness to enter into the collaborative relationship (e.g., Baker & Milner, 2006; Bullough et al., 2003; Gardiner, 2010). For instance, Gardiner (2010) notes mentors in her study experienced some difficulty with the paired relationships. However, these mentors acknowledged the collaborative and reflective potential of the relationship. The mentors endeavored to support the paired student teachers as they developed their practice individually and collaboratively, and did not consider the paired relationship as a replacement for their responsibilities as mentor teachers.

The findings in this study are evidence of what occurs in a paired teaching placement where the mentor teacher and student teachers are not receptive to the collaborative relationship. From the start, Kay was uncertain about her responsibilities as the mentor teacher. Kay felt that

the paired experience diminished the need for traditional mentor roles. According to Kay, paired student teaching allowed Eleanor and Jamie opportunities to support one another because they regularly collaborated and reflected upon lessons (Interview, 22 October 2009). As a result, she was content with reviewing lesson plans after they were completed rather than participate in the development of lessons. Kay admittedly did not initiate collaborative conversations with the student teachers. However, the failure to enact a collaborative mentor-mentee relationship is not one-sided.

As I previously noted, Eleanor suggested it was Kay's responsibility to initiate conversations. In the final interview, she argued, "if [Kay] had started them, they would have been a lot more insightful between the two of us or the three of us, but we were left to our devices to plan" (Interview, 8 February 2010). Yet, in the midst of student teaching Eleanor and Jamie did not reach out to Kay for assistance. All three individuals noted that Kay provided Eleanor and Jamie with her lesson plans at the beginning of the semester. Although Eleanor and Jamie regularly used these lesson plans throughout the semester, they made no mention of any conversations with Kay to make sense of what she had provided to them. Instead, many of their lesson plans were completed before Kay had an opportunity to participate in the planning stages of lessons, if she had any such desire to participate. As such, a potentially powerful relationship between mentor teacher and student teachers was reduced to feelings of animosity for the paired teachers and non-involvement for the mentor.

The challenges experienced within the mentor-mentee relationship in this study go beyond the absence of a collaborative relationship between Kay and the student teachers. This research also speaks to the failure to communicate across differences. Although Kay's discourse matched the discourse promoted in the social studies program; she did not live this discourse in

her interactions with the student teachers. Eleanor and Jamie mentioned at several points in the study that Kay knew the goals and expectations of the social studies program; but that she did not consider them realistic in the classroom (Jamie Interview, 21 October 2009; Eleanor Interview, 8 February 2010). The student teachers had expected a placement with a mentor teacher who valued and practiced the vision of teaching and learning held by the social studies program. In reality, they were placed with a mentor teacher who valued the ideas expressed within the vision but did not see the applicability of the vision to the classroom.

The student teachers found it difficult to move past this difference. They worked within the instructional framework Kay expected. They completed lesson preparation when Kay could not be involved. Yet, at no point did they engage Kay in conversations about why she considered the goals of the program unrealistic. Instead, they lamented the experience and their inability to fully enact into practice what was learned in their social studies coursework. In one student teaching seminar meeting, Jamie noted: "A lot of the things I'm learning in [seminar] I can't put into practice right now because I'm not able to" (Seminar, 16 September 2009). The student teachers made similar statements in each post-observation meeting with the university supervisor. Cliff would often provide the student teachers with alternative approaches to the lesson observed, only to have the student teachers inform him of their inability to enact the idea into practice because Kay would not allow such an alteration.

Rather than look to their own inexperience as educators or the influence of the larger school culture on instructional decision-making, Eleanor and Jamie attributed their inability to enact their vision of teaching to Kay. For instance, Jamie felt constrained by the instructional schedule Kay required each day of a daily question, mini-lesson, activity, and closing assignment. This instructional schedule is an expectation of many schools in the areas that

surround Southeastern State University. Perhaps the use of this schedule was an expectation the school administration placed upon Kay and not a schedule Kay herself necessarily valued. The student teachers were quick to condemn practices different than those they learned in the social studies program. However, they did not seek to make sense of these differences, and perhaps this speaks to a limitation of the preservice preparation experience. There was a definite failure to communicate across the differences that separated the school environment the student teachers experienced and the expectations set forth within the university coursework.

This research paints a complicated picture of the work of teacher education. Specifically, the enactment of paired student teaching as an alternative to traditional student teaching does not guarantee that what preservice teachers learn in university coursework will necessarily translate into practice during student teaching. Through the lens of enacted coherence (Dinkelman, 2010), this research highlights the influence individual, *lived* participant experiences have on the learning and integration of the vision of teacher education program. The biographies, interactions, and experiences of each individual inevitably determines the extent to which the "actual experiences of a teacher education program fit together across time and settings and work toward program aims" (Dinkelman, 2010, p. 158).

In the end, a teacher education program is more than "frameworks and course sequences" as Dinkelman suggests (p. 158). It is the sum of the experiences of those involved in the preparation of preservice teachers, from field-based teacher educators to preservice teachers themselves. As I discuss in the following section, further investigations of the lived experiences of a teacher education program are needed. For too long, the research of teacher education programs has relied on program-level case studies focused on document evaluation and single interviews and observations. Perhaps a principle implication of this study is that it continues the

recent trend of research that moves beyond the design or visions of a teacher education program to how students experience a program (e.g., Cuenca et al., in press; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Dinkelman, 2010; Dinkelman et al., 2009). With the acknowledged perception that teacher education is a "black box" (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Dinkelman et al., 2009), investigations such as this can only provide more insight into how preservice teachers are prepared.

<div align="center">Limitations and Future Research Directions</div>

In this study, I investigated the opportunities and challenges paired student teaching provided for coherence. In Chapter Five, I described several such opportunities and challenges. For Eleanor and Jamie, participation in paired student teaching reinforced several aspects of the social studies program's vision for teaching and learning, namely collaborative inquiry and reflective practice. However, Eleanor and Jamie found that paired student teaching left them with something less than a full understanding of other core tenets of the vision of effective teaching promoted by the program, namely active student engagement, culturally responsive and equitable instruction, and rationale-based practice. In this sense, paired student teaching yielded mixed results as an innovation intended to create openings for the further exploration of the standards that framed the social studies teacher education program at Southeastern State University. The findings in Chapter Five suggest that alternative models of student teaching are not a panacea for the problems that confront field-based teacher education. Instead, these findings suggest that teacher education programs should devote considerable attention to the selection and preparation of mentor teachers and university supervisors to achieve coherence.

However, several limitations temper the potential impact of these findings. These limitations are primarily the result of pre-determined boundaries of the research. Despite these limitations, various opportunities for future research emerged from this study. Some of these

opportunities include longitudinal case studies of those who inhabit coherent programs and the study of paired teaching through existing teacher learning theories that support student teaching. In the following sections, I discuss the limitations of this study and future directions in paired student teaching and program coherence research. I begin with the limitations of this research.

Limitations of the Research

Limitations of this study are the result of pre-determined boundaries of the research. Specifically, this research lacked comparative cases, investigated only the student teaching semester, and based findings off a small number of field observations. A study focused on one semester of a teacher education program creates certain constraints in the investigation of coherent program experiences. Coherence suggests that the experiences of preservice teachers in coursework and fieldwork connect over time. What students learn throughout a program influences what and how they teach in student teaching and into the first years in the classroom. However, with a study focused on the student teaching semester, the only data I collected from previous coursework were course syllabi and interviews with course instructors. A review of course syllabi and interviews with instructors can provide only so much data about the enactment of the core themes throughout the program and how preservice teachers interpret those themes. Additionally, I did not follow Eleanor and Jamie into the first year of teaching to determine how their program learning and participation in paired student teaching reflected in practice. This was an unknown influence that several research participants questioned. For instance, Kay wondered in the second interview about the influence of paired teaching on later practice: "I think to have a real idea of paired teaching and its effects, I would want to see their first year of teaching and ask them how it went" (Interview, 22 October 2009).

Instead, this study served as a 'snapshot' of their experiences at one point in the program. As a result, several questions were left unanswered:

- How did previous course instructors enact the core themes into practice?

- What influenced Eleanor and Jamie's interpretations of the core themes in earlier coursework?

- Did Eleanor and Jamie continue to engage in collaboration and reflection in their first years of teaching?

- If so, how much of this practice did they attribute to participation in paired student teaching?

A study that considered these questions might shed additional light on how paired teaching promotes coherence. However, a longitudinal study of paired student teaching without comparative cases is inherently limited to an extent about what it might reveal about the intersection of paired student teaching and coherence.

Prior research on paired student teaching has used comparative case analysis. Several of these studies provide comparative accounts of multiple paired placements (Gardiner, 2010; Nokes et al., 2008; Smith, 2002). Other researchers chose to explore the differences between paired and traditional student teaching experiences (Baker & Milner, 2006; Bullough et al., 2002, 2003). Researchers found through these comparative investigations that paired teaching promoted emotional support, collaboration, and experimentation while traditional placements replicated the isolation preservice teachers often experience in schools.

In this study, I focused on one paired student teaching placement. As such, there was a lack of external validity. In my analysis I was careful not to extend my findings past the case and program at hand. As Stake (2005) notes, "researchers don't want to be inaccurate, caught without

confirmation" (p. 453). The use of multiple data sources, member checks, and peer examinations provided internal validity (Merriam, 1998; Stake, 2005). However, the lack of comparative cases left me to wonder:

- Do other paired teachers value collaborative inquiry and reflective practice like Eleanor and Jamie?

- Do other paired teachers experience difficulty with the implementation of active student engagement, culturally responsive instruction, and rationale-based practice?

- How do other mentors and supervisors respond to the paired teaching experience and the enactment of program goals?

- How do other mentors and supervisors conceptualize their roles and responsibilities? And, how do these conceptualizations influence paired student teachers' understanding and interpretation of program goals?

The exploration of such questions would allow a researcher to gain greater understanding of paired student teaching and the opportunities and challenges experienced in the search for coherence.

Finally, my investigations into the school-based contexts and experiences were limited to six-day long observations. Two of these observations occurred on days Cliff completed his field observations of Eleanor and Jamie. With a twelve-week student teaching experience, six days of observations accounted for 10% of the days Eleanor and Jamie taught. However, several of these observations occurred within close proximity of one another. As a result, there were moments in this research where I did not observe Eleanor and Jamie for several weeks. An increased number of observations may have provided me with more opportunities to observe the interactions between Kay and the student teachers. There were few interactions between Kay and the student

teachers on the days Cliff or I were present. On these days, the interactions included brief

moments of feedback or Kay's foray into classroom discipline. As such, we did not bear witness

to the concerns Eleanor and Jamie raised about Kay as a mentor. Consequently, I had to base my

findings on the various data sources in which Eleanor, Jamie, and Cliff expressed their concerns

about Kay. However, there is the possibility that Eleanor and Jamie may have positioned

themselves as victims of an oppressive environment, and found in Kay a convenient explanation

for their limited success in working with the program goals into their student teaching classroom.

Cliff considered this possibility in the second and third interviews when he suggested that some

of the student teachers' complaints could well be "scapegoating" (Interviews, 19 October 2009;

30 January 2010). This possibility opened several avenues of inquiry, which I discuss in the

following section. With these limitations in mind I turn to future research directions in paired

student teaching.

Future Directions in Paired Student Teaching Research

The research on paired student teaching reveals certain known qualities about the paired

student teaching experience. In particular, paired student teaching is a tool used to promote the

professional goals of continued collaboration and reflective teaching (e.g., Bullough et al., 2002,

2003; Nokes et al., 2008). Although preservice teachers value the collaborative experience, they

routinely perceive the paired experience as 'artificial' (Birrell & Bullough, 2005; Bullough et al.,

2010). Because paired teaching is not widely practiced, or at the very least not extensively

researched, much of what is known about paired teaching is the result of large-scale mixed-

method studies (e.g., Birrell & Bullough, 2005; Bullough et al., 2002, 2003; Smith, 2002).

Beyond this study, little research has followed small groups of paired teachers throughout

the student teaching experience (e.g., Butler et al., 2010; Goodnough et al., 2009). The existing

research consists primarily of survey data and periodic interviews with paired student teachers and mentor teachers. Ideally, future research of paired student teaching would continue to examine the paired experience through case studies of paired teachers, mentors, and supervisors. Additionally, action research and self-studies into paired student teaching supervision and mentoring would add new perspectives to the limited research on paired student teaching mentoring and supervision.

Additionally, research has persistently ignored the influence of university supervisors in paired student teacher development. In my review of literature, this study and a previous study I conducted (Butler et al., 2010) stood out as the only studies to consider the university supervisor's role in a paired teaching experience. These studies have exposed the challenges university-based teacher educators face when they supervise paired student teachers. University supervisors already have a limited presence in the school classroom. They are not present in the classroom when preservice teachers plan lessons and only periodically observe instruction. Supervisors therefore have limited knowledge of how paired teachers prepare for observations. The collaborative environment also creates difficulty for university supervisors as they attempt to decipher the strengths and weaknesses of individual student teachers. These two studies have described how individual supervisors distinguish between the work of paired student teachers. However, the research on paired teaching supervision is still in its infancy. As such, additional research is needed that more fully investigates the challenges university supervisors confront in a paired student teaching experience. Such studies might investigate the varied approaches university supervisors' use to structure the paired experience and assess paired student teachers.

As well, this case study of paired student teaching addresses another important gap in the literature. My review of research found no other study that considers how personal biography or

previous university and school-based experiences influence paired teacher practice. Previous

research provided accounts of paired student teaching that were disconnected from how teacher

educators currently theorize teacher development (Darling-Hammond, 2005; Feiman-Nemser,

2008). In other words, what influenced paired teachers in previous studies was limited to their

interactions with other paired teachers and mentor teachers (e.g., Baker & Milner, 2006;

Bullough et al., 2002, 2003; Nokes et al., 2008). Future research on paired student teaching

should move beyond a focus on the mentor-student teacher relationship and consider influences

on preservice teacher development (i.e., the "apprenticeship of observation," school-based

contexts, university-based contexts). Research that examines other influences on paired student

teaching may yield increased understanding of paired student teaching within current theories of

teacher development.

Finally, future research should consider paired teaching through specific theories of

student teaching. In particular, researchers might examine paired student teaching through

positioning theory (Bullough & Draper, 2004; Harre & van Langenhove, 1999) and triad theory

(Simmel, 1950; Veal & Rikard, 1998; Yee, 1968). Positioning theory "offers a way for

conceptualizing relationships and for portraying the play of power in role negotiation" (Bullough

& Draper, 2004, p. 408). According to Harre and van Langenhove (1999), positioning theory

frames how individuals conceive their place within relationships and how those relationships

develop over time. How individuals position themselves depends on a co-construction of

"personal stories that make a person's actions intelligible and relatively determinate as social

acts" (Harre & van Langenhove, 1999, p. 17). A set of research questions for paired teaching and

positioning theory might include the following: Does participation in paired student teaching

alter how preservice teachers position themselves in relation to the mentor teacher and university supervisor?

Triad theory also considers the relationships that emerge in a student teaching experience. But triad theory differs from positioning theory in that it attempts to explain the relational failures often observed within the student teaching experience. Triad theory argues that hierarchal relationships, conflict, and coalitions emerge naturally among the three 'individuals' or 'places' within the triad. Student teachers and mentor teachers form the most consistent coalition in the triad theory literature (Veal & Rikard, 1998; Yee, 1968). University supervisors have the least amount of contact with the other triad members and maintain the role of outsider (Slick, 1997). The implementation of paired teaching alters the dynamic of the student teaching triad in that it shifts some power to the two student teachers. As such, future research might examine paired student teaching for how it mitigates or increases the presence of hierarchical relationships, conflict, and coalitions often found in traditional student teaching experiences. Now that I have discussed the potential for paired student teaching research, I turn to the needed research on program coherence.

Future Directions in the Research on Program Coherence

The research on program coherence reveals certain known qualities about effective teacher education programs. In particular, coherence is well considered through three conceptions of coherence – structural, conceptual, and enacted (e.g., Barnes, 1987; Dinkelman, 2010; Feiman-Nemser, 1990, 2001; Russell et al., 2001). Additionally, researchers have shared case studies that describe the physical characteristics of various effective teacher education programs (e.g., Darling-Hammond, 2006; Hammerness, 2006; Howey & Zimpher, 1989; Graber, 1996). However, with such a limited literature base there are various directions researchers might

consider as they undertake future studies of program coherence. I will consider two such directions: 1) continued explorations of program attributes, and 2) longitudinal case studies of preservice teachers in effective teacher education programs.

As noted previously, the existing coherence literature has focused on descriptive accounts of individual teacher education programs. As a result, no common framework exists for how successful programs achieve success. The attributes I described in Chapter Two are meant to serve as a first step toward the creation of that common framework of coherent programs. This is not to say the attributes detailed in this study are definitive interpretations of what makes programs coherent. Nor do I suggest that other researchers and teacher educators consider these attributes as they design or research teacher education programs. Howey and Zimpher (1989) perhaps best summarize the difficulty in creating a definitive set of attributes when they note: "Just as no simple formula is found for designing elementary and secondary schools that are more effective than others, no simple formula is found for designing programs of teacher preparation that might differentiate themselves as more effective than others" (p. 254). Accordingly, the attributes presented in this study are the product of one interpretation of the currently available research on program coherence. They are not meant to eliminate the need for future examinations of attributes of coherent teacher education programs.

Researchers interested in the attributes of effective teacher education programs should continue to analyze the findings of prior research that examine the various features of teacher preparation programs. These same researchers might use their interpretations of coherent attributes to study either their own programs or programs described as effective preparation programs. If the field is to generate anything resembling a coordinated program of scholarship on coherence in teacher education programs, it will be important to link future studies of program

features and process to those described in this study or any other study already present in the program coherence literature. That is, if teacher educators are interested in moving program coherence research forward rather than continuing to produce piece meal accounts of programs, attention must be given to program feature evaluation linked to analytical tools such as those detailed in this research.

Further research is needed that explores the *lived* experiences of preservice teachers throughout a program. Of the research reviewed, two sets of studies have documented student and/or faculty experiences over the course of an academic year (Cuenca et al., in press; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Dinkelman, 2010; Dinkelman et al., 2009). One additional study documents several years of program development (Hammerness, 2006). The research from Southeastern State University studied a teacher educator seminar known as ESOC 9700 on a bi-weekly basis over one year (Cuenca et al., in press; Dinkelman, 2010; Dinkelman et al., 2009). However, these studies focused only the voices of the teacher educators involved in program implementation and did not take into consideration the preservice teachers they taught. One such model of a more extensive approach to studying program coherence is found in the extensive case studies of seven teacher education programs Darling-Hammond (2006) analyzed programs across an entire academic year through a data collection process that included: 1) document reviews; 2) interviews with teacher educators, students, and mentor teachers; and 3) observations of faculty meetings, university course instruction, and student teaching instruction. Additionally, Darling-Hammond and her research team interviewed and observed inservice teachers who had previously graduated from the programs under study.

Other program coherence research has relied largely on data collection procedures that included a small number of observations, interviews, or surveys (e.g., Grossman et al., 2008;

Howey & Zimpher, 1989). What is missing from the coherence literature are investigations of how preservice teachers inhabit a teacher education program from the moment of entry through graduation and into the first years of teaching. Additional research can continue to explore preservice teachers' experiences across an academic year or even one semester such as the student teaching experience in this study. However, such investigations are limited in that they do not take into consideration preservice teacher experiences as a whole. Instead, the research would focus on a specific set of experiences and add only partial insight into the programmatic experiences of preservice teachers. As such, future research is needed that considers the experiences of preservice teachers at the following stages: 1) prior to their engagement with teacher education faculty and coursework; 2) the evolution of their thinking about teaching in university coursework; and 3) the influence of fieldwork on their thinking about teaching. Researchers cannot complete program case studies through single interviews or observations and large numbers of preservice teacher participants. Instead, such studies require researchers to regularly observe preservice teachers in fieldwork and coursework from entry to completion of a program. These investigations require small numbers of preservice teacher participants. However, such research would provide new perspectives of program coherence that are lacking.

Finally, research is needed that follows the same preservice teachers into the first years of teaching (Grossman, Valencia, Evans, et al., 2000). Teacher education has a long history of criticism from teachers, the public, and politicians. These criticisms have only intensified the past few decades (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Goodlad, 1990; Holmes Group, 1986). Various proposals for the evaluation or reorganization of teacher education have emerged. In 2009, Louisiana became the first state to use student test scores to evaluate teachers and the teacher education programs that prepared them (Anderson, 2009). In an era of calls for increased

accountability for teacher education program, educational researchers would do well to counter such questionable means of program evaluation with rigorous inquiry that takes a more meaningful approach to tracing the influence of different models of teacher preparation. At the same time researchers examine the impact program graduates have on student achievement, they might also study how those graduates use what was learned in teacher education. Both teacher education programs and the research conducted on them have a stake in responding to the increasing cacophony of critique and the onslaught of the current accountability movement. Questions remain of what form this response will entail. Program coherence suggests one possible productive avenue. The influence of teacher education programs on the first years of teaching is another. Pursuing this agenda may serve to not only help teacher education programs defend their practices within the American educational system, but more importantly, the results could extend to improved teaching and learning and better educational opportunities for all.

Conclusion

The current reality of field-based teacher education poses real challenges for those interested in powerful teacher education. The current reality also presents rich potential. For the most part, teacher education programs provide traditional student teaching experiences that do little to "promote experimentation, reflection, [or] active decision making among preservice teachers" (Goodman, 1998, p. 50). There is hope, however. This study is one example among many of teacher education programs that challenge the status quo of traditional teacher education (e.g., Bullough et al., 2002, 2003, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Hammerness, 2006). These programs confront the shortcomings of traditional field experiences in many ways. Alternative student teaching experiences such as professional development schools, co-teaching, peer coaching, and paired student teaching directly challenge the notion that learning to teach is an

inherently non-collaborative, individualized, and isolating undertaking. These sorts of reforms are part of a broader reform agenda pursued by programs that seek to provide coherent educational experiences for their students. Coherent field experiences reinforce student learning in school settings by linking the work of those who supervise preservice teachers to the learning that takes place in university-based coursework. All of these different approaches to traditional preparation share a common goal – to ensure that teacher education matters.

Even as traditional student teaching stands apart as a disconnected feature of teacher education programs, many preservice teachers will continue to regard student teaching as the most influential aspect of preservice training experience (e.g., Britzman, 2003; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1985, 1987). However, these traditional field experiences generally provide preservice teachers with few opportunities to "think pedagogically, reason through dilemmas, investigate problems, and analyze student learning to develop appropriate curriculum for a diverse group of learners" (Hammerness & Darling-Hammond, 2005, p. 392). As such, absent reform, the concern that what is learned in teacher education is not realistic for the classroom is likely to persist. The student teaching experience for many preservice teachers becomes a 'sink or swim' endeavor in which they give into the 'daily grind' of school-based experiences (Britzman, 2003; Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1985, 1987). However, this study has shown that an alternative model of student teaching – paired teaching – does have the potential to reinforce alternative perspectives about teaching and work against the fall back position of 'sink or swim.'

Even though the paired student teachers in this study fell short of making use of this innovative model to fully explore and experiment with every aspect of the vision of powerful teaching promoted by their teacher education program, the paired student teaching experience

allowed these teachers to value and learn more about certain aspects of that vision. Alternative models such as paired student teaching may provide increased opportunities for a more coherent lived experience of teacher education, but only when implemented with care. As this research reveals, the sheer complexity of the many features of teacher education and how they work together mean that innovation on one front often raises further questions raised by my exploration of paired student teaching and program coherence spark further inquiry into increasingly powerful, meaningful, and effective teacher education.

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APPENDICES

A − Initial Interview Protocols for Primary Participants

B − Interview Protocols for Secondary Participants

C − SURGE Framework

APPENDIX A

Initial Interview Protocols for Primary Participants

<u>Paired Student Teacher Interview Protocol – First Interview</u>

Pretraining Experiences

- Share some information about yourself. When were you born? Where did you grow up?

- Where did you go to school for elementary school? Secondary school? Describe these schools.

- What are some experiences from your days as a student that remain strong in your mind?

- Describe your favorite teacher. Why was this individual your least favorite teacher?

- Describe your least favorite teacher. Why was this individual your least favorite teacher?

- What type of student were you in school? How did you learn best?

- What were your experiences in college before entering the social studies education program? What coursework did you take? What types of instructors did you have in these courses? What did you get out of these experiences?

- Why did you want to be a teacher? Were there any experiences during school or college that pushed you toward teaching?

- Why did you want to be a social studies teacher?

Teacher Education Experiences

- You are currently in the midst of student teaching, the culmination of your experiences within the social studies education program. To this point, describe your experiences within the social studies program?

- What coursework have you completed in preparation for student teaching?

- What benefits or negatives were taken from each of the courses? How did they prepare you for teaching?

- Describe your overall perception of the social studies program?

Program Core Themes

- I would like to now move to the goals of the social studies education program. There are five themes at the core of the program. I'm going to read each theme in turn and I want you to share what you think these themes mean to you. The themes are:
  a. Use knowledge of social, linguistic, and cultural diversity to create an equitable and culturally responsible classroom.
  b. Organize classroom experiences to promote active student engagement in the pursuit of worthwhile learning.
  c. Articulate clear and defensible rationales for curricular and instructional decision-making.
  d. Systematically reflect on their own practice to improve teaching and learning.
  e. Engage in collaborative inquiry.

- How do you think these themes are reflected in the practice of teachers?

- How do you think these themes are reflected in your practice as a student teacher?

- Through your experiences in the social studies education program, what have been your experiences with these themes? Where in your coursework have you been asked to consider these themes, or to implement them into practice?

- Do you think these themes were a consideration of your instructors as they planned the courses you took as a student? Where could you see these themes represented in your courses? Where were they absent?

Expectations for Student Teaching and Paired Student Teaching

- As you begin student teaching, what are some expectations you have for the experience?

- What are some expectations you have for working with another student teacher (i.e., the tandem experience)?

- As you begin to experience paired student teaching, what are some thoughts you've had about the structure of the experience? The purpose? Your hopeful outcome?

- How do you see your relationship working with your cooperating teacher? What expectations do you have for your cooperating teacher's assistance in your development?

- How do you see your relationship working with your university supervisor? What expectations do you have for university supervisor's assistance in your development?

- What purpose do you see for the student teaching seminar in your growth as a teacher? What do you hope to learn from your experiences in seminar?

- During the semester you will participate in a seminar breakout sessions with your university supervisor and other student teachers the supervisor instructs. What purpose do you see for this space? What do you to learn from your experiences in the breakout sessions?

University Supervisor Interview Protocol – First Interview

Pretraining Experiences

- Share some information about yourself. When were you born? Where did you grow up?

- Where did you go to school for elementary school? Secondary school? Describe these schools.

- What are some experiences from your days as a student that remain strong in your mind?

- Describe your favorite teacher. Why was this individual your least favorite teacher?

- Describe your least favorite teacher. Why was this individual your least favorite teacher?

- What type of student were you in school? How did you learn best?

College & Teacher Education Experiences

- What were your experiences in college before entering a teacher education program? What coursework did you take? What types of instructors did you have in these courses? What did you get out of these experiences?

- Why did you want to be a teacher? Were there any experiences during school or college that pushed you toward teaching?

- Why did you want to be a social studies teacher?

- Describe your teacher education program, coursework, and your experiences as a student and student teacher.

Teaching

- How would you describe yourself as a teacher?

- What responsibilities do you see yourself holding in the classroom? What responsibilities do you see students having?

- What do you see as the purpose of social studies? How do you get this across to students?

- Describe the typical day of teaching for you.

Experiences with the Social Studies Education Program

- What knowledge do you have of the social studied education program?

- Describe your overall perception of the social studies program?

- Describe your experiences as a doctoral student and graduate teaching assistant in the social studies program?

Program Core Themes

- I would like to now move to the goals of the social studies education program. There are five themes at the core of the program. I'm going to read each theme in turn and I want you to share what you think these themes mean to you. The themes are:
  a. Use knowledge of social, linguistic, and cultural diversity to create an equitable and culturally responsible classroom.
  b. Organize classroom experiences to promote active student engagement in the pursuit of worthwhile learning.
  c. Articulate clear and defensible rationales for curricular and instructional decision-making.
  d. Systematically reflect on their own practice to improve teaching and learning.
  e. Engage in collaborative inquiry.

- How do you think these themes are reflected in the practice of teachers?

- How do you think these themes are reflected in your practice as a teacher?

- Through your familiarity with the social studies education program, what have been your experiences with these themes?

Expectations for Student Teaching and Paired Teaching

- As you begin supervising student teachers, what are some expectations you have for the experience?

- What previous experiences do you have mentoring or supervising student teachers? How do these influence your current approach to supervision?

- What purpose do you see for student teaching?

- What are some expectations you have for working with paired student teachers?

- As you begin to experience paired student teaching, what are some thoughts you've had about the structure of the experience? The purpose? Your hopeful outcome?

- How do you perceive your role as a university supervisor? What purpose do you see in the assistance you provide student teachers?

- How do you see your relationship working with cooperating teachers? What purpose do you see for the cooperating position?

- What do you hope to get out of the student teaching breakout sessions? What purpose do you see for these sessions?

Mentor Teacher Interview Protocol – First Interview

Pretraining Experiences

- Share some information about yourself. When were you born? Where did you grow up?

- Where did you go to school for elementary school? Secondary school? Describe these schools.

- What are some experiences from your days as a student that remain strong in your mind?

- Describe your favorite teacher. Why was this individual your least favorite teacher?

- Describe your least favorite teacher. Why was this individual your least favorite teacher?

- What type of student were you in school? How did you learn best?

Teacher Education Experiences

- What were your experiences in college before entering a teacher education program? What coursework did you take? What types of instructors did you have in these courses? What did you get out of these experiences?

- Why did you want to be a teacher? Were there any experiences during school or college that pushed you toward teaching?

- Why did you want to be a social studies teacher?

- Describe your teacher education program, coursework, and your experiences as a student and student teacher.

Teaching

- How would you describe yourself as a teacher?

- What responsibilities do you see yourself holding in the classroom? What responsibilities do you see students having?

- What do you see as the purpose of social studies? How do you get this across to students?

- Describe the typical day of teaching for you.

Experiences with the Social Studies Education Program

- What knowledge do you have of the social studied education program?

- Describe your overall perception of the social studies program?

Program Core Themes

- I would like to now move to the goals of the social studies education program. There are five themes at the core of the program. I'm going to read each theme in turn and I want you to share what you think these themes mean to you. The themes are:
  a. Use knowledge of social, linguistic, and cultural diversity to create an equitable and culturally responsible classroom.
  b. Organize classroom experiences to promote active student engagement in the pursuit of worthwhile learning.
  c. Articulate clear and defensible rationales for curricular and instructional decision-making.
  d. Systematically reflect on their own practice to improve teaching and learning.
  e. Engage in collaborative inquiry.

- How do you think these themes are reflected in the practice of teachers?

- How do you think these themes are reflected in your practice as a teacher?

- Through your familiarity with the social studies education program, what have been your experiences with these themes?

Expectations for Student Teaching and Paired Teaching

- As you begin mentoring student teachers, what are some expectations you have for the experience?

- What previous experiences do you have mentoring student teachers? How do these influence your current approach to mentoring?

- What purpose do you see for student teaching?

- What are some expectations you have for working with tandem student teachers?

- As you begin to experience paired student teaching, what are some thoughts you've had about the structure of the experience? The purpose? Your hopeful outcome?

- How do you perceive your role as a cooperating teacher? What purpose do you see in the assistance you provide student teachers?

- How do you see your relationship working with your university supervisor? What purpose do you see for the university supervisor position?

APPENDIX B

Interview Protocols for Secondary Participants

Course Instructor Interview Protocol – First Interview

- I would like to begin by discussing the ESOC course you taught in Spring 2009, [insert course title and name here]. Can you describe your purpose for your course?

- How was your purpose reflect the design of your course?

- Where did your course fit within the structure of the program? In the preparation of the preservice teacher?

- There are currently five themes at the core of the program. I'm going to read each theme in turn and I want you to share what you think these themes mean to you and the program. The themes are:
  a. Use knowledge of social, linguistic, and cultural diversity to create an equitable and culturally responsive classroom.
  b. Organize classroom experiences to promote active student engagement in the pursuit of worthwhile learning.
  c. Articulate clear and defensible rationales for curricular and instructional decision-making.
  d. Systematically reflect on their own practice to improve teaching and learning.
  e. Engage in collaborative inquiry.

- How would you see each of these goals in a teacher's practice?

- What place have these goals had in your teaching of your course?

- What are some examples from your practice in your course that would show an implementation of these goals into practice?

- If you were to watch students from your course student teaching, what would you see that would indicate that your course impacted their thinking about teaching social studies?

Program Coordinator/Seminar Instructor Interview Protocol – First Interview

Program Core Themes – Program Coordinator Questions

- I would like to begin by discussing the goals of the social studies education program. There are five themes at the core of the program. I'm going to read each theme in turn and I want you to share what you think these themes mean to you and the program. The themes are:
  a. Use knowledge of social, linguistic, and cultural diversity to create an equitable and culturally responsible classroom.
  b. Organize classroom experiences to promote active student engagement in the pursuit of worthwhile learning.
  c. Articulate clear and defensible rationales for curricular and instructional decision-making.
  d. Systematically reflect on their own practice to improve teaching and learning.
  e. Engage in collaborative inquiry.

- How do you think these themes are reflected in the practice of teachers?

- Through your familiarity with the social studies education program, what have been your experiences with these themes? Are graduate teaching assistants and faculty understanding of these themes? Are students understanding of these themes?

- How do you see these themes playing across the various coursework and experiences that a student within the program has?

- How successful are the individuals within the program in implementing these themes into their practice?

- How have you used these themes to promote coherence within the social studies program?

- What practices have you implemented in attempting coherence within the social studies program?

Expectations for Student Teaching and Paired Teaching – Seminar Instructor Questions

- As you begin instructing the student teaching seminar, what are some expectations you have for the class?

- What previous experiences do you have in teaching the seminar? How do these influence your current approach to the class?

- How do you structure the student teaching seminar? What purpose do you have for this structure?

- Where are the program core themes situated within the seminar? How do you confront these themes in your teaching?

- What purpose do you see for student teaching?

- What are some expectations you have for tandem student teachers?

- As you continuously experience the paired student teaching model, what are some thoughts you've had about the structure of the experience? The purpose? Your hopeful outcome?

- How do you perceive the role of university supervisor? What purpose do you see in the assistance they provide student teachers?

- How do you perceive the role of cooperating teachers? What purpose do you see in the assistance they provide student teachers?

- What do you hope to get out of the student teaching breakout sessions? What purpose do you see for these sessions?

APPENDIX C

SURGE Framework

Social Studies Education Preservice Framework for Accomplished Teaching (SSEPFAT)
aka SURGE
aka Secondary (Initial Certification) Program Framework

The following table represents a sort of "road map" of the Program. The standards listed in this table are the expectations Program faculty hold as learning outcomes for preservice teachers in Social Studies Education. The various semesters of the curriculum are organized with reference to the principle objectives for each. An "x" in any cell indicates that a particular course or set of courses and fieldwork is charged with helping preservice teachers accomplish a particular learning outcome. The absence of an "x" does mean that those learning outcomes will not be addressed in a particular semester. Rather, the table indicates primary emphases.

**denotes Core Themes of the Program

	Content Area	Fndtns & Ed Psych	ESOC 2450/2450L	Methods/ Curric Block			Student Teaching Block	
Accomplished preservice social studies teachers….				4/6350 Curr	4/6360 Meth	4450 L Prac/ Sem	5460 ST	5/7560 Seminar
SSEPFAT 1: Content and Curriculum								
1) demonstrate understanding of foundations, aims, and practices of social studies education and their relationship to democracy		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
1b) demonstrate knowledge of content and modes of inquiry that are central to the subjects they teach	X			X			X	X

1c) help students to make interdisciplinary connections			X	X		X	X
1d) interpret and create curriculum that reflects state, local, and national content standards			X	X		X	X
SSEPFAT 2: Knowledge of Students and their Learning							
2a) demonstrate that all students can learn at high levels by providing supportive and challenging learning experiences for all students	X	X			X	X	X
2b) demonstrate understanding of how students learn	X				X	X	X
2c) respect and are responsive to students as whole people	X	X			X	X	X
2d) design instruction that adapts to students' development, learning styles, and areas of exceptionality	X	X			X	X	X
SSEPFAT 3: Learning Environments							
**3a) use knowledge of social, linguistic, and cultural diversity to create and equitable and culturally responsive classroom	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
3b) create democratic learning communities characterized by collaboration, mutual support, and shared decision-making			X	X		X	X
**3c) organize classroom experiences to promote active student engagement in the pursuit of worthwhile learning		X	X	X	X	X	X
3d) manage classrooms effectively to promote student learning and safety					X	X	X
3e) draw on parent, school, district, and community resources to foster students' learning and well-being			X	X		X	X
SSEPFAT 4: Assessment							
4a) employ different types of assessments based on knowledge of their characteristics, uses, and	X		X			X	X

limitations to promote student growth								
4b) use pre-assessment data to develop and support appropriate student learning goals				X			X	X
4c) implement assessments that match instructional goals				X			X	X
4d) involve students in self-assessment to help them develop awareness of their strengths and needs as learners				X			X	X
4e) develop and use valid, equitable grading procedures				X			X	X
SSEPFAT 5: Planning and Instruction								
**5a) articulate clear and defensible rationales for curricular and instructional decision-making			X	X	X	X	X	X
5b) develop and implement short and long-term instructional plans that progress coherently toward learning goals				X	X		X	X
5c) vary their instructional roles (e.g., instructor, facilitator, audience), instructional strategies and materials to support active student engagement in worthwhile learning for all students					X		X	X
5d) adjust instruction appropriately according to student response				X	X		X	X
SSEPFAT 6: Professionalism								
**6a) systematically reflect on their own practice to improve teaching and learning			X	X	X	X	X	X
**6b) engage in collaborative inquiry			X	X	X	X	X	X
6c) advocates for teaching and learning that support equity and high expectations for all students		X				X	X	X
6d) examine and further their knowledge of the history, ethics, social conditions, and practices of social studies and schooling		X				X	X	X

more broadly								
6e) adhere to appropriate professional expectations, codes of conduct, and laws related to rights and responsibilities of students, educators, and families in support of student learning			X			X	X	X