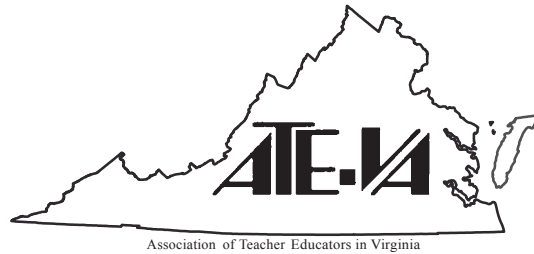


The Teacher Educators' Journal



A Journal of the Association of Teacher Educators - Virginia

Spring 2019
Volume 12

Editor:

Kelley Regan

kregan@gmu.edu

George Mason University

Co-Editors:

Malcolm Lively

blively@vwu.edu

Virginia Wesleyan University

William (Bill) McConnell

wmccconnell@vwu.edu

Virginia Wesleyan University



**Association of Teacher Educators
Virginia Association of Teacher Educators - Virginia**

President:

Trina Spencer
Virginia State University
Phone: (804) 534-6165
tspencer@vsu.edu

Executive Director:

Jane Huffman
University of Mary Washington
Phone: (540) 286-8117
Jhuffma2@umw.edu

President Elect:

Nancy Bradley
Ferrum College
Phone: (540) 365-4395
nbradley@ferrum.edu

Secretary:

Denise Johnson
College of William and Mary
Phone: (757) 221-1528
cdjohn@wm.edu

Treasurer:

Shandra Claiborne-Payton
Virginia State University
Phone: (804) 524-5196
sclaiborne@vsu.edu

Clinical Experiences:

Adria Hoffman
University of Virginia
Phone: (434) 243-3327
Arh3b@virginia.edu

Higher Education Delegate:

Andrew Cox
University of Virginia-Wise
Phone: (276) 376-4548
Pac4v@uvawise.edu

Higher Education Delegate:

Michelle Hughes
James Madison University
Phone: (540) 568-3862
hughesma@jmu.edu

Alternative Delegate:

Lisa Turissini
Marymount University
Phone: (703) 284-1668
lturissi@marymount.edu

Community College Representative:

Lori Killough
Lord Fairfax Community College
Phone: (540) 868-7239
llkillough@lfcc.edu

Journal Editor:

Kelley Regan
George Mason University
Phone: (703) 993-9858
kregan@gmu.edu

Journal Co-Editor

Malcolm Lively
Virginia Wesleyan University
Phone: (757) 455-3301
blively@vwu.edu

Journal Co-Editor

William (Bill) McConnell
Virginia Wesleyan University
Phone: (757) 455-3403
wmccconnell@vwu.edu

Webmaster:

Meredith McCool
Sweet Briar College
Phone: (434) 381-6546
mmccool@sbcc.edu

Copy Editor:

N/A

Spring 2019 Journal Reviewers:

Courtney Baker
Angelica Blanchette
Carmen Ruth Bosch
Arthur W. Bowman
Scott Bray
Mona Bryant-Shank
Deanna B. Cash
Michelle D. Cude
Janine Davis
Catherine Evandra
Diane Foucar-Szocki
Toya Jones Frank
Roberta Gentry
Holly Gould
Mindy Gumpert
Clara Hauth
Rachel Hammer
Robbie Higdon
Nancy Holincheck
Walt Mallory
Jenny Martin
Eric Moffa
Sarah A. Nagro
Judy Paulick
Lisa Pluska
Patricia Reynolds
Wendy Rodgers
Maria Stallions
Kianga Thomas
Tim Thomas
Lisa Turissin
Jennifer Walker

The Teacher Educators’ Journal

Published by the Association of Teacher Educators –Virginia

Table of Contents

Relational Response: Preservice Teachers Providing Writing Feedback in Three Middle School Partnerships.....	5
Working Toward Equity: A Framework for Exploring Racial and Ethnic Diversity in Teacher Education Programs.....	25
Integrating Biography-based Video in a Multiplatform Approach to Teach Historical Thinking	50
Learning to SURF: Teachers and Researchers Creating Partnerships for Success	73
Investigating the Experiences of First Year Early Childhood and Elementary Teachers: A Pilot Study	93
Preparing Trauma-Sensitive Teachers: Strategies for Teacher Educators.....	129

Relational Response: Preservice Teachers Providing Writing Feedback in Three Middle School Partnerships

Beth M. Lehman, PhD

Jenny M. Martin, PhD

Karen Santos Rogers, PhD

Bridgewater College

Abstract

Providing meaningful feedback to student writers is a nuanced, fully human endeavor. Thus, teaching preservice teachers, in all disciplines, to respond to students' writing is a complex task, one that requires intentional instruction and practice. In this article, we use practitioner inquiry to analyze our experiences and teaching approaches with preservice teachers who provided feedback to middle school writers through three public school partnerships. The partnerships employed varied modes of communication, including digital platforms, paper notebooks, letter writing, one-to-one tutoring, and face-to-face school visits. Response patterns suggest authentic experiences that explicitly teach and support writing practice spur the ability of preservice teachers in crafting relational, generative feedback to student writers while considering the affective experience.

Key words: feedback, writing, teacher education, affective learning

Two Paradoxes of Responding

First paradox: The reader is always right; the writer is always right...

Second paradox: The writer must be in charge; the writer must sit back quietly too.

Peter Elbow and Pat Belanoff in Sharing and Responding

The qualities of good writing are complex and nuanced. But they can be named, and I'm convinced they can be taught. Of all the arts, writing should be among the most democratic: all one needs is paper and a pen — and I would suggest, a teacher or two along the way who works to make the intangible tangible, so every student might know the joy of writing well.

Nancie Atwell in Lessons that Change Writers

For preservice teachers and veteran teachers alike, the task of responding to student writing can be daunting. Unlike many subjects taught in school, writing is more than the answer to a factual question or a measurement; writing is a heuristic approach to learning. Writing begins with an empty page or blank screen and is fully generated by the internal workings of a writer. Writing involves risk taking, making one feel vulnerable and exposed. Writers know this and so do preservice teachers. Thus, the work of responding to student writers often feels risky. It is a process that must be taught and practiced.

Responding effectively and humanely to student writing while building a relationship of trust, a process we dub relational response, is all the more fraught with uncertainty when preservice teachers themselves lack confidence as writers. We observe a typical pattern when discussing early literacy experiences with preservice teachers. Reading is often recalled with wistful nostalgia. Writing, by contrast, is often recalled with palpable stress, an activity rarely owned outside of school but, instead, controlled by the demands of teachers, a task to be done right. There are exceptions, of course, but the pattern is typical. The red pen haunts, and high-stakes tests loom large as preservice teachers begin to support and assess student writing.

Appreciating the complexities of learning to respond to student writing, we, Beth, Jenny, and Karen, each designed and implemented writing partnerships between preservice teachers and middle school students in semester-long relationships. These partnerships highlighted different aspects of responding to writers and employed varied modes of communication, including digital platforms, paper notebooks, letter writing, one-to-one tutoring, and face-to-face school visits. In this article, we use practitioner inquiry as a means to analyze experiences and teaching approaches designed to engage preservice teachers in providing feedback to middle school

writers through partnerships. Response patterns suggest authentic experiences and practice spur preservice teachers in crafting relational, generative feedback to student writers.

Background Literature

Responding to writing is, for many teachers, a primary activity with the goal of improving student understanding and performance. Research shows quality feedback from teachers is essential for student learning (Gamlen & Munthe, 2014; Koole & Elbers, 2014). Examinations of learning to write and providing effective feedback are plentiful. Writing process advocates Atwell (1987), Graves (1983), Elbow and Belanoff, (1999), and Elbow (2007) highlight the lingering problem of the teacher's red pen and the limiting power of the internal self-editor. Culham (2003, 2006) and Spandel (2000) provide insights on teaching traits of writing; nonetheless, we, as teacher educators, continue to wrestle with ways to teach preservice teachers the complex steps of responding effectively to student writing. Providing meaningful response to student writers is a nuanced, fully human endeavor that considers the writer and the functions of the written text. However, there is little evidence to suggest that direct instruction on how to give feedback to student writers is included into curricula for all teacher education licensure areas. What we do know is that meaningful experiences and feedback to student writing helps to develop a writer. Warner (2018), an accomplished writer and writing educator, purports that teaching writing requires prioritizing values. "What is most important at a given part of the process? What conditions and experiences help learners improve and make them eager to keep coming back to learn more?" (p. 108). Partnerships work to provide students with meaningful conditions for writing: audience, purpose, autonomy, and response.

In the school experiences of many preservice teachers, test-driven writing instruction drives curricular choices away from workshop models and, while there is interest in developing

writing as an element of learning in all contents, what many see as best practices in teaching writing are not implemented by teachers compelled by curricular limitations (Smagorinsky, Wilson & Moore, 2011). If response to writing is to yield rich learning experiences, we must attend to an idea that Elbow and Balanoff (1999) make clear: it is a two-way street fraught with paradoxes. Both the student writer and the teacher have a say in the direction of meaningful feedback. Beyond rubrics and percentiles, effective feedback is dialogic, guided by the student and also teacher directed.

Partnerships between teacher education programs and public schools provide an avenue for dialogic feedback. With the capacity to pair individual preservice teachers with student writers in one-to-one dialogic writing relationships, partnerships serve multiple needs of beginning teachers and student writers. Varied models and foci for such collaborative efforts exist (e.g. Barksdale, Watson, & Park, 2007; Brock, Moore, & Parks, 2007; DiPardo, Staley, Selland, Martin, & Gniewek, 2012; Jennings, & Hunn, 2002; Wilford & Oberhauser, 2012). Consistently, such partnerships prove to be reciprocally beneficial and complex (Lehman & Martin, 2018).

These sites provide opportunities to examine one-on-one response practices, but the literature includes little documentation about response practices (format and content) in one-on-one settings (Baird, Hopfenbeck, Newton, Stobart, & Steen-Utheim, 2014; Gamlen & Munthe, 2014). Therefore, a more direct examination of what happens within the dialogic process of response between one teacher and one student is necessary (Brown, 2016).

Partnership Contexts and Processes

We, Beth, Jenny, and Karen, each teacher educators, initially approached partnerships for curricular purposes. Wanting to provide preservice teachers with authentic practice in the

complexities of generating feedback for students, we were drawn to connect preservice teachers with the current writing of middle school students. Preservice teachers were enrolled in literacy, content literacy, and educational psychology courses and included varied discipline areas; the middle-school students were enrolled in reading support courses or a history course (see Table 1). Participating middle schools were located in an urban area, rural community and midsized city. While courses and public-school settings varied, we each planned a partnership as an opportunity for preservice teachers and students to interact personally, either face-to-face or online, and to respond directly to writers (see Table 1). The goals and objectives were determined by the teacher educators in conjunction with the needs of the middle-school teachers. Texts took the form of paper notebooks and online documents. The focus on learning to provide supportive feedback was the same in each partnership.

Table 1

Distinguishing Features of Three Partnerships within EPPs

Partnership	Preservice Teachers	Participants	Duration	Method of Communication	Goals & Objectives
Beth: Writing Partners	Enrolled in: Reading and Writing Across the Curriculum and/or Middle School Curriculum Licensure Areas: 6-12 & PK-12	8 th graders placed in a required reading support class Setting: midsized city	~15 weeks	Letter and drawings in composition notebooks, a single visit to each campus	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To interact with linguistically, racially, culturally, and economically diverse students • To engage with students through writing • To foster asset-based views of students
Karen: Literacy Learning Partnership	Enrolled in: Intermediate Literacy Licensure	7 th graders (identified by school reading specialist as struggling readers)	~15 weeks	Written Letters, Google Hangout, Videos, Face-to-face	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To provide preservice teachers with authentic student writing to assess • To provide practice giving feedback to

Jenny: Digital Internship	Area: PK-6				an authentic audience
		Setting: rural			
	Enrolled in: Educational Psychology	7 th -grade history students	~5 weeks	Google Slides and instructional videos	• Gain internship experience via mentoring 7 th graders in developing cognitive and noncognitive skills
	Licensure Areas: 6-12, PK-6, & PK- 12	Setting: urban			• Consider how this experience may be useful to their future teaching

Instructional Approaches Inquiry

Our practitioner inquiry deemed “knowledge-of-practice” by Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999), developed from conversations focused on the procedures and activities embedded in our partnerships (p. 250). This type of practice involves a shared repertoire of resources (experiences, stories, tools) and collaborative analysis of student-learning data to construct new learning by means of collaborative inquiry (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Wenger, 2006). After our discussions generated additional questions about responding to writing, we framed our inquiry to examine more precisely how each of us taught preservice teachers to provide feedback to student writers.

Examining our course materials, assignments, and instructional approaches, we identified three specific commonalities in our teaching approaches: concern for the affective experience of writers, a desire that feedback to writing be generative, and the need to connect responses to learning goals.

Concern for Affective Experience

We each shared a concern for the affective experiences of students receiving writing responses, and our teaching approaches reflect this concern. We engaged students directly with

examination of affect, noting how one short word or phrase can propel a student to achieve something great, or it can stop them in their tracks. To drive this point home, Karen began her instruction on meaningful feedback by asking students to remember and give an example of a phrase or piece of feedback they received from a teacher. Some remembered something positive, others something negative. Karen then asked them why they think they remembered that particular exchange. Recollections almost always began with “because it made me feel....” Karen stopped them there. Whatever the piece of feedback was, it made them feel something so strongly that they not only still remembered it, it was one of the first things they recalled about the subject.

We each also highlighted times we experienced a miscommunication in the form of responding to writing. Karen intentionally started her written response with the student writers’ names and was surprised when one student asked her to stop beginning feedback with his name because it felt like he was being scolded. This was always how he was addressed as a child when he was in trouble. The attempt to make a personal and positive connection had done just the opposite for him. We informed our students that we do not know when our best intentions may not be received in the way intended. Likewise, Beth reminded preservice teachers that we cannot be certain we understand students’ intentions in the writing process. Beth shared a story about a student who over the years of schooling developed the habit of writing less and less. Teachers were inclined to see him as disengaged, but his own reflective comments to a trusted mentor revealed he began writing less in order to feel less wounded by criticism of his writing.

We share tales for the purpose of fostering intentionality in word choice when responding to student writing. Jenny noted how she was particularly cheered on by a mentor’s one-word comment made in track changes on her document. Her mentor had highlighted a section of

writing, and inserted the comment, "Important!" Jenny read what was designated as important, and the simple, yet specific word gave confidence and direction to her writing. Preservice teachers related to such stories as a means of identifying social emotional experiences related to writing and responding to writing.

Generative Feedback

While preservice teachers provided ongoing feedback to students during the partnerships, we coached them to first, do no harm, and second, to lead the writer to growth. We expected preservice teachers to provide generative feedback. Neither merely affective encouragement nor evaluative critique, we define generative feedback as responding to writing in ways designed specifically to produce growth in a writer's awareness of possible actions in the writing process, to increase fluency, and to expand a writer's perceived range of possibilities in writing.

Generative feedback should increase engagement with writing and expand thinking; it should nurture more expansive, purposeful writing. While it seems obvious that feedback should do this, it is not simple. A primary concern in designing generative feedback is matching feedback to the writer's purpose.

Beth worked in particular ways to teach students that responses to writing come in many forms depending on purpose. She shared Elbow and Belanoff's (1999) list of options, ranging from simply listening to offering criterion-based feedback, and invited preservice teachers to practice these responses with each other while responding to their literacy autobiographies, a requirement of the course. It was affirming for the preservice teachers to know they will, as teachers in all content areas, assign student writing, and the feedback they provide will vary depending on the purpose of the writing. They were relieved by the idea that generative response to writing does not necessarily require detailed grammatical correction and extensive written

response. Some student writing will be polished to the degree that response to these conventions will be critical. Often, and in most of the written exchanges in our partnerships, the larger concerns of response were to generate thinking, effective expression of idea, and fluency of text.

Another particular practice Beth facilitated for her students was Schaffer's (1996) model, "peer response that works." Schaffer highlights that peer response is not peer editing, but rather generative inquiry into the ideas of a peer's text. The process involves responding to student writing by only asking meaningful questions. Beth led the preservice teachers in practicing meaningful questioning as a way of responding in support of writers and writing. This process is intended to encourage improved writing by building a writer's sense of purpose in expanding a text for an audience beyond the teacher.

That a student writer's improvement in writing can be fostered through student-selected feedback is a new idea to preservice teachers. Karen asked her preservice teachers if they had ever been asked by a teacher how or what kind of feedback they would like to receive. None recalled that experience, and many were confused at this suggestion. This opened preservice teachers up to the possibility of giving their students some ownership of the feedback they receive. Because Jenny's partnership was housed in an educational psychology course, connections to motivation were explicit, and our shared instructional concern was teaching that responding to writing in ways that empower students is a strategy for increasing fluency.

Attention to Learning Goals

Our collective appreciation of the affective and generative elements of responding to writing do not diminish our shared concern that writing responses must also move the work of young writers toward learning goals and effective writing. Presenting Elbow and Belanoff's (1999) possibility of responding to writers by merely listening does not mean preservice teachers

are off the hook for setting effective learning goals for writers and structured forms of response to help student writers achieve these goals. To aid students in clarifying when and why a particular response is chosen for a particular writing experience, Beth also employed Maxwell's (1996) 3 Levels of Writing (Level 1 = daily, writing-to-learn, free from editorial constraints; Level 2 = communicative writing, generated quickly, not polished; Level 3 = occurs least frequently, polished, revised work, scored more fully).

Beth used these levels to help preservice teachers determine what kind of response is fitting to the learning goals of student writing. She also noted explicitly the texts they exchange with writing partners were almost entirely Level 2, so they had a range of strategic choices for response to support learning goals related to fluency and expression. Jenny's digital partnership included support for writers creating Level 2 and Level 3 writing, and the feedback to writers in the digital internship was geared toward that purpose.

Per the learning objectives of the 7th grade partners and the goals of the content literacy course, Karen taught her group more particular strategies and conventional methods for interacting with different texts and lessons. Feedback can take different forms (prose, numeric rubrics, oral) and reflect different functions (encouragement, admonishment, explanation, etc.). Karen presented on the importance of clarifying our objectives as teachers before giving feedback, a concept most of her preservice teachers have never considered. And finally, because the preservice teachers were working with struggling readers, they talked about the importance of encouragement while providing substantive feedback for improvement on the skills of summarizing and making inferences. Therefore, Karen always suggested using the feedback "sandwich" method: starting with something positive (even if it is difficult), providing guidance

on the topic along with any necessary corrections, and then finishing with a positive affirmation of encouragement.

We also modeled examples of responses to writing in relation to learning goals. Karen worked through several short pieces of writing together with her class. First, she modeled her thought process by doing a think aloud, then guided preservice teachers through an example as a class, and finally they practiced independently. Preservice teachers were then ready to provide feedback to their assigned 7th graders. Their feedback was peer-edited by another classmate, and the pairs discussed revisions and edits of the feedback before it was returned to the students. Many preservice teachers indicated they had no idea responses could and should be so purposeful or take on so many different forms.

This collaborative examination of our pedagogy provided us with a frame for identifying what we value most in teaching preservice teachers to provide feedback. We also collectively appreciate how our partnerships allowed us to coach preservice teachers in these practices. While shared inquiry of our teaching practices affirmed and defined our driving concerns, the next level of inquiry was an examination of the written responses preservice teachers generated for their middle school writing partners.

Response Patterns Inquiry

Seeking to understand more precisely what the feedback patterns of preservice teachers in our partnerships suggest about their developmental strengths and needs in supporting student writers, we each examined and coded a purposeful sampling of our preservice teachers' written responses. We examined response samples in composition notebooks, digital communications, and written letters that remained available to us after our courses ended. Our examination of preservice teachers' responses to their writing partners suggest eight primary patterns of response

(see Table 2). Table 2 provides a few samples of thematic groupings drawn from the larger collection of responses generated in each of our partnerships.

Our instructional concerns for affective experience, generative feedback, and attention to the learning goals of the activity are reflected in the responses preservice teachers generated. These thematic similarities are of interest considering the differing assignments and experiences. The notable gaps are likely due to the nature and/or constraints of the assignment(s) and offer us an opportunity to consider how these types of responses may be addressed or practiced within the constructs of each partnership in the future.

Table 2

Response Patterns

Response Type	Response Samples Beth's Writing Partners	Response Samples Karen's Literacy Learning	Response Samples Jenny's Digital Internship
Empathy	<p>"I remember when I was your age, I hated reading and writing. I'm glad you actually enjoy reading because reading is useful skill and reading pleasure can be fun and relaxing."</p> <p>"I understand how you don't like reading. I don't like reading much either but...I am beginning to like it more."</p>	<p>"Sometimes reading can be hard... but hopefully us writing each other about the book will be something new and fun to do."</p>	<p>"Need help? I'm here."</p> <p>"If you have any questions, don't be afraid to ask."</p>

**Personal
Connections
and Shared
Interests**

“I’ve never had a boyfriend, but I sure hope to one day.”

“Have you ever been there?”

“I’m thinking about visiting there.”

“I agree about the suspense and action.”

“Wow, teaching is a fantastic occupation.”

Can we write in Spanish?

“I look forward to talking about it more when I meet you!”

“My sister is looking to be a lawyer. It’s a really great field!”

Soccer

Song lyrics

Books

Affirmation

“First off, wow! Some of these questions I’ve never been asked before, but I will do my best to answer them.”

“You got that detail perfectly correct!”

“I like the way you began the commentary by using a question, it catches attention and makes the reader want to find out what you have to say.”

“I think this is important because...”

“Wow! I really enjoyed your letter and I love your drawing!”

“Your summary hits a lot of key things in the chapter...and I enjoyed reading it.”

“Overall, this is a very solid response! You’ve got a good answer, with supporting evidence from the documents, and you have it all well-organized in a clear flow of ideas.”

“Thanks for writing back and forth with me for this project!”



Summary

N/A

“You remembered a lot of key points in the book, such as...”

N/A

“In your first letter, you told me all about the main ideas of the first three chapters. You talked about...”

Format Variations	Poems Drawing	N/A	Links Images
Request for Elaboration	“...if you could become a professional in anything, no matter how ridiculous, what would you be and why?”	N/A	<p>“Add...”</p> <p>“Think about why...”</p> <p>“You may want to give more detail on your answers as to why it's important.”</p>
Redirection	N/A	<p>“It’s also important to remember...”</p> <p>“I think it’s important to make the connection in our summary ...”</p>	<p>"This is a great profession for 2017, but let's find something that would be done in 1890."</p> <p>“Go into more depth than using the adjective ‘large.’ I suggest using specific numbers."</p>
Grammar and Mechanics	N/A	N/A	<p>"Grammar/spelling error...look it over and correct."</p> <p>“There are a few grammar mistakes in the writing that could be fixed.”</p>

Our preservice teachers often experienced some nervousness themselves as writers, while demonstrating strength in offering support for the affective experience of their partner. The response patterns we categorized as *Empathy* and *Personal Connections/Shared Interests* serve to recognize writing as a fully human and social endeavor through which writers take risks and

make connections. These kinds of responses value the relational aspect of writing and help build trust between writer and responder.

Affirmation, *Summary*, and *Format Variation* response types also value relational aspects of writing, and for these types of responses, the relationship extends beyond the person-to-person connection to the work of building and linking ideas. Affirmation to the writer and summary of their text makes it known that their ideas have connected with the reader, although, only Karen's students utilized summary as a form of response. A level of playfulness in the form of text variation, including drawings and poems, invites playful interaction with ideas for the purpose of expanding and connecting ideas in new ways. These categories of response attend to our collective concern that responses to writing be generative. The responses of our preservice teachers are intended to support increased fluency and expanded writing.

We identified the responses categorized as *Elaboration*, *Redirection*, and *Grammar/Mechanics* as those that most strongly address concerns for providing feedback that is specific to the learning goals of the writing task. Jenny's digital internship, which was the only one to work toward Level 3 writing, involved preservice teachers responding to writers for the purpose of revising and completing a formal writing task that was graded using an International Baccalaureate rubric.

The preservice teachers' response patterns, overall, are also fitting to the varied purposes of each partnership. Karen's literacy partnership was structured whereby many of the responses were guided to relate to the specifics of an assignment and focus of the program (e.g., summarizing, making inferences, and comprehension). Therefore, no feedback was given in some areas, such as grammar and mechanics and requests for elaboration. In Beth's writing partnership, preservice teachers generated more conversational feedback in their friendly letters

and also worked to respond in ways that would produce a substantive reply from students. It was the creative effort of seeking substantive feedback from writing partners that led Beth to suggest varied forms, and some partners routinely incorporated drawing as part of their writing. Jenny's preservice teachers responded to students while supporting the development of a polished product and, therefore, incorporated a wide range of responses.

Conclusions and Recommendations

In examining our teaching approaches and the response patterns of our preservice teachers, we conclude that our partnerships serve as a catalyst for structure, purpose, and variation for the teaching, learning, and practice of providing feedback to writers. We endorse the development of writing partnerships between teacher education programs and public schools as sites of reciprocal opportunities, including providing an authentic arena for preservice teachers to examine and practice methods of responding to student writing in ways that build relationships and spur their ability to provide effective feedback. In our experiences, it is important to note, the partnerships were productive toward the goal of preservice teachers crafting their feedback to writers specifically when combined with direct instruction and support generated within teacher education courses. Combined with direct instruction on how to respond to writers, the partnerships provided rich opportunities for preservice teachers to develop and practice relational responses to student writers.

Because our partnerships involved preservice teachers earning licensure in a variety of content areas, practice with relational response to writing seems particularly important. In future classrooms, these preservice teachers are likely to employ writing to learn and writing to generate ideas. Thus, they and their students will, in support of content learning, benefit from a range of responses to writing that extend beyond scoring rubrics and numeric values.

While our process of collaborative practitioner inquiry has been fruitful and offers meaningful insights to the larger teacher education community, our analysis is limited by a process of analyzing our partnership efforts and outcomes only after the courses and partnerships ended. It would be meaningful to apply our insights to future partnership courses and begin intentional inquiry sooner so as to build assignments and assessments of the written responses of preservice teachers throughout the semester. Such a timeline would allow us to notice growth and development of written feedback practices during the course. Our current focus was types of responses rather than the development of responses over time.

This examination of our teaching and preservice teacher response patterns within the partnerships calls attention to the need to learn to provide feedback in expansive and humane ways to encourage voice and fluency in student writers, and when appropriate, coach them toward final products.

Recommendations

This examination of preservice teachers' responses to student writing has informed our practice and increased our desire to continue developing the learning potential in partnerships. Our practitioner inquiry leads to these suggestions within teacher education programs:

1. Teacher education programs must attend to teaching how to provide feedback to writers in intentional ways that address affective experience, generative responses, and learning goals. This attention to feedback is related to, but different than formal assessment. We need to be clear and direct in teaching preservice teachers in all content areas to seek balance in the types of responses they provide to student writers. We must teach the affective and academic impact of varied options of response.

2. Partnerships with schools provide an authentic and meaningful structure for teaching writing response. We must seek and nurture school partnerships as reciprocal learning experiences and recognize that these delicate relational endeavors are fostered through personal connections (Lehman & Martin, 2018). It is ideal to build partnerships into teacher education coursework with clear and direct curricular alignment, and all involved must believe in and be willing to teach toward partnership goals for preservice teachers and school students.
3. Finally, preservice teachers need to experience authentic feedback as both recipients and providers. Therefore, we must model for our students the kinds of evidenced-based feedback experienced English educators advise (Culham, 2003, 2006; Elbow, 2007; Elbow & Belanoff, 1999; Graves, 1993). Teacher educators must prepare students to become classroom and school leaders who are able to engage relationally with students, texts, and colleagues. Practicing the craft of relational response with school and university partnerships is an excellent first step.

References

- Atwell, N. (1987). *In the middle: Writing, reading, and learning with adolescents*. Portsmouth, ME: Heinemann.
- Baird, J-A., Hopfenbeck, T. N., Newton, P. G., Stobart & Steen-Utheim, A. T. (2014). *Assessment and learning: State of the field review*. Oslo: Knowledge Center for Education.
- Barksdale, M. A., Watson, C., & Park, E. S. (2007). Pen pal letter exchanges: Taking first steps toward developing cultural understandings. *Reading Teacher*, 61(1), 58-68.

- Brock, C. H., Moore, D. K., & Parks, L. (2007). Exploring preservice teachers' literacy practices with children from diverse backgrounds: Implications for teacher educators. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23, 898-915.
- Brown, N. K., (2016). Individual learning through one-on-one teaching. *English Journal*, 105(3). 16-21.
- Cochran-Smith, M., & Lytle, S. (1999). Relationships of knowledge and practice: Teacher learning in communities. In A. Iran-Nejad & C. D. Pearson (Eds.), *Review of research in education* (Vol. 24; pp.251-307). Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.
- Culham, R. (2003). *6 + 1 traits of writing: The complete guide*. Portland, OR: Scholastic.
- Culham, R. (2006). *The trait lady speaks up. Educational Leadership*. Alexandria: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- DiPardo, A., Staley, S., Selland, Martin, A., & Gniewek. (2012). "Anything could happen: Managing uncertainty in an academic writing partnership." *English Education*, 45(1), 10-34.
- Elbow, P. (2007). Reconsiderations: Voice in writing again: Embracing contraries. *College English*, 70, 168–188.
- Elbow, P. & Belanoff, P. (1999). *Sharing and responding*, 3rd edition. McGraw-Hill.
- Gamlen, S. M. & Munthe, E. (2014). Mapping the quality of feedback to support students' learning in lower secondary classrooms. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 44(1), 75-92.
- Graves, D. (1983). *Writing: Teachers and children at work*. Portsmouth, NH: Heineman.
- Jennings, C. D., & Hunn, J. (2002). 'Why do I have to take remedial English?' A collaborative model to solve a national problem. In T.C. Thompson (Ed.), *Teaching writing in high*

- school and college: Conversations and collaborations* (pp. 182–200). Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Koole, T. & Elbers, E. (2014). Responsiveness in teacher explanations: A conversation analytical perspective on scaffolding. *Linguistics and Education*, 26, 57-69.
- Lehman, B. & Martin, J. (2018). Learning in between: Partnerships as sites of discovery. *Virginia English Journal*, 68(1), 4-15.
- Maxwell, R. (1996). Writing across the curriculum in middle and high schools. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Schaffer, J. (1996). Peer response that works. *Journal of Teaching Writing*. 15(1), 81-90.
- Spandel, V. (2000). Creating writers: Through 6-trait writing assessment and instruction, 3rd edition. Allyn & Bacon.
- Smagorinsky, P., Wilson, A. A., & Moore, C. (2011). Teaching grammar and writing: A beginning teacher's dilemma. *English Education*, 43(3), 262-292.
- Warner, J. (2018). *Why they can't write: Killing the five-paragraph essay and other necessities*. Baltimore, MD: John Hopkins University Press.
- Wenger, E. (2006, June). Communities of practice: A brief introduction [Online description]. Retrieved from <http://wenger-trayner.com/introduction-to-communities-of-practice/>.
- Wilford, L. G., & Oberhauser, C. (2012). A pen pal project connects preservice teachers and urban youth. *Middle School Journal*, 43(5), 40-50.

Working Toward Equity: A Framework for Exploring Racial and Ethnic Diversity in Teacher Education Programs

Tiffany J. LaCroix, M.Ed.

Rachelle Kuehl, M.S.

Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

Abstract

This paper provides a framework that identifies the understandings and skills preservice teachers need to teach in racially and ethnically diverse K–12 schools. This framework was developed from a literature review from which five key themes emerged: Awareness, Knowledge, Attitudes, Collaboration, and Experiences. Each aspect of the framework is detailed with “I Understand” and “I Can” statements for preservice teachers. Examples of key understandings include: the harm in purporting a colorblind ideology, the need to develop affirming views of all students, and the recognition of the school community as a source of strength. Examples of key skills include: the ability to participate respectfully and receptively in conversations surrounding race/ethnicity, the ability to create instructional experiences that emphasize critical thinking over summative assessment, and the ability to cultivate caring and inclusive classrooms. Ideas for activities consistent with the framework are incorporated.

Keywords: Diversity, Teacher Education, Race/Ethnicity

Teacher education faculty recognize the need to prioritize preparing preservice teachers to work with an increasingly diverse K–12 student population (Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Bennett, 2012; Larson, 2015; Sleeter, 2001). This is especially true given the fact that in 2018, there were over 26.6 million students of color among the 50.7 million students in U.S. public schools (NCES, 2018). Particularly with regard to race and ethnicity, preservice teachers must be ready to teach students from a wide range of backgrounds and lived experiences. Programs now require student teaching placements in schools serving low-income and/or multicultural populations, courses geared toward increasing cultural competence, and assignments embedded across the entire program meant to help preservice teachers think critically about their own

positionality in a diverse society (Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Bennett, 2012; Brewley–Kennedy, 2005; Cochran–Smith & Villegas, 2015; Cochran–Smith et al., 2015; Darling–Hammond, 2010; Ronfeldt, 2012; Sleeter, 2001; Sobel, Gutierrez, Zion, & Blanchett, 2011).

Purpose

The purpose of this paper is to share the development of a framework to assist teacher educators in graduating new teachers prepared to use culturally relevant (Ladson–Billings, 1995) and culturally responsive (Gay, 2001) pedagogical practices. Specifically, we sought to identify what the literature indicates preservice teachers must know and be able to do as they teach in a multiracial and multiethnic society. This study seeks to determine what knowledge and skills preservice teachers need to improve the experiences and achievement for students of historically underrepresented racial and ethnic groups. Following the literature in response to this question, we will provide examples of specific experiences to help preservice teachers learn to promote equity and diversity in their future school communities.

Literature Review

We explored the literature to examine ways in which teacher education programs have attempted to educate their students to develop cultural competency. In addition to a comprehensive search for relevant peer–reviewed articles, we examined the following: the Core Values of the American Association of the Colleges of Teacher Education (AACTE, 2017), the Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC) Standards (2011), the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP) Standards (2016), and the Cultural Competence Manual (Stith–Williams & Haynes, 2007) shared on the Virginia Department of Education website. This review is organized according to the following themes: (a) Experiences of Preservice Teachers of Color; (b) Racial Positionality; (c) Resistance and “Safe Spaces;” (d)

Colorblindness; (e) Affirming Views; (f) Field Experiences; and (g) Culturally Responsive Pedagogy.

Preservice Teachers of Color

Although the population of the nation's schoolchildren is growing increasingly diverse, the percentage of White teachers remains disproportionately high (Cochran-Smith & Villegas, 2015). As a result, much of the literature related to diversity in teacher education revolves around helping White preservice teachers learn how to work successfully in multicultural settings. Unfortunately, this approach can marginalize and frustrate prospective teachers of color. Ndemanu (2014), for example, wrote about an African-American preservice teacher who felt that a multicultural education class in which he was enrolled was designed "specifically for middle-class, White students" and never attended to the need for preservice teachers to develop cultural understandings of predominantly White school communities, as if Whiteness was simply the default racial status. Similarly, preservice teachers of color who worked with a Teach for America alternative certification program felt that discussions in required multicultural studies courses were superficial and centered on the presumed needs of White participants (Lapayese, Aldana, & Lara, 2014). Rather than pushing their White peers to recognize the role of White privilege in society and its effects on their own life experiences, students of color felt that "everything was catered to White teachers feeling comfortable, everything being positive and constructive" (Lapayese et al., 2014, p. 21).

In general, this points to a need for recruiting more candidates of color to teacher education programs, which would both diversify the teaching force and widen the conversation about race in education to include a greater variety of perspectives. The goal of diversification is shared by the AACTE, which listed a commitment to "increasing the diversity of their faculty

and the educators they prepare” among one of its Core Values (2017). Hill–Brisbane and Easley–Mosby (2006) recommended that teacher education programs actively recruit preservice teachers from urban areas who demonstrate a commitment to their communities, a strong content knowledge base, and a high degree of pedagogical talent.

Racial Positionality

Even as teacher education programs strive to recruit, retain, and prepare preservice teachers who better reflect the diversity within PK–12 schools (AACTE, 2017), teacher education programs must prioritize training all preservice teachers to consider their own positionality with regard to race and ethnicity and how their background experiences affect their interactions with students (Anderson & Stillman, 2012; DiAngelo & Sensoy, 2011; InTASC, 2017; Matias, 2016; Picower, 2009). In particular, “with the likelihood of the teaching force remaining overwhelmingly White, examining and interrupting the Whiteness of teaching remains one of the most vital tasks for those concerned with improving educational opportunities and outcomes for students of color” (Picower, 2009, p. 213).

Often, White preservice teachers from middle–class backgrounds lack perceptions of themselves as having an ethnic identity (Allard & Santoro, 2006). But, when preservice teachers fail to understand how their actions are grounded in White cultural norms, they may inadvertently show favor to White students and form negative judgments about students of color, perceiving their abilities as lacking (Blaisdell, 2005; DiAngelo & Sensoy, 2011). Teacher educators, too, must conduct meaningful self–examinations and seek professional development to help them continually consider matters of equity and power structures as they relate to education (Brewley–Kennedy, 2005; Sobel, Gutierrez, Zion, & Blanchett, 2011). Bauml, Castro, Field, & Morowski (2016) stressed the importance of teacher educators in “supporting future

teachers' identity development as curriculum–decision makers, those who can and ought to challenge potentially oppressive and marginalizing curricula” (p. 23).

Resistance and “Safe Spaces”

Preservice teachers, especially White preservice teachers, often show resistance to conversations about race and racism (Brewley–Kennedy, 2005; DiAngelo & Sensoy, 2011; Matias, 2016; Picower, 2009). White preservice teachers in a study by Picower (2009) expressed resentment that they were being “pressured” to learn about how to “be aware of all the cultures in your classroom” when they already felt overwhelmed with trying to master the content they would be teaching (p. 207). As a result of such prevailing attitudes, teacher educators sometimes feel they must create “safe spaces” for preservice teachers to speak freely about their concerns regarding racial and cultural differences (Allard & Santoro, 2006; Brewley–Kennedy, 2005; DiAngelo & Sensoy, 2011; Matias, 2016).

While it is true that teacher educators should strive for trusting environments where preservice teachers can collectively grapple with “complex, troubling, and deeply challenging notions of identity” (Allard & Santoro, 2006), they must be willing to push preservice teachers out of their comfort zones and welcome cognitive dissonance to promote growth. Otherwise, teacher educators may be complicit in the “reproduction of Whiteness” that occurs when preservice teachers avoid risk by remaining silent during challenging discussions of race because they fear saying the wrong thing (Brewley–Kennedy, 2005, p. 24).

Colorblindness

The literature reveals that White preservice teachers often present themselves as “racially innocent” (DiAngelo & Sensoy, 2011). They may claim not to notice race and to believe everyone is essentially “the same” (Allard & Santoro, 2006; Sleeter, 2001), but this colorblind

ideology causes harm to students because the inequity in opportunities available among people of different races must be acknowledged if it is ever to be changed (Lewis, 2001; Puchner & Markowitz, 2015; Sleeter, 2001). “Critical educators,” wrote Matias (2016, p. 194), “must have a thorough understanding of the racialized context that results in the lack of achievement by urban students of color.”

Affirming Views

In addition to ensuring preservice teachers do not engage in colorblind thinking, teacher educators must help them develop affirming views of all students (Anderson & Stillman, 2012; Bennett, 2012; Cochran-Smith & Villegas, 2015; Sobel et al., 2011). Many preservice teachers enter the profession with deficit views, which are perceptions of people of different races as lacking (Anderson & Stillman, 2012; Bennett, 2012; Picower, 2009) and sometimes manifest as negative characterizations of intellectual aptitude of students of color (Kinloch, 2011) or a belief that families of color—particularly Black families—do not value education (Puchner & Markowitz, 2015). They may even perceive that having a race or culture different from their own is a problem to be overcome (Allard & Santoro, 2006) rather than understanding that their judgment of the value of students’ experiences must not be based on White norms (Blaisdell, 2005). Teacher educators must teach preservice teachers to identify various forms of deficit thinking, interrogate the assumptions on which negative perceptions are based, and then create new, additive statements (Bauml et al., 2016; Naidoo & Kirch, 2016). Instead of thinking that their students simply do not care about school, for example, preservice teachers could seek ways to make their own instruction relevant and motivating (Bauml et al., 2016). In particular, preservice teachers must be taught to view the parents and communities within which their students live as assets to be continually incorporated into experiences designed to promote

learning (Anderson & Stillman, 2012; Darling–Hammond, 2010; InTASC, 2011; Sobel et al., 2011).

Field Experiences

Much of the literature emphasized the need for preservice teachers to have student teaching placements in racially and culturally diverse settings (Anderson & Stillman, 2012; Bennett, 2012; Cochran–Smith & Villegas, 2015; Darling–Hammond, 2010). The partnerships with local schools must be carefully curated to ensure preservice teachers are paired with cooperating teachers who demonstrate culturally responsive practices (Darling–Hammond, 2012; Sleeter, 2001). It can be harmful, according to Larson (2016), for preservice teachers to work with practicing teachers who rely on classroom management practices which reflect a prioritization of the need to control students’ behavior over providing all students with challenging coursework and engaging instructional experiences (Anderson & Stillman, 2012; Ronfeldt, 2012; Toshalis, 2010). So, teacher educators must stay actively involved in monitoring and evaluating the experiences preservice teachers have in local schools to ensure they benefit from positive examples.

Good practice with regard to student teaching, according to Darling–Hammond (2012), is when learners are

encouraged to participate in all aspects of school functioning, ranging from special education and support services for students; to parent meetings, home visits, and community outreach; to faculty discussions and projects aimed at ongoing involvement in students’ opportunities to learn (p. 43).

Some articles also discussed field experiences outside of the student teaching, such as volunteering with community organizations in multicultural areas (Naidoo & Kirch, 2016; Sobel, et al., 2011).

Method

Considering the above body of literature as our data source, we began our analysis by both authors independently in vivo coding the articles and standards (Saldana, 2016). This was done because we sought to identify unifying aspects of the literature that might be relevant to teacher educators on a program development level. Next, we examined our codes for common themes and checked that our themes subsumed the in vivo codes while holding true to the original literature in a manner consistent with the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The agreed-upon themes are outlined in Table 1 and make up the overarching statements in the following framework. The “I understand” and “I can” statements were built from the in vivo codes to provide a framework that is thoroughly grounded in the literature on racial and ethnic diversity in teacher education.

Table 1

Themes Derived From the Literature on Teaching About Diversity in Teacher Education Programs

Awareness	Preservice teachers need opportunities to explore their own racial positioning within society; they must recognize that race/ethnicity is a key part of identity that must not be dismissed under the guise of “colorblindness.”
Knowledge	Preservice teachers must have knowledge of the historical underpinnings of racial injustice and its impact on present societal structures, particularly the public education system. They must replace deficit views of students from diverse racial, ethnic, and language groups with affirming views.

Attitudes	Preservice teachers must be willing to continually engage in discussions surrounding race and racism with an openness toward listening and learning from the experiences of others.
Collaboration	Preservice teachers need to be prepared to provide collaborative learning opportunities among students in their future classrooms and to encourage participation from families and the larger community in interactive learning experiences, recognizing that community is an asset to education.
Experiences	Preservice teachers need opportunities to apply their knowledge of culturally responsive teaching practices during field experience placements in schools that serve racially and ethnically diverse populations.

Framework

We identified five themes from the literature that frame needed understandings and skills related to racial and ethnic diversity: Awareness, Knowledge, Attitudes, Collaboration, and Experiences. The themes are described in the following sections and in Table 1. For each theme, we identified key understandings we believe all preservice teachers need concerning racial and ethnic diversity. These are presented as “I understand” statements in our framework, which is found in Table 2. We also identified key skills we believe all preservice teachers need to be able to do in conjunction with each theme, which are presented as “I can” statements in our framework (Table 2). A brief explanation of the “I understand” and “I can” statements further clarifies their meaning and the necessity for each theme. When we refer to students, we mean K–12 students, not preservice teachers.

Table 2

A Framework for Exploring Racial & Ethnic Diversity in Teacher Education Programs

Awareness	
<i>I Understand:</i>	<i>I Can:</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The problem with ethnocentrism and the role it plays in the classroom • The problem with “colorblindness” as it ignores a key piece of a student’s history and identity • The challenges given the social/political/economic impact of race/ethnicity • The problem of seeing race as a deficit element of a child’s culture • The problem with seeing a student’s race as an indicator of her or his academic capability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflect on explicit and implicit beliefs and attitudes regarding race/ethnicity in schools • Consider a teacher’s responsibility regarding equity in schools • Examine the social/political/economic discussion around race/ethnicity • Recognize cognitive dissonance when in unfamiliar situations
Knowledge	
<i>I Understand:</i>	<i>I Can:</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The need to appreciate differences within and across racial/ethnic groups • How language and the social nature of race/ethnicity affect how students approach learning • The inequitable distribution of resources among people of different racial/social groups 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adopt affirming views of all students • Focus on students’ strengths rather than perceived weaknesses
Attitudes	
<i>I Understand:</i>	<i>I Can:</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Race/ethnicity is a complex, nuanced social construct • Mostly–White schools are not “ideal” schools that diverse schools should try to emulate • The importance of holding high expectations for all students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participate respectfully and receptively in conversations about race/ethnicity • Provide equitable opportunities for students to achieve high expectations

Collaboration	
<i>I Understand:</i>	<i>I Can:</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning is a social experience and should be active and interactive for everyone • Successful teaching is evidenced by student learning and growth, not a “controlled” classroom environment • The school is the center of the community and drawing support and resources from community agencies is essential to student success 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teach in racially and ethnically inclusive, student-centered ways that encourage collaboration • Create and adapt instruction to focus on critical thinking rather than summative assessment • Use culturally appropriate management strategies
Experiences	
<i>I Understand:</i>	<i>I Can:</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All teachers, regardless of race, ethnicity, and background, need preparation in how to teach diverse learners 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflect critically on pedagogy decisions with regard to cultural differences among students • Feel comfortable building positive relationships with all students • Connect my university coursework and field experiences with regard to cultural awareness • Engage parents/guardians and the community in student learning

Awareness

Preservice teachers should be mindful of their attitudes and biases about race and ethnicity as well as the sociopolitical issues and personal beliefs concerning society, the purpose of schools, and their responsibility toward students (Brewley–Kennedy, 2005; Cochran–Smith & Villegas, 2016; Stith–Williams & Haynes, 2007). Preservice teachers of all races and ethnicities need opportunities to increase their awareness of their own racial positioning and to learn about what exactly discussions around race and ethnicity entail, both socially and politically.

Preservice teachers need chances to learn and understand that claims of being racially neutral

under the guise of colorblindness only communicates to students and their families that a central part of who they are does not matter. Furthermore, preservice teachers need to realize that students of traditionally minoritized population groups do not have a struggle to overcome simply because of their race; rather, it is the social constructs *surrounding* race that create potential disadvantages.

With opportunities for discussion and reflection, preservice teachers can become aware of the impact of race and culture on society and can understand their responsibility to all students in the school. They also need to examine situations in which they feel uncomfortable working with students of different races or ethnicities by reflecting on why those feelings occurred and seeking support. This type of evaluation can help preservice teachers become aware of their own beliefs and may begin to break down existing stereotypes and prejudices.

Knowledge

Preservice teachers should advance their knowledge about different races and ethnicities in order to replace any deficit views with affirming ones and to understand biases and stereotypes they may hold (Cochran-Smith & Villegas, 2016; Stith-Williams & Haynes, 2007). Preservice teachers need to learn that the race, ethnicity, and home language of a student are not weaknesses; rather, students' racial and ethnic perspective is a source of strength. In particular, the inclusion of their home language—referring to the first language of bilingual students as well as the various dialects of English spoken in the U.S. classrooms (Hollie, 2018)—can positively influence how students learn, and preservice teachers need to be aware and respectful of this.

Further, preservice teachers need to understand the disproportionate allocation of resources in schools is often caused by underlying racist beliefs and practices and is not simply due to socioeconomic factors (Anderson & Stillman, 2013). Preservice teachers must acknowledge the social interconnectedness between race and education, and teacher educators

must help them adopt affirming views of communities of color. That is, by introducing literature and in-person experiences into the curriculum, teacher educators can promote the understanding of cultural values and practices as assets that can be used to advance children's education in meaningful ways rather than hindrances to traditionally understood educational methods.

Attitudes

Preservice teachers should be open to differences in opinion concerning race and ethnicity by being continual learners and examining their own attitudes toward others (Brewley–Kennedy, 2005; Cochran–Smith & Villegas, 2016). The literature suggests preservice teachers, especially White preservice teachers, are resistant to conversations about race (DiAngelo & Sensoy, 2014; Matias, 2016). This is an attitude concern that teacher educators should address in their courses on racial and ethnic diversity. Preservice teachers need to understand these discussions are useful because learning about different races and ethnicities will help them appreciate how their students' experiences may be similar or different from their own schooling experiences. This understanding will facilitate preservice teachers' ability to create safe learning spaces for their students. However, it is not enough to engage in conversations about race and ethnicity in courses. Preservice teachers must show they can participate in these discussions both respectfully and receptively and, if they have not personally experienced racism, they should position themselves primarily as listeners (DiAngelo & Sensoy, 2014).

Conversations about race can help diminish stereotypes of what the “ideal” school looks like and can provide opportunities for preservice teachers to explain what it means to have high expectations for every learner. For example, one misconception that can arise in discussions on race and ethnicity is that of homework, and the rationale not to assign any because teachers believe parents will not support students in completing it. This notion has the added implication

that parents, particularly those in racially diverse communities, do not value education, a sentiment that is unfounded and harmful to the necessary home-school relationship. There are situations in all communities where working or otherwise busy parents are not able to participate in daily homework activities, but that certainly does not mean they do not care. Preservice teachers need to understand there are resources available at YMCAs, community centers, and places of worship where students spend time after school. These community resources are placed to support busy parents who *do* care about their children's education by helping students complete homework, play sports, participate in clubs, and learn life skills. Talking through misconceptions such as this one can help preservice teachers see that the "ideal" school is one where students are learning, and this learning is not necessarily confined to the school's walls. Also, having high expectations for students does not mean making pedagogical choices out of resignation for a situation the preservice teacher might not understand, but instead making sure every student has access to the resources needed to reach her or his potential.

Collaboration

Preservice teachers should be able to respond to racial and ethnic differences in the classroom in respectful, sensitive, and positive ways to encourage collaboration (Framework for 21st Century learning, 2009; InTASC, 2011; Stith-Williams & Haynes, 2007; University of Michigan, 2017). They need to be able to create a classroom environment where all students, regardless of their race or ethnicity, can collaborate on their coursework. Teacher preparation courses can help preservice teachers understand that student learning and attention to the development of humanity is the focus of education (Anderson & Stillman, 2013) and that when students are engaged in learning together, everyone benefits (Anderson & Stillman, 2013). Occasionally, preservice teachers express fear about being placed in a "hard" school, usually in

urban areas, or working with “unruly” students who attend urban schools (Bauml et al., 2016; Sleeter, 2001), which makes collaboration impossible. Teacher educators can provide opportunities for preservice teachers to understand that all children can be motivated to learn when they feel empowered over their education, successful, cared for by their teacher, and see that what they are learning is useful and interesting (Jones, 2018). Preservice teachers should be able to show they can (a) create lessons that are motivating for students and can (b) develop classroom management plans that do not rely heavily on removing disruptive students from the classroom. Instead, preservice teachers should learn to examine antecedents before challenging students’ behaviors to better understand why students act out and what can be done to support them.

Part of encouraging a diverse population of learners to collaborate means teaching in ways that are culturally responsive (Ladson–Billings, 1995). Preservice teachers need to show they can provide equitable opportunities for students to achieve. They should also prepare and enact lessons with a mind toward inclusive collaboration and be aware of grouping patterns in their student teaching placements. Part of preparing these lessons means adapting instruction for inclusion by, for example, teaching math through a social justice lens, reading a selection of literature by authors of multiple races/ethnicities, or teaching history through the eyes of the colonized instead of the colonizers. To be culturally responsive, preservice teachers can also work to ensure community resources, discourses, and leaders are a part of the classroom community, conversations, and projects. When the school is part of the community and the community part of the school, students have opportunities to see the people they learn from in different situations working together for their good (Anderson & Stillman, 2013).

Experiences

Preservice teachers should have field placements in schools and community agencies that serve populations which have been historically minoritized (Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Bennett, 2012), and they must be equipped to use a critical pedagogy which aims to deconstruct and counteract the racism inherent in today's society. As essential as it is to emphasize preparing preservice teachers to teach in a diverse society during coursework, a disconnect exists if the knowledge they gain is not applied in their placements. Preservice teachers, then, need to show they can create lessons to be culturally relevant for their students, reflect thoughtfully on classroom experiences, and develop plans for creating positive relationships with all their students. Ultimately, though, to really understand the lives of traditionally minoritized students, preservice teachers need opportunities to interact with parents, guardians, and community members (Darling-Hammond, 2012). Teachers are agents of change in students' communities, and their positive impact is strengthened if they are connected to the other agents of change in those communities.

Discussion

It is important to stress that the information contained in each of these themes is vital for all preservice teachers because everyone, not just White preservice teachers, needs the opportunity to learn about how to teach diverse learners. The above framework for understandings and skills related to racial and ethnic diversity is grounded in the literature. It is meant to help teacher educators design meaningful coursework to support preservice teachers to teach their students in culturally responsive ways.

While it is a helpful programmatic organization tool, the framework may also be used for designing specific class activities. For example, awareness could be taught by sharing a selection of literature about people of different races, geared for both adults and children. Reading and

discussing novels can be particularly meaningful as they provide a deep view of characters' experiences over time. The American Library Association website (www.ala.org) provides lists of high-quality children's literature celebrating the contributions of authors from different racial and ethnic backgrounds such as the Coretta Scott King Book Awards (honoring Black authors) and the Pura Belpré Award (honoring Latino/a authors). Teacher educators could consult these lists to design literature discussion groups where preservice teachers would read the books, then meet to talk about what they learned about the experiences of people of diverse backgrounds. Awareness could also be taught by learning about how mathematics and science are learned in other countries and are immersed in the culture and economic situations of those countries. Mathematics especially is often thought of as "universal," but it is instead situated in the culture and values of different countries (d'Ambrosio, 1985).

During their student teaching semesters, preservice teachers could write weekly reflections based on what they notice regarding equity and diversity in their field placements. Faculty might provide guiding questions for consideration and could facilitate practical conversations about race and ethnicity stemming from these reflections during education classes, allowing opportunities to discuss any evidence of deficit beliefs observed during field experiences. It is not enough to send preservice teachers into local schools hoping they will gain insight into working with diverse communities. Instead, teacher educators must help preservice teachers unpack these experiences to ensure that negative stereotypes are being abandoned—and not reinforced.

Field trips to local sites of racial or ethnic significance, coupled with written reflections and class discussions, may promote new knowledge which preservice teachers could be taught to apply in non-superficial ways in the classroom. For example, many communities have museums

or exhibits celebrating Civil Rights leaders. Visiting these sites together can prompt discussion of key historical figures while also teaching preservice teachers how to plan and execute successful field trips to such sites with their own future students.

Another idea would be to assign preservice teachers to engage in three activities (approved by the professor) with people from racial or ethnic groups different from their own. This could involve visiting an unfamiliar church, volunteering at a community center, or attending a class for adults who are learning to speak English. Preservice teachers would then write reflections on what was learned and how the experience may have helped challenge and replace deficit views with affirming views.

In terms of attitudes, teacher educators and preservice teachers could co-construct classroom norms for how to position themselves as respectful and receptive participants in discussions of race as described in the InTASC (2001) critical dispositions. This would set the expectation that engaging in such discussions would be a regular part of their coursework, helping to reinforce the importance of continually revisiting these topics throughout the program and into their teaching careers.

Collaboration could be taught by having class discussions about what it means to have high expectations for every learner and how those expectations are demonstrated in field placements. Preservice teachers could also consider how a classroom can be collaborative when high expectations vary by student, leading to a discussion on equity, equality, and implicit bias that can make expectations inequitable. Preservice teachers could write and teach lessons that are racially and ethnically responsive, explaining how pedagogical decisions made for the lessons reflect best practices for critical educators. Finally, preservice teachers early in their university experience could tutor at a local community center, coach a sport, or tutor high school or adult

learners seeking their General Educational Development (GED). Journaling about these experiences could provide an avenue for reflection and prompt preservice teachers to think about the value of community resources. No matter what practical experiences are expected, teacher educators must engage in constant dialogue with preservice teachers to help them connect pedagogical knowledge and practice.

Implications Toward Teacher Education Programs

Teacher educators can use the framework to consider how—and how often—they are engaging in critical discussions about race and racism throughout their programs. We hope this framework will encourage teacher educators to interrupt instances where preservice teachers demonstrate deficit thinking or colorblindness and help them reframe their views toward people from backgrounds different than their own. We hope teacher educators will feel emboldened to provide pedagogical spaces that are more than simply “safe.” Having established a community of respect and collaboration, teacher educators can learn to tolerate needed discomfort in their classrooms in order to challenge preservice teachers’ thinking for the good of the students they will one day teach. Our framework can serve as a checkpoint for planning individual courses and for influencing broader program design. By ensuring preservice teachers have opportunities to develop the awareness, knowledge, attitudes, collaboration, and experiences needed to teach in a diverse society, teacher educators can better prepare them to provide positive educational experiences to students throughout their careers.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

One of the limitations we faced when doing this research was our own positionality as White teacher educators. We both taught for years in schools with racially and ethnically diverse populations, and our interest in the topic grew from those experiences. However, considering our own races, it seemed inappropriate to design a framework without basing it in the literature,

experience, and hard work of established researchers. It is out of our respect for their accomplishments, our love of teaching diverse learners, and our deep-rooted need to share that love with future generations of preservice teachers that we present this framework. With it, we hope to help build a common language for designing coursework or research on teaching preservice teachers about racial and ethnic diversity. As this framework is still largely conceptual, more research is needed to explore its application within teacher education programs. Empirical studies outlining the use of this framework with preservice teachers and describing its effectiveness would add support to our recommendations.

Conclusion

Addressing the needs of a racially diverse society is a non-negotiable component of today's teacher preparation programs. Our framework, which was grounded firmly in existing literature, can provide guidance for teacher educators who wish to design a comprehensive program for ensuring that preservice teachers are prepared to effectively teach all students. We hope future researchers will continue to research and revise what it means to teach about racial and ethnic diversity with respect to awareness, knowledge, attitudes, collaboration, and experiences.

References

- Allard, A. C., & Santoro, N. (2006). Troubling identities: Teacher education students' constructions of class and ethnicity. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 36(1), 115–129.
- American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. (2017). *Core Values*. Retrieved from <https://aacte.org/about-aacte#core-values>

- Anderson, L. M., & Stillman, J. A. (2013). Student teaching's contribution to preservice teacher development: A review of research focused on the preparation of teachers for urban and high needs contexts. *Review of Educational Research*, 83(1), 3–69.
- Bauml, M., Castro, A. J., Field, S. L., & Morowski, D. L. (2016). Learning from preservice teachers' thoughts about teaching in urban schools: Implications for teacher educators. *Education and Urban Society*, 48(1), 4–29.
- Bennett, S. V. (2012). Effective facets of a field experience that contributed to eight preservice teachers' developing understandings about culturally responsive teaching. *Urban Education*, 48(3), 380–419.
- Blaisdell, B. (2005). Seeing every student as a 10: Using Critical Race Theory to engage White teachers' colorblindness. *International Journal of Educational Policy, Research, & Practice*, 6(1), 31–52.
- Brewley–Kennedy, D. N. (2005). The struggles of incorporating equity into practice in a university mathematics methods course. *The Mathematics Educator*, 1, 16–28.
- Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation. (2016). 2013 CAEP Standards. *Author*. Retrieved from <http://caepnet.org/~media/Files/caep/standards/caep-standards-one-pager-061716.pdf?la=en>
- Cochran–Smith, M. and Villegas, A. M. (2015). Framing Teacher Preparation Research: An Overview of the Field, Part 1. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 66(1), pp. 7–20.
- Cochran–Smith, M., Villegas, A. M., Abrams, L., Chavez–Moreno, L., Mills, T., and Stern, R. (2015). Framing Teacher Preparation Research: An Overview of the Field, Part 2. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 66(2), pp. 109–121.

- Cochran-Smith, M., & Villegas, A. M. (2016). Research on teacher preparation: Charting the landscape of a sprawling field. In D. H. Gitomer, & C. A. Bell (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (5th ed., pp. 439–548). Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.
- d'Ambrosio, U. (1985). Ethnomathematics and its place in the history and pedagogy of mathematics. *For the Learning of Mathematics*, 5(1), 44–48.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2010). Teacher education and the American future. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 61(1–2), 35–47.
- DiAngelo, R., & Sensoy, O. (2014). Getting slammed: White depictions of race discussions as arenas of violence. *Race Ethnicity and Education*, 17(1), 103–128.
- Framework for 21st century learning. (2009). *Partnership for 21st century learning*. Retrieved from <http://www.p21.org/our-work/p21-framework>
- Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. New York, NY: Aldine Publishing Company.
- Hill-Brisbane, D. and Easley-Mosby, K. (2006). Exploring issues of support and leadership in the experiences of prospective teachers of color: Retaining minority students and producing change agents for urban schools. *2006 E-yearbook of Urban Learning, Teaching, and Research*, 53–63.
- Hollie, S. (2018). *Culturally and Linguistically Responsive Teaching and Learning* (2nd ed.). Huntington Beach, CA: Shell Education.
- InTASC model core teaching standards: A resource for state dialogue. (2011). *Council of Chief State School Officers*. Retrieved from https://ccsso.org/sites/default/files/2017-11/InTASC_Model_Core_Teaching_Standards_2011.pdf

- Jones, B. D. (2018). *Motivating students by design: Practical strategies for professors* (2nd ed.). Charleston, SC: CreateSpace.
- Kinloch, V. (2011). Crossing boundaries, studying diversity: Lessons from preservice teachers and urban youth. In A. F. Ball, & C. Tyson, (Eds.), *Studying diversity in education*. Latham, Maryland: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc., pp. 153–170.
- Lapayese, Y. V., Aldana, U. S., and Lara, E. (2014). A Racio–economic Analysis of Teach for America: Counterstories of TFA Teachers of Color. *Perspectives on Urban Education*, 11(1), 11–25.
- Ladson–Billings, G. (1995). Toward a theory of culturally relevant pedagogy. *American Educational Research Journal*, 32(3), 465–491.
- Larson, K. E. (2016). Classroom management training for teachers in urban environments serving predominantly African American students: A review of the literature. *The Urban Review*, 48(1), 51–72.
- Lewis, A. E. (2001). There is no “race” in the schoolyard: Color–blind ideology in an (almost) all–White school. *American Educational Research Journal*, 38(4), 781–811.
- Matias, C. E. (2016). “Why do you make me hate myself?”: Reteaching Whiteness, abuse, and love in urban teacher education. *Teaching Education*, 27(2), 194–211.
- National Center for Education Statistics (NCES). (2018). Fast facts. *Author*. Retrieved from <https://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=372>
- Naidoo, K., & Kirch, S. A. (2016). Candidates use a new teacher development process, transformative reflection, to identify and address teaching and learning problems in their work with children. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 67(5), 379–391.

- Ndemanu, M. T. (2014). Multicultural teacher education courses are not designed for all pre-service teachers: An African American student teacher's perspective. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 41(3), 64–78.
- Picower, B. (2009). The unexamined Whiteness of teaching: How White teachers maintain and enact dominant ideologies. *Race Ethnicity and Education*, 12(2), 197–215.
- Puchner, L. and Markowitz, L. (2015). Do Black families value education? White teachers, institutional cultural narratives, & beliefs about African Americans. *Multicultural Education*, 23(1), 9–16.
- Ronfeldt, M. (2012). Where should student teachers learn to teach? Effects of field placement school characteristics on teacher retention and effectiveness. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, (34)1, 3–26.
- Saldana, J. (2016). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers* (3rd ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Sleeter, C. (2001). Preparing teachers for culturally diverse schools: Research and the overwhelming presence of whiteness. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 52(2), 94–106.
- Stith–Williams, V., & Haynes, P. L. M. (2007). For cultural competence: Knowledge, skills and dispositions needed to embrace diversity. *Virginia Department of Education*. Retrieved from http://www.doe.virginia.gov/special_ed/tech_asst_prof_dev/self_assessment/disproportionality/cultural_competence_manual.pdf
- Sobel, D. M., Gutierrez, C., Zion, S., & Blanchett, W. (2011). Deepening cultural understandings within a teacher education program: It's a process. *Teacher Development*, 15(4), 435–452.

Toshalis, E. (2010). From disciplined to disciplinarian: The reproduction of symbolic violence in preservice teacher education. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 42(1), 1– 31

University of Michigan. (2017). High-leverage practices. *Teaching Works*. Retrieved from <http://www.teachingworks.org/work-of-teaching/high-leverage-practices>

Integrating Biography-based Video in a Multiplatform Approach to Teach Historical Thinking

Elizabeth Langran, PhD
Marymount University

Marsha Alibrandi, EdD
Fairfield University

Abstract

Two teacher educators collaborated with teachers, media designers, and evaluators to utilize a video, an interactive website, and accompanying curriculum to engage middle school students in historical thinking and learning of history content. The resulting multiplatform project, based on a young Frederick Douglass' life, was piloted in three schools of varying demographics. Results indicated that treatment groups had greater gains in historical knowledge and thinking and exhibited greater student engagement than comparison groups. While students empathized with the young Douglass portrayed in the video and in autobiographical texts, their abilities to interpret primary sources required significant scaffolding. Though none of the pilot teachers perceived themselves as technology users, they responded positively to the experience and used more student-centered lessons with treatment groups than with comparison groups.

Keywords: historical thinking, primary sources, social studies

Social studies teacher educators prepare their preservice teachers to support historical thinking and understanding; this includes the ability to accurately identify primary and secondary sources, interpret documents and other historical materials, and discern historical cause and effect (Wineburg, 2001). While video and film have been standard tools in social studies classrooms for decades, the addition of other types of media in a *multiplatform* approach are at the core of the current study that included a biography-based video, interactive website and

accompanying curriculum to teach historical thinking and history content knowledge to middle school students.

In the following sections, an exploration of the literature in historical thinking as aided by digital primary sources and video indicates that these media assist student learning; yet more evidence in this area is needed. Research thus far reifies the importance of preparing teachers to be able to plan, interpret, facilitate, guide reflection on and assess the impact of using these media to make meaning of the past, and the support that technology can provide teachers in such tasks (Callahan, Saye, & Brush, 2015; Salinas, Bellows, & Liaw, 2011; Saye & Brush, 2002; Waring & Bentley, 2012).

Supporting Historical Thinking: Conceptual Framework

The National Council for the Social Studies' College, Career, and Civic Life Framework affirms that historical thinking and inquiry are critical components in helping students to remember content (NCSS, 2013). Historical thinking focuses on skills historians use, such as weighing different perspectives, investigating primary sources, and evaluating information critically; these skills are essential in teaching people to understand others different from themselves (Levisohn, 2017; Wineburg, 2001). Despite the consensus on the importance of historical thinking since Wineburg's conceptualization in 1991, in schools of education preservice teacher programs there may be more promotion of educational theories than systemic research findings, leading to middle and high school history students receiving "only modest exposure to these teaching concepts and related strategies" (Lovern, 2012, p. 569). Tally and Goldberg's research concludes that activities need "clear curriculum linkages and small exercises that give students guidance in working with different kinds of documents (visual, textual, and

audio)” (Tally & Goldberg, 2005, p.1). Historical thinking is supported by primary sources providing evidence, tensions, contradictions, and questions (Salinas, Bellows, & Liaw, 2011).

Technology and Primary Sources

Preservice teachers need to understand that considerable preparation is required for primary and secondary students to make sense of primary sources (Hofer & Swan, 2005; Martin, 2012; Mason et al., 2000). Historical thinking is not automatically achieved when students use primary sources; instead, significant teacher scaffolding is required to practice those skills. Technology has “potential for facilitating these processes, but it is the teacher who leverages the technology to conduct historical inquiry in the classroom” (Swan & Locascio, 2008. p. 2). Scaffolding activities give students familiarity and flexibility when working with primary sources. These scaffolds provide a graduated structure of learning activities to build mastery, and can be embedded in technology-based activities, as Saye and Brush (2002) promote.

Technology has the potential to extend learning to support inquiry, perspective taking, and meaning making, and help students become more active agents in their learning (Mason et al, 2000; Barrow, Anderson, & Horner, 2017). It can provide the “leverage so urgently needed for moving social studies instruction away from passive, teacher-dominated approaches emphasizing recall and regurgitation toward active student-centered forms of learning demanding critical and conceptual thinking from all students at all levels” (Crocco, 2001, p. 2). While numerous digital history resources, such as digital primary sources, digital storytelling tools, video, social media platforms, and interactive timelines are available online, classrooms are not necessarily using them effectively to promote historical thinking. This prompts the question of how to design media and constructivist activities to best support historical thinking

and engagement in classrooms and providing embedded scaffolding to aid teachers in guiding students.

Anchoring in Biography-based Video

Anchoring content in biographies can facilitate the development of historical thinking skills (Waring & Bentley, 2012). Using historic figures close in age to target audiences attempts to establish connections with students and demonstrates that young people can take extraordinary and heroic actions. This peer-oriented approach may support historical empathy or understanding and appreciating contexts and decision-making of historical figures (Davis, Yeager, & Foster, 2001; Lowenthal, 1985; Shemilt, 1984; Tally, Diamond, & Goldstein, 2008; Wineburg, 2001; Wyman, 2005). Through video segments, stories can situate subsequent activities.

Video is an important influence on students' historical understanding; however, pre- and in-service teachers need to understand *how* to make use of video in the classroom (Buchanan, 2015; Wineburg, Mosborg, Porat & Duncan, 2007). Video should be used in a structured way with other activities built into the video experience (Bell & Bull, 2010). In previous research on video's impact on historical thinking, Saye and Brush concluded:

...expert guidance may be embedded into the learning environment to give students conceptual and strategic road maps that assist them in understanding the process of disciplined inquiry...We suggest that embedded scaffolds may be used to support teachers by reducing the amount of spontaneous scaffolding they must do in an ill-structured environment and discuss other steps that might be taken to encourage problem-based inquiry (Saye & Brush, 2002, p. 77).

While Say and Brush (2002) indicated the importance of the teacher's role in aiding students in complex conceptual tasks, they also point to "embedded scaffolds" (e.g., built-in and extension activities) that can support teachers in guiding students.

Designing to Promote Historical Thinking and Learning

A team of teacher educators, media designers, content experts and evaluators formed to develop a multiplatform approach using interactive media to extend the value of biographical video to teach historical thinking, empathy and knowledge. Project development was grounded within the research noted above, and the project used teacher and student focus groups during the design phase.

Teacher Focus Groups

Two groups (one urban (n=13), one suburban (n=14)) of middle school teachers and school media specialists met with the team to discuss how teachers use digital technology to engage students in social studies classrooms. Following an overview of the goals of the project, introductions, and discussion of what the teachers found rewarding and challenging in their classrooms, the focus group questions centered around how their social studies curriculum is organized (i.e., use of textbook or other materials; coverage of a particular period in sequence; thematic approaches; role of standards and testing); what technology configuration is available and used, and for what purposes; and how the teachers currently teach Frederick Douglass, slavery, and civil rights. These teachers cited biography as a popular means of engaging middle school students; they employed online resources, video and digital storytelling to promote critical thinking and encouraged students to view history as relevant and meaningful. While many urban teachers voiced the challenges of students' lack of background knowledge, largely blamed on testing pressure, most participants acknowledged value in project-based learning and

student-authored multimedia (“...if the teacher’s leading it, there’s kids who are going to tune out... [rather than] if they were sitting there trying to figure it out for themselves,” -urban teacher).

When asked about reasons why teachers might not use existing educational websites, participants cited lack of time to sort through resources to find appropriate materials matching curricular requirements and students’ abilities. Sites with more flexibility were popular. Those that allowed teachers to fit what they needed to cover at an appropriate level for their students and within the allotted time for part of a lesson or an entire unit were used more often. These comments guided project design to give teachers choices about how much or little of the unit to cover.

Student Focus Groups

The team conducted focus groups with one suburban (n=17) and two urban (n=8, n=8) middle school classes. These students gave input about experiences in social studies classrooms and shared preferences about Internet usage and favorite websites. They read an early copy of the script of the video that was to be filmed on young Fredrick Douglass’ life, and gave feedback on aspects they found engaging, unappealing or incomprehensible. Students tested and shared thoughts about graphic novels and digital storytelling tools demonstrated for their feedback.

Design

Based on this understanding of teacher and student needs and review of relevant literature, the team collaborated on the project design for a user-friendly, web-based, learner-centered suite of classroom tools.

Anchoring in biography-based video. At the center of this project was a video narrative. The project team chose Frederick Douglass based on his historical importance, his

dramatic story and the availability of autobiographic primary source documents describing his young life. By focusing on his early years, it was hypothesized that students would have greater historical empathy, a critical component of historical thinking. Docere Palace Studios produced a 30-minute video based on Douglass' autobiography with designed stop-action at critical decision-making moments.

Interactive web activities and student authorship. The project team determined that interactive web activities (developed by Eduweb) would give students hands-on experience and appeal to today's technology-engaged learners. The web-based approach allowed the designers to modify and add to activities as ideas emerged. In addition to giving students online communication space and access to primary sources, the designers also wanted to support teachers with resources, concepts covered and a discussion board for posting and commenting on lesson ideas.

Teacher focus groups revealed the popularity of digital storytelling. On the accompanying website, students not only created stories that extended the action of the video's critical moment but also shared them with other students. As students viewed online creations, they were invited to comment and rate them.

Research Questions

To determine the effectiveness of this multiplatform approach, the following research questions were identified:

1. History learning: Do treatment-group students
 - demonstrate gains in historical knowledge?
 - demonstrate gains in historical thinking skills/historical empathy?

- take away key messages about tragic aspects of slavery, the importance of equal treatment and education/literacy?
2. Student interest/appeal: Do students in treatment classrooms find activities compelling and appealing compared to traditional classroom activities? Do they talk about them at home and share them with peers and family?
 3. Teacher adoptability: Do participating teachers see these materials and activities as useful, flexible and easy to use in relation to content goals and teaching style?
 4. Implementation: How does implementation differ according to school setting/resources, teacher choices and prior student learning? What teaching and learning sequences and supports hold the most promise for advancing student learning?

Methodology

The authors of this paper (two university education department faculty), along with the project grant evaluators from the Education Development Center (EDC) for Children and Technology, with technical assistance from Docere Palace Studios, conducted a five-day pilot test of the video, website and curriculum in U.S. History classrooms at three middle schools. The team provided oversight throughout the pilot test. Because there was insufficient time to train the teachers in using the pilot materials, the authors provided technical assistance during treatment-group classes.

Treatment classes used the following:

- Frederick Douglass video in two segments: the first depicts the young Douglass from birth to a “choice point” when he is being taught how to read; the second segment shows the resolution of the “reading scene” from part one and continues until Douglass’ escape to the North.

- Online graphic novel tool: After viewing the first segment, students created their own conclusion to the scene with graphic novel tools and an archive of fifty-seven digitized primary sources. Students could view and comment on their peers' graphic novels.
- Teacher curriculum guide with lesson plans.

The comparison classes used

- Text-only historical information regarding the same time-period of Frederick Douglass' life (two schools read from *The Frederick Douglass You Never Knew*, and one class read the video script because the teacher thought the reading level would be better aligned with his students' abilities).
- Teacher curriculum guide with lesson plans

Table 1

Pilot Test Schedule

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5
Treatment Classes	Pre-tests; watch and discuss Frederick Douglass video #1 (stops at choice point)	Make online graphic novels	Post graphic novels; peer review (comment and rate)	Watch and discuss Frederick Douglass video #2 (conclusion of scene from Day 1)	Post-tests; student and teacher interviews
Comparison Classes	Pre-tests; read selected Frederick Douglass print-based texts	Continued guided reading	Group presentations on the readings	Conclude presentations on the readings	Post-tests; student interviews

Participants

Three middle schools of varying demographics participated in the pilot study; students in half of the U.S. History classes used the video and web-based materials (n=140), and half used traditional print-based materials (n=143).

Table 2

Survey Participants

School & grade	Demographics	U.S. History Teacher	Students in comparison classes	Students in treatment classes
Middle School A, 8th grade	Suburban, magnet, mixed-income, mixed-race	Ms. A. White female 7 years experience	52: 33 girls, 19 boys	45: 20 girls, 25 boys
Middle School B, 7th grade	Urban, low-income, primarily African-American & Hispanic	Mr. B. African-American male; 4 years experience	30: 11 girls, 19 boys	52: 19 girls, 33 boys
Middle School C, 8th grade	Suburban, high-income, primarily white	Mr. C. White male; over 30 years experience	61: 27 girls, 34 boys	43: 18 girls, 25 boys
Total:			143	140

Data Collection and Analysis

The data collected during the five-day pilot were from

- Written pre- and post-tests

- Classroom observations
- Student and teacher interviews
- Student-produced materials (e.g., graphic novels and paper-produced materials)

This study used both qualitative and quantitative measures to achieve convergent validity and a more complete understanding of students' learning and teacher and student experiences with the materials in the three settings. Quantitative data were calculated using written instruments (i.e., pre/post content knowledge questionnaire, pre/post historical thinking skills instrument, and survey of student attitudes toward history and technology). Eight knowledge goals and historical thinking traits (e.g., identify the tragic aspects of slavery; evaluate Douglass' actions in opposing slavery, discrimination, and racism) were represented in the pre/post knowledge questionnaire and interview data. EDC researchers blind-coded student responses with a four-point scale rubric for accuracy and depth of response. Pre-post gains for each question were compared across treatment and control groups and used to calculate descriptive statistics. The survey, transcribed student and teacher interviews, and classroom observation field notes were coded for themes of equality, education, literacy, interest and appeal, and teacher adoptability. Student work, such as the graphic novels (treatment groups) and essays (comparison groups), was examined to see if they exhibited historical thinking and if stories were supported with historical evidence.

Findings

Treatment-group students viewed a ten-minute video before pausing at a "choice point." Frederick Douglass, a slave around nine years old, is being taught to read by Sophia Auld. Sophia's husband takes her aside, telling her to cease teaching Douglass, as it will only make

him rebellious. The scene freezes before Sophia responds to her husband. The online graphic novel tool gave students the opportunity to finish the scene by entering text into speech bubbles.

This activity emerged as a useful tool for enabling students to project themselves into the historical milieu. History as decision-making within constructive environments becomes a space where students engage imagination and develop historical empathy. Carefully selected critical “choice-point” moments are ideally connected to larger historical moments, in this case with literacy and freedom, and provide entry into understanding and explaining the behavior of historical acts. It is critical to further contextualize and make students’ historical referencing more complex to avoid judging past actors by present standards; presentism, “the act of viewing the past through the lens of the present, is a psychological... state that must be overcome before one achieves mature historical understanding” (Wineburg, 2001, p. 90).

After watching the video, treatment-group students wrote more voluminously and more factually about details of Douglass’ early life and how the hardships of slavery affected Douglass. Control-group classes read traditional print-based resources and discussed Douglass’ life in more general terms. However, most students still struggled with notions of “presentism” when creating plausible stories supported by primary sources.

In the second part of the graphic novel activity, students were prompted to support their stories with evidence. A selection of fifty-seven digital primary sources was available within the website after students completed the graphic novel panels; students chose at least two sources with a brief explanation of how these sources supported their stories. EDC researchers analyzed 66 stories submitted by treatment groups for historical plausibility and the quality of support the students chose (see Table 2). Many students were unable to support their stories with evidence. While 85% selected primary sources, only 11% of stories had both supportive documents and a

plausible decision. The online tool provided access to primary sources but did not support students in making the connection between the documents and a historically plausible decision.

Two-thirds of stories were on-topic, with a clear decision about the struggle for literacy. However, most students chose a decision that was historically implausible—Sophia stands up to her husband and continues teaching Douglass to read (See Table 3). For these middle school students, Sophia acted the way she did because she was “nice.” This reflected presentist notions about women’s roles, as well as the idea common at this age that people in history acted according to whether they are “nice” or “mean.”

Table 3

Analysis of students’ stories

Mrs. Auld is primary decision-maker	Plausible: Obeys husband, stops teaching Frederick	9 stories (13.6%)
	Implausible: Disobeys husband, continues teaching Frederick	25 stories (37.9%)
<u>Frederick is primary decision-maker</u>	Plausible: He teaches himself	12 stories (18.2%)
	Implausible: He fights	1 story (1.5%)
No decision is made		19 stories (28.8%)

Next, students shared their graphic novels and reviewed peers’ stories. Again, building this into the tool did not necessarily mean students were able to engage in critical thinking.

While from their own social digital media habits, the students were familiar with the process of reviewing and commenting, they needed more structure and support in determining criteria for evaluation. A rubric was developed and distributed to the students, but used by few.

The last step in the activity was to watch the conclusion of the scene at the Aulds' home to learn the outcome of the story and debrief with the teacher. This provided a good venue for teachers to guide the students' thinking and address misconceptions.

Student Learning

Historical knowledge about Frederick Douglass and slavery assessment indicated treatment-group students had greater gains than comparison students; they were better able to explain who Douglass was, the human cost of slavery, ways that Douglass and others challenged the slave system and why Douglass' life matters to young people like themselves. EDC researchers blind-coded students' written responses using a 4-point scale for accuracy and depth of response, and compared pre-post gains for each question across treatment and comparison groups. Results are found in Table 4.

Table 4

Historical knowledge gains for comparison and treatment groups

Questionnaire item	Project Goal	Comparison Group Gains	Treatment Group Gains
Who Was Frederick Douglass?	Explain why Douglass is considered a great American	+6	+15
Under slavery, what are some of the hardships slaves suffered? Name as many as you can.	Identify the tragic aspects of slavery	+3	+5
	Understand the personal hardships faced by enslaved people		

What do you think was the worst thing slaves suffered? Why was this worst?	Identify the tragic aspects of slavery	0	+6
	Understand the personal hardships faced by enslaved people		
Why didn't more slaves just run away?	Identify the tragic aspects of slavery	+8	+2
	Understand the personal hardships faced by enslaved people		
How did slavery affect Frederick Douglass' life?	Explain the connection between slavery and racism	+17	+21
	Evaluate Douglass' actions in opposing slavery, discrimination and racism		
What are some of the things that Frederick Douglass did in response to the slavery he grew up with?	Evaluate Douglass' actions in opposing slavery, discrimination and racism	+25	+36
Why does Frederick Douglass matter to people today?	Determine the extent to which Douglass was a man of his time or for all time	+13	+15
	Examine the relevance of Douglass to issues affecting young people today		
	Explain why Douglass is considered a great American		

What if anything can young people like you learn from the life of Frederick Douglass?	Understand the importance of education in their own [students'] lives	+11	+17
	Examine the relevance of Douglass to issues affecting young people today		
Total:		83	117

The greatest gains were seen in Middle School B (low income, urban) and the smallest gains in Middle School C (upper-income, suburban). Project evaluators attribute this to differences in student prior knowledge and teacher skill; additionally, the video and web-based approach and content may resonate more strongly with the minority students predominant in Middle School B (Tally et al., 2008).

While treatment-group students had gains in historical thinking, they were not significantly greater than those in comparison classrooms. However, there was evidence that the video and web-based materials helped *prepare* students to engage in historical thinking and empathy. By asking them to imagine the worlds of Douglass and the Aulds using primary source documents, students justified the characters' decisions, moving toward historical empathy. Project evaluators point to the limited time spent on these activities during the pilot test phase; students may show greater gains if given more time to reflect on and discuss the web-based activities.

In post-test items and interviews, students were asked what lessons young people can take away from Douglass' life. While both groups brought up personal characteristics like courage and persistence, treatment-group students also discussed equality, education and literacy

more prominently (i.e., Douglass' life showed how important it is for all people to be treated equally and how vital literacy can be in the struggle for self-determination).

Student Engagement

Students in all treatment groups were fully engaged during the video and while creating graphic novels. This is particularly noteworthy because the pilot was conducted during the final weeks of school, with schedule changes due to field trips, award ceremony rehearsals, and early dismissals during an excessive heat wave. Researchers noted 20 to 60 percent of students in comparison classrooms regularly exhibited signs of distraction (e.g., talking, drawing, putting heads down on desk, reading magazines).

During interviews, students told researchers they enjoyed using the video and web-based materials:

- *[It] was really different, but in a good way, because we're not used to like using like technology, like the computers and watching movies. We usually just use our workbooks and...textbooks.*
- *I liked the reading and the commenting because you could read whatever you wanted to and do it...I also liked it...because you got to see other people's stories that they made.*
- *I liked the storyboard thing, because you got to work with people and then you got to choose like whatever you wanted to on the thought bubbles and stuff.*

Seventy percent of treatment-group students sampled (n=82) had talked about their experience with family or friends outside of class. Additionally, treatment-group students showed more interest in creating stories about the past and analyzing primary source documents than students in the comparison groups.

- *After we did the computer thing, I kept thinking to myself, I'm like, oh my god, I'm going to go out and finish it.*
- *I talked to a bunch of my friends who are doing the same thing in other classes. We kind of talked about it, and we thought, that we thought it was really fun. And also, I talked to my parents about it a little bit.*

Students took away messages about (a) the importance of personal courage (“I think what we can learn is to have a fighting spirit. Frederick Douglass always fought his oppression because he was under. He secretly taught himself to read...he bravely escaped slavery—he is inspirational”), (b) the value of persistence (“We can learn that even if you think you can’t do something, you shouldn’t give up and look for other ways to accomplish it”), and (c) education’s role in the struggle to overcome oppression (“If you have an education you could overcome a great obstacle”).

Additionally, some students were able to connect these themes and the portrayal of the young Frederick Douglass to their own lives:

- *I liked that it was more similar to our lives instead of us learning about old people, like when they're older. And it showed more about how they lived at our age instead of, and like living in our age right now.*
- *I came here five years ago, so the part where he was telling people, “Can you help me?,” and pointing at stuff, and then they'd tell him. I could relate to that because I actually wanted to learn to speak, to communicate with others. I actually wasn't able to communicate with others and it was kind of boring and sad.*

- *When my dad was young, he wasn't allowed to read or write because he had to work at a farm. And he would always like read or write things, but with his brothers, or his own neighbors. And that's how he learned to read and write. And he became like very smart when he finally got to school.*

Teacher Responses

During interviews, all three teachers noted treatment-group students exhibited increased engagement and motivation. While these teachers represented a range of experience in teaching, none had significant experience using technology (“Normally for me, the technology comes last—I use it as a reward” - Ms. A); yet they found the digital materials easy to use and were interested in using these materials again. They made suggestions for improving materials and expressed a desire to see more historical biography stories available. The researchers noted these teachers all moved toward more student-centered approaches while using the video and web-based materials when compared with traditional print-based materials.

Conclusion

The video and web-based materials were used differently in each school, depending on teacher experience, student literacy and prior knowledge, and school schedules and resources. For example, Middle School C had complete access to a technology lab and a teacher with more than 30 years of experience, while Middle School B had great barriers to technology use (no clear procedure for getting a classroom projector or laptops, inadequate wifi) and a teacher who was in his first four years of teaching. Nevertheless, treatment groups showed common gains among all three schools, demonstrating that the general approach and in-particular the young Frederick Douglass video and graphic novel tool show great promise in engaging students in learning and historical thinking and empathy. More time needs to be spent on the lessons,

allowing students to discuss and digest the experience, and clear criteria for assessing students' stories and arguments need to be developed.

The implications for social studies teacher education point to the need to prepare preservice teachers to utilize video and web-based technologies, but also to consider the amount of scaffolding they will need to provide their students. Introduction and decoding of primary sources is developmentally appropriate for middle school students but requires support and guidance (Hofer & Swan, 2005). In each school, some work with primary sources had taken place during the regular school year. Even with that preparation, students struggled with applying primary sources to develop a plausible story sufficient to overcome "presentism." Further development of scaffolding for online activities in using and understanding primary sources is necessary.

As teacher educators, the authors of this paper have modified our own practice in our methods courses to place greater emphasis on helping our preservice teachers to develop materials and lesson plans that incorporate significant scaffolding for the increasing bounty of digital resources available to use in the classroom. Dramatic video, the ability to remix video content as a graphic novel, digital primary sources and sharing student-generated content online have great potential. As little prior research has conclusively demonstrated lasting comprehension or concept development in early stages of primary source document use, our findings may be helpful to social studies educators and preservice teachers in understanding developmental stages of historical thinking.

Note

The authors wish to thank the creative team from YAH and pilot teachers and students. Special appreciation is extended to Bill Tally (EDC) for guidance and thoughtful conversations

with the authors and to Docere Palace Studios for initiating and providing leadership for this project.

References

- Barrow, E., Anderson, J., & Horner, M. (2017). The role of photoblogs in social studies classroom: Learning about the people of the Civil War. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education*, 17(4).
- Bell, L., & Bull, G. (2010). Digital video and teaching. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education*, 10(1), 1-6.
- Buchanan, L. B. (2015). Fostering historical thinking toward civil rights movement counter-narratives; Documentary film in Elementary social studies. *The Social Studies*, 106, 47-56.
- Callahan, C., Saye, J., & Brush, T. (2015). Supporting in-service teachers' professional teaching knowledge with educatively scaffolded digital curriculum. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education*, 15(4), 568-599.
- Crocco, M. S. (2001), Leveraging constructivist learning in the social studies classroom: A response to Mason, Berson, Diem, Hicks, Lee, and Dralle. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education*, 1(3).
- Davis, O.L., Yeager, E.A. & Foster, S.J. (Eds.) (2001). *Historical empathy and perspective taking in the social studies*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Hofer, M., & Swan, K. O. (2005). Digital image manipulation: A compelling means to engage students in discussion of point of view and perspective. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education*, 5(3/4), 290-299.

- Levisohn, J. A. (2017). Historical thinking – and its alleged unnaturalness. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 49(6), 618-630.
- Lovern, M. (2012). Historiography in the methods course: Training preservice history teachers to evaluate local historical commemorations. *The History Teacher*, 45(4), 569-579.
- Lowenthal, D. (1985). *The past is a foreign country*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Martin, D. (2012). Using core historical thinking concepts in an elementary history methods course. *The History Teacher*, 4(4), 581-602.
- Mason, C., Berson, M., Diem, R., Hicks, D., Lee, J. & Dralle, T. (2000). Guidelines for using technology to prepare social studies teachers. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education*, 1(1), 107-116.
- Molebash, P. E. (2002). Constructivism meets technology integration: The CUFA technology guidelines in an elementary social studies methods course. *Theory and Research on Social Education*, 30(3), 429-455.
- National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) (2013). *The College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards: Guidance for Enhancing the Rigor of K-12 Civics, Economics, Geography, and History*. Silver Spring, MD: NCSS.
- Salinas, C., Bellows, M. E., & Liaw, H. L. (2011). Preservice social studies teachers' historical thinking and digitized primary sources: What they use and why. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education*, 11(2).
- Saye, J. & Brush, T. (2002). Scaffolding critical reasoning about history and social issues in multimedia-supported learning environments. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 50(3), 77-96.

- Shemilt, D. (1984). Beauty and the philosopher: Empathy in history and classroom. In A.K. Dickinson, P.J. Lee, and P.J. Rogers (Eds.), *Learning history* (pp. 39–84). London, England: Heinemann.
- Swan, K., & Locascio, D. (2008). Alignment of technology and primary source use within a history classroom. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education*, 8(2), 175-186.
- Tally, W., Diamond, J., & Goldstein, M. (2008). *Evaluation of the Young American Heroes project*. New York: Center for Children and Technology.
- Waring, S. M., & Bentley, C. C. (2012). Constructing historical profiles with digital natives. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education*, 12(2).
- Wineburg, S. (2001). *Historical thinking and other unnatural acts: Charting the future of teaching the past*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Wineburg, S., Mosborg, S., Porat, D., & Duncan, A. (2007, March). Common belief and the cultural curriculum: An intergenerational study of historical consciousness. *American Educational Research Journal*, 44(1), 40-76.
- Wyman, R. (2005). *America's History Through Young Voices*. Boston: Pearson Education.

Learning to SURF: Teachers and Researchers Creating Partnerships for Success

Clara Hauth, PhD

Marymount University

Yojanna Cuenca-Carlino, PhD

Illinois State University

Sara Mills, PhD

Macquarie University

Dannette Allen-Bronaugh, PhD

James Madison University

Catherine Creighton Thompson, PhD

Fairfax County Public Schools

Abstract

Strong collaborative partnerships between teachers and researchers who are interested in enhancing the outcomes of students with disabilities have the potential to improve student outcomes, facilitating a wave of student success. Teachers and researchers share their unique expertise in this collaborative partnership in order to understand student needs, outline research-based/evidence-based practices to address those needs and implement strategies with fidelity in the classroom. Critical factors in these partnerships include tenets of implementation science (exploration, installation, initial implementation, full implementation), collaboration, effective planning, and practice-based professional development. This article proposes a conceptual framework and examples of how to build a collaborative practice through the SURF model. Responsibilities within these partnerships and a four-step process are proposed. Guidelines for future collaborations are discussed to ensure that quality intervention research in special education is achieved.

Keywords: collaboration, conducting intervention research, teacher-researcher relationship

Conducting research in the special education field is an intricate process due to the multidimensional aspects that are unique to this area of study (e.g., multiple disability categories and specific needs of students, various educational settings in which these students are taught, as well as the cultural and linguistic diversity within the special education population) (Odom et al., 2005). Nevertheless, research is consistently being conducted and published in the field. The research community has been working diligently to determine what defines an instructional practice as research-based or evidence-based, and which instructional practices are deemed acceptable (CEC, 2014; U.S. Department of Education, 2013). Efforts over the past decade have emphasized instructional practices that are evidence-based (What Works Clearinghouse) based on the assumption that informing teachers about effective, evidence-based practices was the key to improving student achievement. But informing teachers what they should be doing has not been sufficient to improve student learning (Nichols, Glass, & Berliner, 2012).

For years the research-to-practice gap has been documented as an issue in the field of education (Cowie et al., 2015; Cooper & Shewchuck, 2015; Greenwood & Abbot, 2001; Vanderlinde & van Braak, 2010). Researchers have suggested numerous ways to address this gap. Some have proposed revisiting the dissemination process and practitioners' accessibility to research (e.g., Carnine, 1997; Kretlow & Blatz, 2011; Vanderlinde & van Braak, 2010). Other researchers have suggested ensuring the practicality and relevance of the research for the teacher and students, and considering the sustainability of practices (Carnine, 1997; Gersten, Chard, & Baker, 2000; Greenwood & Abbot 2001). Others have suggested enhancing the communication between teachers and researchers, and encouraging teachers to be involved in the research process (Carnine, 1997; De Vries & Pieters, 2007; Greenwood & Abbot 2001). It seems this last proposal, teachers and researchers collaborating in the research process, has the most potential to

shed light on how practices will work in the classroom. This collaboration helps the field examine whether the practices being investigated are indeed effective in specific contexts (Odom et al., 2005), get feedback on how the practices work in real educational environments (Postholm, 2009), and identify necessary changes/modifications based on the findings. In essence, using tenets of implementation science can guide the collaboration between researchers and school divisions in order to narrow the research-to-practice gap.

Implementation science, the scientific investigation of ways to scale up evidence-based practices to the real world, originated in the health care field. Health care researchers examined practices that improved medical services and patient care. Once evidence-based practices were identified, dissemination of these evidence-based practices was not realized or sustained in the real world. Researchers determined that identification of an evidence-based practice was not enough. Researchers also needed to find ways to enhance implementation of these practices in the real world in order to truly improve medical services and patient care (Cook & Odom, 2013; Eccles & Mittman, 2006). Similarly, education researchers identified evidence-based practices that improved students' skills and outcomes. Once evidence-based practices were identified, scaling up these practices to the classroom proved difficult. Many teachers implemented practices without fidelity, and sometimes did not want to change their practices from long sustaining instructional strategies they had used for years and perceived as effective.

Implementation science in education is in its infancy. Clear guidelines are necessary for scaling up of evidence-based practices to the real world to make an impact on student learning (Cook & Odom, 2013; Fixsen, Blase, Metz & Van Dyke, 2013).

Implementation science focuses on ensuring that researchers use effective methods to design and deliver evidence-based interventions into the hands of teachers (Fixsen et. al, 2005).

According to Fixsen et al. (2013), effective implementation science goes through four stages, (a) exploration, (b) installation, (c) initial implementation, and (d) full implementation. In the exploration stage, a common understanding of the needs of the organization (district or school) are determined in order to move forward in the cycle. During the installation stage, identifying the resources, personnel, and training required to conduct the research is of utmost importance. During the initial implementation stage, members of the team learn and implement new skills. Modifications and adjustments occur in an ongoing reflective process. Full implementation occurs when the practice is adopted and activities to sustain the innovation are established. In implementation science, short cycles of innovation can be used to refine the instructional practice into statewide programs (Fixsen et al., 2013).

This model also provides an overarching structure needed for effective teacher-researcher collaborations on a smaller scale. Partnering together, researchers and teachers collaborate to build stronger programs in schools while ensuring that research and evidence-based practices are implemented with fidelity. This will ultimately improve student outcomes (Cowie et al., 2015; Greenwood & Abbot, 2001).

The purpose of this article is to propose a new structure for improving the implementation process, a four-step conceptual framework, SURF (**S** – setting the stage, **U**– understanding methodology and professional development, **R** – research in action, **F**– follow-up and sustainability). This SURF framework supports the collaborative process needed to create partnerships between schools, teachers, and educational researchers in order to conduct quality intervention research in the special education classroom and ultimately improve student outcomes. Our intent is to provide an easy to follow framework, predicated on the tenets of

implementation science, that can be used by teacher/researcher teams to implement research and evidence-based interventions designed to enhance teachers' instructional practices. See Figure 1.

SURF Framework

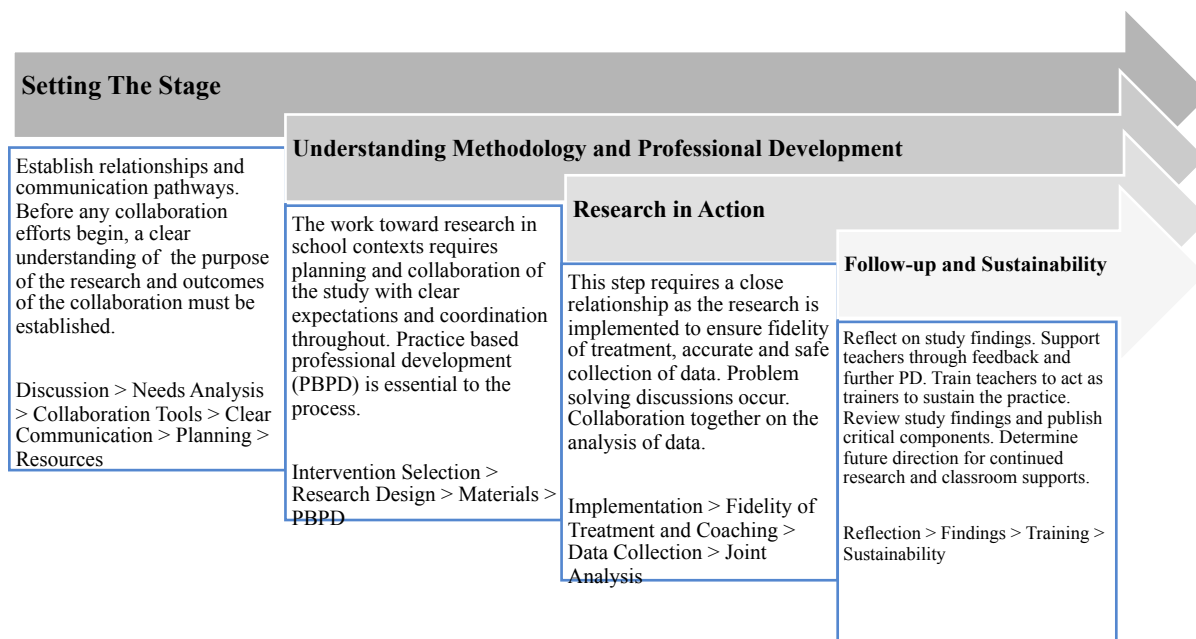


Figure 1. SURF four steps for collaborative projects in school based intervention research

Step 1. Setting the Stage

Just like the *exploration* stage in implementation science, before any collaborative efforts begin, it is crucial to have a clear understanding of the purpose of the research and the desired outcomes of the collaboration. Teachers and researchers are not at cross-purposes, both career fields strive to increase the knowledge and resource base to support students with disabilities. Many districts and schools have instructional priorities and initiatives which encourage teachers to collaborate and reflect on their current practices and find ways to improve these practices. This is a prime opportunity for researchers and school districts to establish partnerships to support district initiatives and improve teacher practices and student outcomes. When setting the

stage, communication and collaboration between teachers and researchers is key to a successful relationship. Research in schools happens in several ways. Teachers can reach out to researchers to discuss strategies to support classroom academic deficits. Researchers can approach schools and teachers to discuss new intervention ideas and gauge interest in conducting a research project to determine the effectiveness of an intervention. The first step teachers and researchers should engage in once a relationship is developed is to conduct a needs assessment. This assessment will help to determine student needs, appropriate research- or evidence-based interventions being implemented, and determine roles and responsibilities of both school personnel and the research team.

Collaboration is an indispensable skill in today's school environment and special education teachers must effectively collaborate with other disciplines to provide services successfully to students with disabilities (Brownell, Adams, Sindelar, Waldron, & Vanhover, 2006). When working in a collaborative relationship, stakeholders should have a clear understanding of the fundamentals of collaboration to be successful. Friend and Cook (2017) clearly define six fundamental precepts of effective collaboration: voluntarism, parity among participants, establishment of mutual goals, shared responsibility and decision making, shared resources, and shared accountability for results. These precepts are applicable when conducting intervention research in schools.

Researchers provide expertise in research design, data collection and analysis, and knowledge about specific research- or evidence-based strategies. Teachers directly work with students, understand their needs, and their school culture. Collaboratively, researchers and teachers are equal partners. In order to create a path for clear communication and trust, researchers and teachers need to address two primary questions: "Why should they participate in

intervention research studies?” and “How is the research/evidence-based practice going to support school initiatives, teachers, and the students in the classroom?” A compilation of possible questions to begin the conversation are included in Table 1.

Table 1

Sample teacher and researcher discussion topics

Questions teachers may ask	Questions researchers may ask
Is there research about this issue available?	Does the research strategy/practice match the
What were the results?	school’s instructional focus and
How long will the research take place and how	learning/functional needs of students?
does the research affect the instructional	Does the administration support this research?
schedule?	Do all stakeholders understand the purpose of
Which class and which students meet the	the research?
criteria for participation?	What are the school district’s Internal Review
How will I adjust my curriculum plan to	Board (IRB) policies?
accommodate the research?	Will this research become an instructional
Will I be trained and how will I be supported	priority for teachers?
by the research before, during and after the	Who are the persons assigned to help with
study?	time frames, logistics of the intervention and
What will happen with students who do not	teacher training before, during and after the
have permission to participate in the study?	intervention?
	What kind of professional development

How will results of the study be shared?

structure is available to train the teachers?

How will the results be shared with staff after the intervention?

Prior to beginning research in a school one must obtain administrative support as well as approval from both the university and school district Institutional Review Boards (IRB).

Administrative support is one of the most critical factors for successfully implementing research/evidence-based practices in real classroom settings, as administrators are the gatekeepers of a school. The collaborative process typically begins with a meeting where the stakeholders (e.g., the researcher, school administrator, and teachers) outline the needs, discuss appropriate interventions, develop a timeline, discuss confidentiality issues and consent procedures pursuant to IRB policies, and determine what resources will be needed from all parties. Teachers' buy-in is vital, so the content of the practice must be collaboratively designed to support the school's curricular goals and instructional priorities. This ensures students receive instruction that fulfills the school's learning objectives (Lee, Sachs, & Wheeler, 2014). Similarly, researchers need to understand the workings of the school environment. The timeframe and logistics of the intervention must take into consideration school-wide instructional needs and testing demands.

Step 2. Understanding Methodology and Professional Development

Teachers and researchers have unique roles and responsibilities when they collaborate in the research process. Similar to step two of implementation science, *installation*, when conducting intervention research in schools the resources, training, required tools, and access to materials need to be identified and put into place. Once the intervention is selected, the researcher needs to explain to the school administrators and the teachers the type of research

design that will be used in the classroom, and the guidelines that must be followed to ensure a quality study and confidentiality. For instance, if it is determined that a group experimental design is the best methodology to assess the effectiveness of two different intervention strategies (e.g., a reading comprehension strategy using graphic organizers versus a reading comprehension strategy using self-monitoring procedures), it is important for teachers to understand that the interventions must be taught precisely as designed, with the same amount of instructional time for both groups, and students must be assessed before, during, and after instruction to document their learning (Gersten et al., 2005). Another example might be a single-subject study, where individual or small groups of students will receive an intervention that is administered over a period of time (Horner et al., 2005). Meeting the exact demands of the research designs within a "real world" classroom setting can be accomplished with clear communication and a willingness on the part of all parties to accommodate school schedules, student activities, and teacher schedules.

The next step is for the researcher to train the teachers on the research/evidence based practice. Obtaining administrative support for teacher training and collaborative planning time is imperative. Research clearly shows that one time, sit-and-get training sessions are not sufficient to instruct teachers to implement a new instructional practice (Gulamhussein, 2013; Yoon, Duncan, Lee, Scarloss, & Shapley, 2007). Training must be flexible and iterative given the varied levels of teacher knowledge of evidence-based practices. Teachers should be provided ongoing professional development in order to implement new strategies with fidelity (McKeown et al., 2016; Walpole, McKenna, Uribe-Zarain, & Lamitina, 2010). The professional development must include modeling the new instructional approach and be specific to the subject and grade level that a teacher teaches (Gulamhussein, 2013). Training that has these

characteristics has been shown to change not only teachers' classroom practice, but also to improve students' learning (Yoon et al., 2007). Teachers need, on average, at least 14 hours of professional development, including follow-up, once they implement a new practice in the classroom to improve student learning (Yoon et al., 2007). Therefore, a practice-based professional development (PBPD) approach is recommended to help teachers develop understandings and skills to effectively apply an educational practice (Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Yoon, 2001; Grossman & McDonald, 2008; Harris et al., 2012). In a PBPD approach, time is devoted to building teachers' content and instructional knowledge about the research/evidence-based practice. Planning lessons, observation of an “exemplar” lesson, discussions about treatment fidelity, researcher observations of teachers' lessons, review of students' work, and planning how teachers will implement the strategy in their own classrooms with their own students should be part of the training. Joyce and Showers (2002) stated that training alone did not result in teachers actually changing their practice. Teachers need training along with coaching in order for a change of practice to occur (Joyce & Showers, 2002).

Fidelity of treatment is essential to maximize student outcomes and ensure a strategy is implemented as designed in order to accurately evaluate its effects. Given the importance of fidelity of treatment, it is crucial for teachers to have a clear understanding of how to implement a research/evidence-based practice with fidelity. Research shows that practices implemented with fidelity improve student outcomes (Greenwood, Delquadri, & Hall, 1989; Stein et al., 2008). In fact, when instructional practices are implemented with high fidelity the effectiveness of the strategy is two to three times stronger when compared to strategies that have been implemented with low-fidelity levels (Durlak & DuPre, 2008). Thus, researchers modeling the research/evidence-based practice with all the materials, and then having teachers practice before

implementation is important (McKeown et al., 2016). Ongoing coaching, observations, and support is an essential element of PBPD for the retention and application of new practices (McKeown et al., 2016; Walpole et al., 2010). Miss Chen's case study (Figure 2) provides a look at the PBPD model in action. Once the resources are allocated and established and trainings are completed, the next stage begins.

Miss Chen had been teaching students with emotional and behavioral disorders (EB/D) at her school for three years when her principal approached her about participating in a research study. A professor from a local university, Dr. Bell, was studying a new writing intervention for students with EB/D and was looking for a school in which to conduct her research. Miss Chen had been working hard on writing instruction, spending hours searching for materials to use with her students, only to end up creating things because she could not find materials that would work with her below grade level writers. Miss Chen jumped at the chance to work with an expert and learn more about effective writing instruction.

Before the study began, Miss Chen met with Dr. Bell several days after school. Dr. Bell gave Miss Chen some background information on the Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD) writing strategy, which is considered an evidence-based practice for students with EB/D. Then, she showed Miss Chen videos of the lessons she would be expected to teach. Miss Chen followed along with the videos and ticked off each step of the lessons on a checklist as it occurred. After each video, Miss Chen used the scripted lesson plan and materials to practice teaching the lesson while Dr. Bell pretended to be the student. Periodically, Dr. Bell would pause to remind Miss Chen about a piece she had missed or to give her tips on how to explain a concept to students. By the time she started teaching the students, Miss Chen was confident that she knew what to do.

During the study, Dr. Bell checked in with Miss Chen each week to answer questions, give Miss Chen feedback on the lessons she had taught, and discuss any upcoming study logistics. After the study was over, Dr. Bell shared the students' results with Miss Chen and her principal. Now that she knew how to teach the writing strategy, Miss Chen encouraged her team teacher to try it with two other classes. Miss Chen co-taught with Ms. James, teaching her co-teacher the new strategy as she taught it to the students. At the end of the school year, Miss Chen was pleased to see that all students who had participated in the writing study passed the state writing exam and she was determined to continue using the strategy in the future.

Figure 2. Case study

Step 3. Research in Action

In implementation science, *the initial implementation stage* is when the innovation occurs for the first time (i.e., initial implementation of research in the classroom). The researcher can work with the teachers to manage the day-to-day logistics of the study. For example, teachers

know individual student schedules, which spaces in the school are available for small group work, or when a school-wide assembly might interfere with the teaching schedule. Teachers can help the researcher determine the best time to schedule sessions. Once implementation begins, ongoing observations and coaching with feedback to improve fidelity of treatment should occur (Stein et al., 2008).

Participating in a research study also requires detailed student assessment (Horner et al., 2005; Gersten et al., 2005). Student performance is typically measured before and after the intervention. Depending on the design of the study, students may be assessed throughout instruction as well. Assessments can include standardized measures as well as curriculum-based assessments. Data might also be collected through observation to record on-task and off-task student behavior. For all types of assessment, it is important that assessments be administered in the same way to all participating students so that their results can be compared (Gersten et al., 2005; Horner et al., 2005). Clarity in the design and planning of the research study with schools, teachers, and researchers allows for the building of strong teams and relationships prior to implementation. Further, it is important that researchers and teachers analyze data collaboratively and jointly discuss student performance.

Step 4. Follow Up and Sustainability

After the study has been implemented for the first time, it is imperative to consider ongoing communication and support to ensure the practice continues to be implemented with fidelity. Additional support and follow-up can be accomplished by providing further professional development for other teachers in the school, assisting teachers who participated in the study to conduct the training, and peer coaching. Implementation science is an iterative process. Teachers and researchers work together to adapt and modify an intervention to make it more effective. It

often takes several test-modify-retest cycles to improve the intervention to enhance student learning. Fixsen, Blase, Naoom, and Wallace (2009) state that “training and coaching are the principal ways in which behavior change is brought about” (p. 534). Incorporating new instructional practices with fidelity in the classroom requires a change in behavior for teachers; therefore, it is important for researchers to be there to provide ongoing coaching. Joyce and Showers (2002) found that knowledge and teachers’ ability to demonstrate new skills are significantly greater when coaching is added to the training. Teachers who initially participated in the implementation can become trainers in their schools and serve as peer coaches (Aguilar, 2011). Peer coaching and training provides opportunities for teachers to enhance their skills and support their development while also adding data for their school evaluation cycles. While full implementation and sustainability of the practice within the school does not require intensive researcher involvement, long-term follow-up and support should be considered and addressed by the team. Scheduled consultations and/or refresher training sessions with the research team and schools has potential to improve the sustainability of practice. The review or need for additional funding should also be discussed in alignment with district and school instructional priorities. This final step of our framework is congruent to the *full implementation stage* of implementation science, which states that sustainability is critical to ensure the delivery of effective instruction to all learners (Fixsen et al., 2013).

Discussion

The SURF conceptual framework, which is modeled after the stages of implementation science, serves as a guide for teachers and researchers working collaboratively to ensure effective implementation of research/evidence-based practices in real world classroom settings. According to Fixsen et al. (2013), effective implementation science goes through four stages, (a)

exploration, (b) installation, (c) initial implementation, and (d) full implementation. Cook and Odom (2013) discuss the critical need for structures to support the implementation process in special education. Simply developing effective interventions is not enough. Effective models of implementation rely heavily on teacher knowledge and expertise. Involving teachers in the research process from the beginning better ensures that the interventions researchers are designing and testing will, in fact, be effective in improving student outcomes in the classroom.

The proposed SURF four-step process allows for open communication and partnerships to support quality instruction. Through these partnerships, teachers not only learn to implement research/evidence-based practices in classrooms and improve students' skills and outcomes (Boardman, Arguelles, Vaughn, Hughes, & Klinger, 2005; McKeown et al., 2016; Postholm, 2009; Walpole et al., 2010), but also become an integral part of the development, design, implementation, modification, and sustainability process. Beyond the students who directly participate in the initial implementation of a practice, current and future students in the school will have access to those strategies, as their teachers are trained in such practices and become confident in implementing them independently. Prioritizing fidelity of implementation is important for any school collaborative learning team. Once effects of evidence-based practice on student learning are realized, they have the potential to become established classroom practices. Klinger, Boardman and McMaster (2013) stated that the next phase is developing partnerships between divisions and researchers to scale-up the use of evidence-based practices at the district level. The SURF model offers teachers and researchers a model for collaboration to scale-up research/evidence-based practices within schools and divisions.

Conclusion

Given district and school instructional priorities, university-district/school partnerships are effective ways to meet schools' needs and potentially improve student outcomes. Schools, administrators, and teachers should seek out opportunities to work with researchers in institutions of higher education. Likewise, teacher and administrator preparation programs should encourage the discussion of this framework when training pre-service teachers on research/evidence-based practices. Our experience in the field of special education over decades has shown that researchers working alone and teachers working alone cannot solve the research-to-practice gap. It is only by working together that we can hope to utilize our knowledge of evidence-based practices to truly improve outcomes for our students. Building these relationships to encourage collaboration with teachers and researchers will serve to build and expand the repertoire of high-leverage, evidence-based practices. The SURF model offers a framework to engage in collaborative work as a first step to help bridge the research-to-practice gap.

References

- Aguilar, E. (2011, February 16). Coaching teachers: What you need to know. *Education Week Teacher*. Retrieved from http://www.edweek.org/tm/articles/2011/02/15/tln_coaching.html
- Boardman, A., Arguelles, M. E., Vaughn, S., Hughes, M., & Klinger, J. (2005). Special education teacher's views of research-based practices. *The Journal of Special Education*, 39, 168-180. doi: 10.1177/00224669050390030401

- Brownell, M., Adams, A., Sindelar, P., Waldron, N., & Vanhover, S. (2006). The role of teacher qualities in collaboration. *Exceptional Children*, 72, 169-185. doi: 10.1177/001440290607200203
- Carnine, D. (1997). Bridging the research-to-practice gap. *Exceptional Children*, 63, 513–522. doi: 10.1177/001440299706300406
- Cook, B., & Odem, S. (2013). Evidence-based practices and implementation science in special education. *Exceptional Children*, 79, 135-144. doi: 10.1177/001440291307900201
- Cooper, A., & Shewchuck, S. (2015). Knowledge brokers in education: How intermediary organizations are bridging the gap between research, policy and practice internationally. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 23, 1-5. doi: 10.14507/epaa.v23.2355
- Council for Exceptional Children. (2014). *Council for Exceptional Children standards for evidence-based practices in special education*. Retrieved from <https://www.cec.sped.org/~media/Files/Standards/Evidence%20based%20Practices%20and%20Practice/EBP%20FINAL.pdf>
- Cowie, B., Ortel-Cass, K., Moreland, J., Jones, A., Cooper, B., & Taylor, M., (2010). Teacher-researcher relationships and collaborations in research. *Waikato Journal of Education*, 15, 69-80. doi: 10.15663/wje.v20i3.239
- De Vries, B., & Pieters, J. (2007) Knowledge sharing at conferences. *Educational Research Evaluation*, 13, 237–247. doi: 10.1080/13803610701626168
- Durlak, J. A., & DuPre, E. P. (2008). Implementation matters: A review of research on the influence of implementation on program outcomes and the factors affecting implementation. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 41, 327–350. doi:10.1007/s10464-008-9165-0

- Eccles, M. P., & Mittman, B. S. (2006). Welcome to implementation science. *Implementation Science, 1*, 1-3. doi:10.1186/1748-5908-1-1
- Fixsen, D., Blase, K., Naoom, S., & Wallace, F. (2009). Core implementation components. *Research on Social Work Practice, 19*, 531-540. doi: 10.1177/1049731509335549
- Fixsen, D., Blase, K., Metz, A., & Van Dyke, M. (2013). Statewide implementation of evidence-based programs. *Exceptional Children, 79*, 213-230. doi: 10.1177/001440291307900206
- Fixsen, D., Naoom, S., Blase, K., Friedman, R., & Wallace, F. (2005). *Implementation research: A synthesis of the literature* (FMHI Publication #231). Tampa, FL: University of South Florida, Louis de la Parte Florida Mental Health Institute, The National Implementation Research Network.
- Friend, M., & Cook, L. (2017). *Interactions: Collaboration skills for school professionals*. Pearson: Upper Saddle River, N.J.
- Garet, M. S., Porter, A. C., Desimone, L., Birman, B. F., & Yoon, K. S. (2001). What makes professional development effective? Results from a national sample of teachers. *American Educational Research Journal, 38*, 915-945.
- Gersten, R., Chard, D., & Baker, S. (2000). Factors enhancing sustained use of research-based instructional practices. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 33*, 445-457. doi: 10.1177/002221940003300505
- Gersten, R., Fuchs, L., Compton, D., Coyne, M., Greenwood, C., & Innocenti, M. (2005). Quality indicators for group experimental and quasi-experimental research in special education. *Exceptional Children, 71*, 149-164. doi: 10.1177/001440290507100202

- Greenwood, C. R., & Abbot, M. (2001). The research to practice gap in special education. *Teacher Education and Special Education, 24*, 276-289.
doi:10.1177/088840640102400403
- Greenwood, C. R., Delquadri, J. C., & Hall, R. V. (1989). Longitudinal effects of classwide peer tutoring. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 81*, 371–383. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.81.3.371
- Grossman, P., & McDonald, M. (2008). Back to the future: Directions for research in teaching and teacher education. *American Educational Research Journal, 45*, 184–205. doi:10.3102/0002831207312906
- Gulamhussein, A. (2013). *Teaching the teachers: Effective professional development in an era of high stakes accountability*. The Center for Public Education. Retrieved from <http://www.centerforpubliceducation.org/Main-Menu/Staffingstudents/Teaching-the-Teachers-Effective-Professional-Development-in-an-Era-of-High-Stakes-Accountability/Teaching-the-Teachers-Full-Report.pdf>
- Harris, K. R., Lane, K., Driscoll, S., Graham, S., Wilson, K., Sandmel, K., ... Schatschneider, C. (2012). Tier 1 teacher implemented self-regulated strategy development for students with and without behavior concerns. *Elementary School Journal, 113*, 160–191. doi:10.1086/667403
- Horner, R. H., Carr, E. G., Halle, J., McGee, G., Odom, S., & Wolery, M. (2005). The use of single subject research to identify evidence-based practice in special education. *Exceptional Children, 71*, 165–179. doi: 10.1177/001440290507100203
- Joyce, B. R., & Showers, B. (2002). *Student achievement through staff development* (3rd ed.). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

- Kretlow, A. G. & Blatz, S. L. (2011). The ABCs of evidence-based practice for teachers. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 43, 8-19. doi: 10.1177/004005991104300501
- Lee, J. S., Sachs, D., & Wheeler, L. (2014). The crossroads of teacher leadership and action research. *The Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas*, 87, 218-223. doi: 10.1080/00098655.2014.924896
- McKeown, D., Brindle, M., Harris, K. R., Graham, S., Collins, A. A., & Brown, M. (2016). Illuminating growth and struggles using mixed methods: Practice-based professional development and coaching for differentiating SRSD instruction in writing. *Reading and Writing*, 29, 1105–1140. doi:10.1007/s11145-016-9627-y
- Nichols, S. L., Glass, G. V., & Berliner, D.C. (2012) High-stakes testing and student achievement: Updated analyses with NAEP data. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 20 (20) Retrieved June 11, 2018 from <http://epaa.asu.edu/ojs/article/view/1048>
- Odom, S. L., Brantlinger, E., Gersten, R., Horner, R. H., Thompson, B., & Harris, K. (2005). Research in special education: Scientific methods and evidence-based practices. *Exceptional Children*, 2, 137–148. doi: 10.1177/001440290507100201
- Postholm, M. B. (2009). Research and development work: Developing teachers as researchers or just teachers? *Educational Action Research*, 17, 551–565. doi:10.1080/09650790903309425
- Stein, M. L., Berends, M., Fuchs, D., McMaster, K., Saenz, L., Yen, L., ... Compton, D. L. (2008). Scaling up an early reading program: Relationships among teacher support, fidelity of implementation, and student performance across different sites and years. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 30, 368–388. doi:10.3102/0162373708322738

U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, What Works Clearinghouse.

(2013, March). *What Works Clearinghouse: Procedures and Standards Handbook*

(Version 3.0). Retrieved from

https://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/Docs/referenceresources/wwc_procedures_v3_0_standards_handbook.pdf

Vanderlinde, R., & van Braak, J. (2010). The gap between educational research and practice:

Views of teachers, school leaders, intermediaries and researchers. *British Educational Research Journal*, 36, 299–316. doi:10.1080/01411920902919257

Walpole, S., McKenna, M. C., Uribe-Zarain, X., & Lamitina, D. (2010). The relationships

between coaching and instruction in the primary grades: Evidence from high-poverty schools. *The Elementary School Journal*, 111, 115–140. doi:10.1086/653472

Yoon, K. S., Duncan, T., Lee, S. W., Scarloss, B., & Shapley, K. L. (2007). *Reviewing the evidence on how teacher professional development affects student achievement*. U.S.

Department of Education, Institute for Education Sciences. Retrieved from

http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/edlabs/regions/southwest/pdf/rel_2007033_sum.pdf

**Investigating the Experiences of First Year
Early Childhood and Elementary Teachers: A Pilot Study**

Michelle Hughes, PhD

Holly McCartney, PhD

James Madison University

Abstract

The purposes of this pilot study were to identify the lived experiences of a small group of first-year early childhood and elementary teachers to determine their levels of confidence (self-efficacy) and to generate ideas for improving the teacher preparation programs these new teachers completed. The researchers used qualitative methodology including focus groups with the teachers, interviews of the principals who hired them, and a self-efficacy survey to gather data. Results indicated that teachers were challenged by the realities of teaching every day compared to their expectations. This included the challenges within the day, the structure of schools, and a disconnect between teachers and administrators. In addition, teachers' self-reported ratings of self-efficacy contradicted their focus group discussions in some cases.

Keywords: new teachers, self-efficacy, mentoring, teacher education

The teacher shortage in the United States is an acknowledged reality. Fewer students are deciding to pursue a teaching career and a large percentage of those who do become teachers leave early in their careers. Nationally, enrollment in teacher preparation programs has dropped 23% from 2007 to 2016 (Will, 2018). Statistics suggest that over 40% of new teachers leave the profession within their first five years (NEA, 2017). In Virginia alone, from 2012-2017, 19% of teachers reported that they either left the profession or planned to leave (Learning Policy Institute, 2018). For the first time in 50 years, the PDK annual poll of the public's attitudes towards public schools revealed a majority of parents said they did not want their children to become teachers (Phi Delta Kappa, 2018). The future impact on the education of children could

possibly be significant, as teacher vacancies may be filled with less qualified teachers (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017).

While the reasons for these statistics vary, some of our classrooms are not being staffed with highly qualified teachers. What do new teachers say about the realities of their first year? How do those realities align with the expectations new teachers hold as they enter their classroom for the first time? The purposes of this pilot study were to identify the lived experiences of this group, determine the levels of confidence (self-efficacy) held by a small group of early childhood and elementary first-year teachers, and to generate ideas for improving the teacher preparation programs these new teachers attended.

Literature Review

New Teacher Needs

The needs of new teachers have been studied for decades. Veenman (1984) was among the first to compile a list of the perceived problems facing new teachers after reviewing 83 studies from 1960 to 1984. The top five areas of difficulty included “classroom discipline, motivating students, dealing with individual differences, assessing student work, and relations with parents” (p.154). He also included administrators’ perceptions of challenges facing new teachers, concluding that considerable alignment existed in principals’ perceptions that classroom discipline was a major cause for concern.

Others have sought to document what new teachers need as they strive to *survive* their first year. Some of Veenman’s top categories of needs continued to be supported (Ganser, 1999; Hudson, 2012; Odell, 1986; Odell & Ferraro, 1992). As the context of teaching has changed to reflect a growing diverse population and more emphasis on accountability, researchers are again revisiting the needs of new teachers to determine if those needs have changed. Mandel (2006)

concluded that school divisions' focus on raising test scores has caused them to neglect the supports that new teachers may need (practical advice about daily survival: setting up the classroom, grading, dealing with parents, etc.). In addition, because of this testing-focused culture, new teachers are heavily concerned about covering the curriculum and abandon creative, innovative instruction. The result is lackluster lessons, bored students, and more discipline problems: a recipe for teacher attrition (Mandel, 2006)

Additional needs of new teachers are emerging as well. New teachers want more logistical information; they want to know what the policies are and how they will be evaluated (Abrams, 2018; Bentley, Morway, & Short, 2013). Abrams (2018) suggests new teachers, who are the millennial generation, bring a different set of expectations as they join the ranks of teachers. They grew up in a time where answers are readily available and can use technology to access what they need when they need it. They also do not want their time wasted. In addition, they are collaborative and want to be members of a team. This desire for a collaborative element of teaching was also supported by Martin, Buelow, and Hoffman (2015). They found that meaningful conversations about instruction and curriculum between veteran teachers and new teachers were valued by the new teachers.

Role of Mentoring and Support

The work related to the needs of new teachers sparked an interest in designing programs to support new teachers as they experienced Veenman's *reality shock* (1984). In the early 1990s, school divisions created induction programs whereby veteran teachers acted as mentors to help new teachers transition into the profession. Some states passed legislation that mandated mentoring support; the Commonwealth of Virginia did so in 2000. Researchers began investigating the characteristics and effectiveness of induction or mentoring programs (Everston

& Smithey, 2000; Feiman-Nemser & Parker, 1992; Houston, 1990; Odell & Ferraro, 1992). The conclusions from these early studies were that induction programs could be beneficial in supporting new teachers; however, they required specific attention paid to the design of the program, training of the mentors, and working conditions for new teachers. Recently, Helms-Lorenz, Slof, and van de Grift (2013) reiterated the importance of key design elements that were determined in the 1990s. When school divisions create support systems that embody reduced workloads, a deliberate acclimation process, professional development, and opportunities for pedagogical growth, new teachers report less stress. Kaiser (2012) presented statistics on new teacher retention, comparing the retention of those who had a mentor and those who did not. In 2007-2008, 8% of new teachers who were given a mentor left after their first year and 10% left after their second year. In comparison, new teachers in 2007-2008 who were *not* given a mentor, left the profession at 16% after their first year and 23% after their second (Kaiser, 2012, as cited in Bentley et al., 2013).

Supporting new teachers does not rest solely on the shoulders of mentors; administrators play a critical role. Abrams (2018) suggests that administrators have to be proactive from the moment individuals sign their contracts. “New teachers should be contacted immediately by their administrator...” as the millennial generation is accustomed to quick and easy access to information (p. 76). Youngs (2007) reported that principal leadership can significantly impact the experiences of new teachers. That leadership needs to provide visible time for supporting new teachers: carving out mentor/protégé meeting time, meeting with new teachers to analyze student work together, and orienting new teachers to the assessment tools. These visible opportunities helped to create and strengthen a culture of trust with all staff members. Youngs suggested that

deliberate support from principals can “strongly influence new teachers’ self-efficacy and their labor market decisions...” (p.126).

New teachers hold particular needs that must be addressed if they are to remain in the classroom. Mentoring and administrative support can help address those needs. However, if teacher preparation programs can identify the needs facing their graduates, those data can help inform decisions made by faculty regarding their teacher preparation programs. The purposes of this pilot study were to identify the lived experiences of a small group of early childhood and elementary first-year teachers and to determine their levels of confidence (self-efficacy). Data were used to generate ideas for improving the teacher preparation programs these new teachers attended.

Method

The questions we hoped to answer through this qualitative pilot study included:

1. What are the daily, lived experiences of a small group of early childhood and elementary first-year teachers in the classroom?
2. What are the levels of confidence (self-efficacy) held by a small group of early childhood and elementary first-year teachers?
3. How might this information inform ideas for improving the teacher preparation programs these new teachers attended?

Participants

A total of nine first-year teachers from one university (eight female, one male) and two principals participated in the pilot study. This pilot employed a sample of convenience as all participants were first-year teachers in the local school division and known by the researchers. Six of the new teachers graduated from the five-year Elementary Education Master of Arts in

Teaching (M.A.T.) program, and were licensed to teach in grades PK-6. Four of these teacher candidates participated in a one-year paid residency program developed in partnership with the local city school division where the study took place. The residency teacher candidates were partnered with a classroom teacher to co-teach four days per week in the fall and five days per week in the spring while also taking coursework in their graduate program. Upon successful completion of the residency, the candidates were hired within the district. The other two teacher candidates from the elementary program completed the traditional fifth year with one semester of graduate level coursework and one semester of student teaching. Three additional participants graduated from the 39-credit post-baccalaureate Early Childhood M.A.T. (M.A.T.) program and were licensed to teach in grades PK-3. Details for each student are presented in Table 1. All participants gave informed consent to participate. A total of four principals from local schools who had hired the first-year teachers were invited to participate. Two principals responded and agreed to participate. Principals were included to give their perspective on the strengths and needs of new teachers to help inform decisions our elementary education program would be making related to our redesign.

Table 1

Participant Demographics

Participant	1-year Residency Program	Grade level	Program of Study
Amy	X	ESL	ELED M.A.T.
Charlene	X	4 th	ELED M.A.T.
Janet	X	Dual Language 3rd - Spanish	ELED M.A.T.

Chloe	X	2 nd	ELED M.A.T.
Rachel		Kindergarten	ELED M.A.T.
Karyn		Kindergarten	ELED M.A.T.
Emma		Dual Language Kindergarten-English	ECED M.A.T.
Kathleen		Dual Language Kindergarten-English	ECED M.A.T.
Chris		2nd grade - hired in October	ECED M.A.T.
Principal Hook	End of career principal, 2nd year at current school		
Principal Winston	Mid-career principal, 2nd year at current school		

Note. ELED M.A.T. = Elementary Education Master of Arts in Teaching; ECED M.A.T. = Early Childhood Post-Baccalaureate Master of Arts in Teaching; ESL = English as a second language teacher.

Context

The study took place in the community where the University is located. The city school division is diverse reflecting the general population with a large ESL population and 57 languages spoken. The top five non-English languages in the schools include Spanish (79%), Arabic (9%), Kurdish (6%), Tigrinya (3%) and Swahili (2%). According to the school system's website, 131 (approximately 37%) students speak more than one language in addition to English. (HCPS, 2017). The University has a long successful history of teacher preparation in the Mid-Atlantic region and works in partnership with the local school divisions. Between 130-160 students in the Elementary and Early Childhood teacher licensure programs graduate each year.

Data Sources and Collection

Using a qualitative approach in the research design, the researchers sought to interpret why certain things happened rather than quantifying the findings (Eisner, 1991; Erickson, 1986). Instead of viewing teachers and pre-service teachers as research subjects, the researchers honored their interpretations (Charmaz, 2014). Data were collected via three focus groups, two one-to-one interviews with principals (Appendix A), and the Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk's (2001) Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES, Appendix B). The teachers completed the TSES (nine total) and brought them to the first focus group meeting they attended. Teachers participated in either the first (five participants) or second (four participants) focus group; the same questions (Appendix C) were used for these two groups. Because not all nine teachers could attend the same focus group, the investigators held two focus groups, asking the same questions in each group. A third and final focus group was held and all nine teachers were invited. Seven attended the final session. In the first and second focus groups, the investigators worked to establish trust and understand the teachers' collective experiences halfway through their first year. Trust was established fairly easily as the teachers were familiar to the investigators and questions were worded to allow participants to feel as though no judgments were being made. To develop the final focus group questions (Appendix D), an opening question was devised based on trends of responses from the TSES. The subsequent questions emerged from the conversation generated by the opening statement. All focus groups were facilitated by the two investigators and lasted between 60 and 90 minutes. In addition to the focus groups being recorded, one investigator asked questions while the other took detailed notes. Using multiple sources and informants allowed for varied perspectives and added trustworthiness to the

design (VanMaanen, 1983; Guba, 1981). Triangulation of these methods allowed for a plausible and credible account (Eisner, 1991; Hubbard & Power, 2003; Mills, 2007).

Self-efficacy scale. The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Appendix B) is designed to illustrate what creates the most difficulties for teachers in their daily work and classroom environments. Using a sliding scale (1/nothing - 9/a great deal), it measures teacher's self-reported efficacy in three constructs: Student Engagement, Instructional Practices, and Classroom Management (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk, 2001). The long version, which was used, is 24 items; the short version is 12 items. The long version takes approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. The scale was used as developed without modifications. Validity and reliability were established for the TSES instrument through a series of three studies using the instrument with pre-service and in-service teachers. "The results of these analyses indicate that the [instrument] could be considered reasonably valid and reliable" (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk, 2001, p.801).

Focus groups and interview design. Each focus group and the two principal interviews were recorded and transcribed. Because experience strongly influences teachers' beliefs and opinions (Kvale, 1996), focus group questions were designed to be open ended to tap into the experience and program preparation each particular teacher had. For all groups, the focus groups took the form of a conversation rather than a structured interview. While the investigators used the same focus group questions for both groups (Appendix C) flexibility was important to allow adjustments to questions as they arose through conversations. Kvale (1996) argues that a benefit of the interview conversation is "its ability to capture the 'multitude of subjects' views of a theme and to picture a manifold and controversial human world" (p. 7). By participating in the focus groups, the teachers helped clarify information from prior conversations and the TSES

responses; this strengthens the validity of the methods. The use of member checks during the interviews and focus groups allowed for verification and ongoing analysis of the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1983; Mills, 2007; Van Maanen, 1983).

Data Analysis

Drawing on Charmaz (2014) and Krippendorff (2004), the investigators used a grounded theory and content analysis approach to data analysis. Grounded theory is a systematic yet flexible mode of inquiry with direct but open-ended analysis. Content analysis allowed patterns in communication to be examined from the data. The investigators began their individual content analysis by thoroughly reading and rereading focus group transcripts, interview notes and transcripts, and the teachers' TSES responses to identify initial codes. Each investigator wrote analytic memos as they reviewed the data. This allowed them each to determine what was prominent in the data, develop codes, and reflect on the meaning of those codes. The investigators then came together to share their individual codes which were similar in nature, but worded differently: structure and nature of schools vs. no time for play; disconnect between teachers and administration vs. miscommunication and perceived expectations and reality. Following this step, the investigators identified themes which were then compared to the literature. These frequent debriefing sessions allowed the investigators to evaluate the project as it developed using reflective commentary (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; VanMaanen, 1983).

Results

For the purposes of this article, the investigators focused on key findings that emerged from the data analysis and that seemed pertinent to the redesign of the education program. First, teachers' lived experiences were challenged by the realities of teaching every day compared to their expectations. This included the challenges within the day, the structure of schools, and a

disconnect between teachers and administrators. Second, teachers' self-reported ratings of self-efficacy contradicted their focus group discussions. These findings are expanded upon in the following sections in order to answer the research questions.

Reality vs. Expectations

Challenges. What readily became apparent was the expressions of surprise as the new teachers talked about the reality of beginning their first year as a classroom teacher. Clearly, it was not what they expected even though they reported feeling confident in their abilities related to instruction, classroom management, and student engagement. When the teachers started the year, they were full of hope and energy as well as content knowledge and skills. In the spring, their reality had shifted.

This is hands down that hardest thing I have ever done in my life. It's been so hard that I don't think.... Emma and I talk every morning about keeping the boat just above water. We are just not trying to sink. We are just trying to keep it afloat. We are not trying to sail- we just want to stay afloat. (Rachel, 2/27/18)

I think at the beginning of the year, I definitely felt like I was drowning... Now I feel like I am surviving, I feel that... there [are] still some difficult days and some difficult times, but looking back at the beginning of the year, I would not have been able to live like that all year. So there [has] definitely been growth and change, and I feel a lot more confident now, not to say that everything is easy and perfect, but it feels a lot better. It feels sustainable more than it did at the beginning of the year. (Karyn 4/3/18)

I even said in my interview, classroom management is not going to be an issue....

I didn't say it that confidently, but I said that I felt like I was prepared when it comes to classroom management- and then [it] was like, "Haha." (Rachel, 2/27/18)

Some noted that they might be putting too much pressure on themselves to be perfect this first year. As teacher candidates, they were committed to being the best teachers ever; they had high expectations for themselves. In the vignette below, two of them discussed what it meant to be *good* as a new teacher.

I would say that I feel like I am becoming a better teacher and I feel so much better about what my students are learning, but really, I don't. I settle more now, and that doesn't make me feel good. It just makes me know what I can accomplish and I can count as a success in my classroom even though it isn't really a success. And anticipating these things that are going to make me unhappy and sad and angry but know they are going to happen...doesn't make me feel any better. (Charlene, 2/27/18)

You said settling but I don't think it's a negative version of that. We have such high expectations for ourselves and yet I've had someone say "Guess what? You're not going to be a great teacher your first year" and I was like okay sure. I was like okay it is what it is. And I have gone with that. My goal is not to be a good teacher, but my goal is to keep my head above water. If that's settling, it's not that I am doing a terrible job, it's just that I am not where I want to be. But I

think that's okay, I think that I will be in five years or ten years or twenty years.

(Karyn, 2/27/18)

One positive trend reported by the teachers was the reduced amount of time spent at school into the evenings and on weekends compared to the beginning of the year. "I am finally coming to the point where things feel more possible now and I am less panicky" (Emma, 2/27/18). Another positive reality they experienced was working with a supportive team, collaborating and sharing resources. "For our team we actually collaborate ... we work together as a team..." (Janet, 4/3/18). That came through clearly from each teacher, except for one, who worked alone as an ESL teacher and felt isolated in her position at times or pulled in too many directions with many schedule changes due to the nature of her position. This challenge leads to the next theme of the structure of schools.

Structure of schools. At times, the teachers noted how the actual structure or schedule of the school impacted their feeling of success as teachers. Amy worked with seven different classes, five different behavior plans, and 45 children in her work as an ESL teacher.

I feel like every time I get my feet on the ground with ESL, things change. Like so and so is doing great and then a new student comes in and I have to look at my schedule and see where I can move things and change my schedule. (Amy, 2/27/18)

The organization for working with English language learners brought its unique challenges, but the challenges of the school schedule extended beyond ESL. Several teachers remarked how teaching in a dual language setting can impact learning. In these settings, the teachers dealt with two groups of children. They taught the same curriculum in a morning block and then again in an afternoon block. As Chris expressed:

I got them for content and math, and I've got an hour and forty-minute block to teach them those two things. I get one class in the morning and one class in the afternoon; so the afternoon class, I get them after recess and before lunch, and after specials until they are going home. (Chris, 4/26/18)

Others agreed that the afternoon blocks were problematic because of the placement of specials and recess. Added to this was the timing of when teaching assistants were placed in their rooms. Most reported that they had additional, adult support only in the mornings. Without this additional support in the afternoon, teachers reported a difference in what could be accomplished in the afternoons. While the structure or scheduling within the school day presented challenges, teachers lamented the focus of the curriculum that left little time for exploration, creativity, or play. Each teacher had completed a teacher preparation program that valued the role of play in teaching and learning. They knew the importance of social-emotional development and how play can foster this. However, the nature or focus of their school's curriculum did not encourage play as a learning strategy. This was heard over and over, regardless of the teachers' grade level.

The expectations are so high, that we as teachers feel pressured, and I think there might be room for play, but there are so many things that we put on our shoulders that we can't do what we want to do. I think we probably have similar philosophies, where play is important to us, and we just can't, there is no room for it. And I don't think if our administrators walked in they would be happy to see play in kindergarten. (Kathleen, 4/26/18)

Janet quickly chimed in, "That's because our administration says, if you have time to play, where is that extra time coming from, it's coming from instruction time" (4/26/18).

And others added to the conversation, stating:

Maybe if I was allowed to have [dramatic play], and blocks. I miss dramatic play a lot. I feel like they [the children] need it, I mean they are doing it, outside, and they want to talk to each other all the time in the classroom, they need it... If they want that content vocab, we can design a dramatic play area that goes along with content, where they can use it in their own way, but we aren't allowed to have things like that. (Karyn, 4/26/18)

During the few times they get to play with blocks and things, they are so few that really they are like 'these are mine now, I need to use these right now!' and they feel rushed, and that's part of [the children's] hoarding. (Rachel, 4/26/18)

They [the children] don't have enough time to talk it out and fix their problems, so they hoard everything up and fight, they feel like they can only fix things by telling the teacher, so they are always tattling because they don't know how to talk things out. (Janet, 4/26/18)

A curriculum devoid of play was causing these new teachers to struggle with the ways in which schools were organized. Interestingly, both principals when interviewed mentioned the emphasis that should be placed on social-emotional development and building communities of learners. This was not the only place there seemed to be a disconnect between the teachers' and administrators' perspectives.

Disconnect. There seems to be a disconnect when it comes to who should reach out to whom for help. Both principals we spoke to felt it was the teacher's role to reach out for help as the following quote suggests.

I guess they [the new teachers] don't want to ask for help because they think it will look like they don't know how to do the job well. But the only way to learn is to fail and we talk about celebrating failure. (Winston, 4/12/18)

Principal Hook echoed this when she suggested that new teachers needed to find someone who could support them during their first year. She encouraged teacher preparation programs to talk about the importance of new teachers finding the right person.

We also love the people who come in and are like, 'can we meet once a week with a coach, or the reading specialist after school?', and they [the teachers] are talking about the best strategies for these kids. So, people who are willing to take some kind of initiative. (Hook, 7/12/18)

Both principals reported that their schools had instructional coaches available for all teachers. These coaches would assist teachers when they requested specific needs or areas for growth. The new teachers, on the other hand, felt they didn't always know what to ask for in terms of help.

My instructional coach came in but never offered suggestions. It would have been nice to have someone come in and say "why don't you try this?" [and provide some] affirmation, like I am doing something right 'cause you don't hear it and you don't always know [what you're doing well.] (Rachel, 2/27/28)

This conflicted with the identified role of the coach which was to only look for the specific concern that the teacher has asked about, not commenting on anything else she sees, "in order to build trust" (Winston, 4/12/18). In general, it seemed that the two administrators felt it is up to the teacher to ask for help and that teacher education programs should ensure their candidates know it is the new teacher's responsibility to seek assistance. However, it was

apparent that the new teachers do not always know what to ask and/or might be unwilling to risk acknowledging they do not know everything.

Contradictions: TSES vs. Conversations

A breakdown of the data from the TSES showed that our participants' sense of self-efficacy in each construct (student engagement, instructional practices and classroom management) was quite high. A majority of participants scored the eight questions in each construct at a level of a "5" (Some influence) or higher (see Table 2). These data suggest that the first-year teachers are confident in their abilities across the three constructs. When comparing the teachers' answers on the TSES to the analysis of the focus group data however, there were notable discrepancies. Teachers expressed less confidence in their abilities when talking with a group of their peers who shared similar struggles openly. The teachers explained the discrepancy between their TSES rating on student engagement as directly attributed to their college preparation. When asked why she rated herself high on being able to help children think critically, Janet responded, "Throughout college, professors always asked us to think critically, ... that's how I was brought up through college and it made me think about why was my decision the way it was [on the TSES]" (Janet, 4/26/18). Yet, in the interviews, teachers supported each other as they talked about how the realities of teaching colored what they could do. "...It's just, it's just, even though you think you are prepared, ... you never think, wow this is real life, so it's like really hard..." (Janet, 4/3/18).

Table 2

Frequency of TSES Responses by Construct Item

Student Engagement Construct									
<i>Item #</i>	<i>Rating of 1 Nothing</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3 Very little</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5 Some influence</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7 Quite a bit</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9 A great deal</i>
1				1	2	5	1		
2						3	3	3	
4			1	1	4	1	2		
6						2	1	6	
9				1	2	2	2	1	1
12					3	1	1	3	1
14		1			2	4		1	
22				1	2	2	3		1
Total	0	1	1	4	15	20	13	14	3
Instructional Strategies Construct									
<i>Item #</i>	<i>Rating of 1 Nothing</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3 Very little</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5 Some influence</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7 Quite a bit</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9 A great deal</i>
7					1	4	3	1	
10						3	4	1	1
11					1	2	3	2	1
17				1	1	1	3	2	
18		1		2	1	3		1	1
20					4	2		3	
23				1	1	4	2	1	
24				1	1	2	3	1	1
Total	0	1	0	5	10	21	18	12	4

Classroom Management Construct									
<i>Item #</i>	<i>Rating of 1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>
	<i>Nothing</i>		<i>Very little</i>		<i>Some influence</i>		<i>Quite a bit</i>		<i>A great deal</i>
3			1		1	4	1	2	
5					1	2	2	1	2
8				1	1	3	1	2	1
13			1		2	3	1	2	
15				3	2	1	2	1	
16				2	2	5		1	
19		1	1	2	2	2	1		
21		1		1	3	2	1	1	
Total	0	2	3	9	14	22	9	10	3

Discussion

Reality vs. Expectations

Challenges. The teachers' realities of their first year of teaching align well with Moir's (2007) phases of first-year teacher attitudes toward teaching. Moir's phases begin with anticipation and survival in the beginning of the year, but find new teachers disillusioned by November and December. After a break during the holidays, teachers come back rejuvenated according to Moir. Some of the teachers stated that by February they had a better sense of what had to be accomplished each day, were spending less time at school, and were feeling less overwhelmed. In some cases, the teachers described a rapid pace through Moir's stages at an earlier point than Moir projected. This was the case for the teacher who felt her struggles had been a necessary part of learning which would be indicative of reflection that would occur in the summer after their first year.

The teachers found support when working with a collaborative team, which aligns with much of the research on the needs of new teachers by Martin et al., (2015), and particularly the description of the millennial generation by Abrams (2018). They appreciate the give and take that working with others provides. In terms of the reality of teaching, the teachers also reported classroom management as a major struggle, supporting Veenman's seminal work in 1984 and subsequent studies (Ganser, 1999; Hudson, 2012; Odell, 1986; Odell & Ferraro, 1992) which all name classroom management as a challenge for beginning teachers.

Structure of Schools. Both the daily schedule and the focus of the curriculum had an effect on the teachers. Teachers were faced with fitting into daily schedules that were not always conducive to students' learning. This is especially true for resource teachers (like the ESL teacher in this study) who deal with multiple classroom teachers as they work with individual students. As a new teacher, it can be difficult to understand the complexities involved in the whole school schedule. All classes have to have lunch; all classes need specials during the day. Not everyone can have recess at the same time. Therefore, daily schedules are designed to meet the needs of the whole, not an individual class. However, some research suggests that scheduling does have an impact on learning (Strohbehn, Strohbehn, Lanningham-Foster, & Litchfield, 2016). Students who had recess before lunch seemed to have fewer behavior problems, although this finding was not widespread.

The nature of education reflects the focus placed on the activities that occur throughout the day. Several teachers bemoaned the lack of time for play activities. This concern emerged from the value that play held in their teacher preparation program and, in addition, to what best practice indicates is developmentally appropriate. Play is long recognized as a developmentally appropriate practice where children can explore and follow their curiosity; it allows for growth

across all domains (Berk, 2009; Copple & Bredekamp, 2009; McDevitt & Ormrod, 2010). Play contributes to the social-emotional development of children. Hough, Kalogrides, and Loeb (2017) reported findings that suggest that measures of social-emotional learning "...are useful predictors of academic outcomes" (p.8). Finnan (2014) found that when nonacademic activities, such as yoga, were practiced throughout the day, "rather than detracting from students' academic performance, steady improvements in students' test scores indicate that ... non-academic learning activities [are] far from a waste of time" (p. 42). If play results in social-emotional growth and social-emotional growth is tied to academic achievement, then one would expect play to be an essential component of elementary education.

Disconnect. Not wanting to reach out to ask for help and yet expecting help is a challenge to tease apart. Abrams (2018) suggests that Millennials want mentors with whom they can collaborate to talk about what is working, or suggest ways that might work better, and these findings support this. However, these new teachers wanted more than they were getting from a mentor or a coach *and* they didn't feel comfortable asking for specific help when policies were not clear. Abrams and Von Frank (2014) suggest that when teachers are unaware of policies such as when to call the front office for help when a child is exhibiting extreme behaviors, frustration and anxiety grow. Providing specific details up front about policies and having clarity before accountability is important. Allowing the new teachers and mentors to work together in the beginning of the year to develop a checklist of expectations and specific tasks as well as who is responsible for each is even better (Abrams & Van Frank, 2014).

Contradictions between TSES and Focus Groups

It was interesting to note that the focus group responses provided a different perspective than the survey instrument (TSES). Kvale (1996) reminds us that a richer picture is provided

through focus groups, and they also help to keep participants honest. Another explanation may be that the participants may have exaggerated their confidence on the survey, perhaps because they had just graduated from a teacher education program that is well known for its excellence and tradition of preparing highly qualified teachers. Further, the participants may have been more comfortable sharing how they really felt in the presence of their like-minded peers who were also feeling less confident. This supports Moir's phases of first-year teachers where they come into their new teaching position with idealistic views and then begin to suffer from self-doubt (2007).

Implications for Teacher Education Preparation Programs

The findings from this small pilot study provide information that can help shape the elementary education teacher preparation program at this institution and promote further discussions at other institutions who engage in program improvement. The pilot data are especially informative as the institution considers redesigning its program to be a four-year program with an education major. To address the needs of new teacher candidates, several suggestions emerge. These include (a) providing more opportunity for involvement in classrooms, (b) strengthening the dialogues that occur among teacher candidates, cooperating teachers, administrators, and higher education faculty, (c) building the advocacy skills of teacher candidates.

In the design of a new elementary education program, faculty may want to consider additional opportunities for teacher candidates to experience actual classrooms in more depth. The purpose of extended placements would be to broaden the teacher candidates' knowledge of the realities of everyday teaching. This could be achieved by having longer field placements, mini-blocks of field placements, and/or using case study scenarios. Teacher candidates need

more than just one day per week in an early field placement. Extending field placements would also help teacher candidates develop their skills in classroom management. The investigators recommend that faculty explore the following questions: How could a schedule be designed where weeks of course content are alternated with weeks of field placements prior to student teaching? How could a year-long student teaching placement be designed while still delivering content? Answering these questions would strengthen a teacher preparation program.

In addition, the investigators recommend increasing the dialogue among teacher candidates, cooperating teachers, administrators, and higher education faculty related to the logistics of teaching. The teachers in this investigation thought they knew what life in the classroom was like as evidenced through their TSES rankings; however, in conversations, it became apparent that some nuances of the reality of teaching were unexpected. These new teachers had questions related to transitioning from subject to subject, school-wide routines and procedures, calling the office for assistance, and the role of mentors, coaches, and administrators, to name a few. The work of preparing teachers needs to be explicit in addressing logistical issues that these new teachers identified as problematic. This can be accomplished when mechanisms are in place for faculty, cooperating teachers, administrators, and teacher candidates to candidly discuss the logistics of teaching. Knowing what teacher candidates need can help structure the conversations and relationships between cooperating teacher and candidate, between cooperating teacher and faculty, and between candidate and faculty.

To address the other issues that emerged, the investigators suggest building the advocacy skills of teacher candidates. Throughout the elementary education program, teacher candidates should develop and refine their beliefs about what good teaching and learning should look like. If they can articulate what they need to be those exquisite teachers, then they can begin to advocate

for those needs. That would start in their field placements where they learn to ask questions about why their cooperating teacher does what s/he does. As teacher candidates move into the interviewing process to secure their first job, they can ask questions related to their beliefs and needs. This would allow them to decide whether the school division is a good fit for them. Once hired, they can continue to advocate for their children and themselves in terms of what is best practice. After data collection, the investigators heard from two of the teachers in the study that their administrator allowed more time for play in their kindergarten classrooms this year, which had been missing during the study. They advocated and succeeded!

The investigators recognize that this pilot study and its findings may not be transferable to other contexts and must be understood within the context and geographical area where it was conducted. Results will be directly used in the development of a specific program's redesign. A pilot study to include the 2018-2019 elementary education graduates is planned for the future. Data from key stakeholders should support and shed light on what our teacher candidates need as teacher preparation programs continue to make data-driven decisions.

References

Abrams, J. (2018). What matters to millennial teachers? *Educational Leadership*, 75(8), 74-78.

Retrieved from www.ascd.org

Abrams J. & Von Frank, V. (2014). *The multigenerational workplace: Communicate, collaborate & create community*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bentley, E., Morway, A., & Short, T. (2013). The wish list: Articulating and responding to new teachers' concerns. *The English Journal*, 102(3), 33-39. Retrieved from <https://www.jstor.org/stable/23365370>

- Berk, L. E. (2009) *Child development, 8th ed.* Boston, MA: Pearson
- Carver-Thomas, D. & Darling-Hammond, L. (2017). *Teacher turnover: Why it matters and what we can do about it.* Palo Alto, CA: Learning Policy Institute. Retrieved from <https://learningpolicyinstitute.org>
- Castro, K. (2018, July 30). 2018-2019 school district begins in 2 weeks; CCSD trying to fill vacant teacher positions. Retrieved from <https://www.lasvegasnow.com/news>
- Charmaz, K. (2014). *Constructing grounded theory*(2nded.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Copple, C. & Bredekamp, S. (2009). *Developmentally appropriate practice in early childhood programs serving children from birth through age 8, 3rd ed.* New York, NY: NAEYC.
- Eisner, E. (1991). *The enlightened eye: What makes a study qualitative?* New York: Macmillan.
- Erickson, F. (1986). Qualitative methods in research on teaching. In M.C. Wittrock (Ed.). *Handbook of research on teaching* (3rded., pp. 119-161). New York: Macmillan.
- Everston, C., & Smithey, M. (2000). Mentoring effects on protégés' classroom practice: An experimental field study. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 93, 295-304. doi: 10.1080/00220670009598721
- Feiman-Nemser, S. & Parker, M.B. (1992) Mentoring in context: A comparison of two U.S. programs for beginning teachers. East Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/contentdelivery/servlet/ERICServlet?accno=ED346091>
- Finnan, C. (2014). Not a waste of time: Scheduling non-academic learning activities into the school day. *Urban Review*, 47, 26-44. doi: 10.1007/s/11256-014-0286-5
- Ganser, T. (1999, October). *Areas of advice seeking among beginning teachers in a mentoring program.* Paper presented at the Midwestern Educational Research Association, Chicago,

- IL. Retrieved from
<https://eric.ed.gov/contentdelivery/servlet/ERICServlet?accno=ED436489>
- Guba, G. (1981). Criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiries, *Educational Communication and Technology Journal*, 29, 75–91.
- Harrisonburg City Schools (2018). *English as a second language*. Retrieved from
<https://harrisonburg.k12.va.us/District/1131-English-As-A-Second-Language.html>
- Helms-Lorenz, M., Slof, B., & van de Grift, W. (2013). First year effects of induction arrangements on beginning teachers' psychological processes. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 28, 1265-1287. doi: 10.1007/s10212-012-0165-y
- Hough, H., Kalogrides, D., & Loeb, S. (2017). Using surveys of students' social-emotional learning and school climate for accountability and continuous improvement (PACE Policy Brief 17-1). Retrieved from Policy Analysis for California Education, PACE website: <http://www.edpolicyinca.org>
- Houston, W.R. (1990). A study of induction of 300 first-year teachers and their mentors, 1989-1990. Retrieved from
<https://eric.ed.gov/contentdelivery/servlet/ERICServlet?accno=ED338558>
- Hubbard, R. & Power, B. (2003). *The art of classroom inquiry*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Hudson, P. (2012). How can schools support beginning teachers? A call for timely induction and mentoring for effective teaching. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(7), 71-84.
Retrieved from <http://ro.ecu.edu.au/ajte/>
- Krippendorft, K. (2004). Content analysis: An introduction to its methodology. (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Learning Policy Institute (2018). *Understanding teacher shortages*. Retrieved from <https://learningpolicyinstitute.org>
- Lincoln, Y. and Guba, G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills: Sage.
- Mandel, S. (2006). What new teachers really need. *Educational Leadership*, 63(6), 66-69.
Retrieved from www.ascd.org
- Martin, K. L., Buelow, S. M., & Hoffman, J. T. (2015). New teacher induction: Support that impacts beginning middle-level educators. *Middle School Journal*, 47(1), 4-12. Retrieved from <http://www.tandf.co.uk>
- McDevitt, T. M. & Ormrod, J. E. (2010). *Child development and education*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson
- Mills, G. (2007). *Action research: A guide for the teacher researcher*. (3rded.). Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Moir, E. (2016). *New teacher development for every inning*. Retrieved from <https://newteachercenter.org>
- NEA (2017). *Research spotlight on recruitment and retention*. National Education Association.
Retrieved from <http://www.nea.org>
- Odell, S. (1986). Induction support of new teachers: A functional approach. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(1), 26-29. Retrieved from <http://www.sagepub.com/>
- Odell, S. & Ferraro, D., (1992). Teacher mentoring and teacher retention. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 43(3), 200-204. Retrieved from <http://www.sagepub.com/>

- Phi Delta Kappa. (2018). *PDK Poll of the public's attitudes toward the public schools*. Retrieved from <http://pdkpoll.org>
- Strohbehn, C. H., Strohbehn, G. W., Lanningham-Foster, L. & Litchfield, R. E. (2016). Impacts of scheduling recess before lunch in elementary schools: A case study approach of plate waste and perceived behaviors. *Journal of Child Nutrition and Management*, 40(1), n.pg. Retrieved from <https://schoolnutrition.org>
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk, A. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 783-805. Retrieved from www.elsevier.com
- Van Maanen, J. (Ed.).(1983). The fact and fiction in organizational ethnography, in: *Qualitative Methodology*. Beverly Hills: Sage. pp. 37–55.
- Veenman, S. (1984). Perceived problems of beginning teachers. *Review of Educational Research*, 54(2), 143-178. Retrieved from <https://journals.sagepub.com>
- Will, M. (2018, October 26) Enrollment is down at teacher colleges. So they are trying to change. *Education Week*. Retrieved from <https://www.edweek.org>
- Youngs, P. (2007). How elementary principals' beliefs and actions influence new teachers' experiences. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 43(1) 101-137. Retrieved from <http://sagepub.com>

Appendix A

Principal Interview Questions

1. What do you see as the role for teacher education programs during the induction period of new teachers?
2. What would the ideal partnership between public school divisions and teacher education programs look like during candidates' preparation? As they begin their first year?
3. Have you hired elementary teachers from JMU in the last five years?

If yes:

What do they do well as new teachers?

Is there an area where JMU graduates could be more prepared, considering they are beginning teachers?

(If no, then proceed to the next question.)

4. For all your new teachers, what is one skill you wished they all possessed coming into the profession?
5. In general, when you compare graduates from the last three years to those you have hired before that time frame, what is a change in recent graduates? How do you see that affecting their performance in the classroom and the profession?
6. As you know, the Commonwealth is suggesting Colleges of Education prepare teachers in just four years as an undergraduate degree and license. What are your thoughts on this move?
7. As we wrap this up, what else would you like to share with us?

Appendix B

Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (long form)

Directions: This questionnaire is designed to help us gain a better understanding of the kinds of things that create difficulties for teachers in their school activities. Please indicate your opinion about each of the statements below. Your answers are confidential.

Nothing = 1; Very little = 3; Some influence = 5; Quite a bit = 7; A great deal = 9

Teacher Beliefs

How much can you do?

(1) How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(2) How much can you do to help your students think critically?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(3) How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(4) How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(5) To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(6) How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)

(7) How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(8) How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(9) How much can you do to help your students value learning?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(10) How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(11) To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(12) How much can you do to foster student creativity?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(13) How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(14) How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(15) How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(16) How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)

(17) How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(18) How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(19) How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(20) To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(21) How well can you respond to defiant students?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(22) How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(23) How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
(24) How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)

Appendix C

Focus group questions (groups 1 & 2)

1. What has your first year of teaching been like?
2. Is teaching what you expected? (Probe as needed)
3. How well did your teacher preparation program prepare you for the classroom? Is there something that the program emphasized that you would need to do as a teacher, but found that you either couldn't or didn't need to do? (Are we emphasizing the right aspects of the position? Are we missing opportunities to prepare you for other parts of the position?)

In what areas did you feel most prepared?

In what areas did you feel least prepared?

4. When you think about where you were in August and September, what do you find still challenging?

What were your biggest concerns then?

What are your biggest concerns now?

5. What do you consider your successes to be?
6. Reflect on the content/subject matter that you are teaching. –What do you need to teach that you feel you do not have sufficient knowledge/preparation for in terms of content knowledge and/or pedagogical (teaching content) knowledge. What would have helped? Pay special attention to the time of year and how this may or may not present additional challenges.

7. Do you still have the same perspective on teaching that you did when you started? If it has changed, how so?

8. What have you learned that will help you in the future?

Appendix D

Final group focus group questions

Final whole-group interview questions (Questions emerged from conversations participants developed in response to our opening statement. No preconceived questions were developed other than the first one.)

1. We have had two focus groups; this is our third one. We looked at your self-efficacy scores and developed some questions from those to follow-up from the last two times. We were wondering why you ranked yourselves pretty high in the category of student engagement?
2. You were also quite confident in your ability to help children believe they can do well in school... so what are your thoughts on that one?
3. Does anyone have any ideas about why you feel confident?
4. Motivation was a topic that wasn't scored as high as some of the other areas. It's not that everyone scored it really low, it's just that it wasn't one that stood out as a high one. What do you think contributes to you feeling less confident in motivating children?
5. As I am listening, how much of this lack of confidence to motivate is really a problem with being a new teacher or a problem with the school system? Is it a curriculum that is developmentally appropriate?
6. Shifting gears to the survey questions about instructional strategies, what do you think contributes to your high confidence in being able to ask and field questions during instruction?
7. This last question came up after we interviewed a principal and she mentioned the instructional coaches; she was talking about the coaches and their role with new teachers.

Our question is can you tell us about your experience with the instructional coaches in your building?

Preparing Trauma-Sensitive Teachers: Strategies for Teacher Educators

Connie Honsinger, Ph.D
Chesterfield County Public Schools

Mavis Hendricks Brown, Ph.D.
University of Richmond

Abstract

Many children who attend school have or will experience some type of trauma that may impact cognition, behavior, and relationships (Van Der Kolk, 2014). The result of these adverse experiences is often diminished concentration, memory, organization, and language skills that can exacerbate maladjustment in the school setting (Ogata, 2017). According to the National Child Traumatic Stress Network (NCTSN) (2016), difficulties displayed by children impacted by trauma can also include poor social skills, increased aggression, an inability to trust, dysregulation, fearfulness, anxiety, and avoidant behaviors. Despite how common exposure to trauma is and the significant impact it can have on students and the classroom, few teachers are prepared to recognize and respond appropriately. This paper will provide information and resources that can assist teacher educators to better prepare future teachers to address these concerns and build resilience in all students particularly those impacted by trauma.

Keywords: Trauma, Classroom, Strategies

"When little people are overwhelmed by big emotions, it is our job to share our calm, not join their chaos."

L. R. Knost

*"There is no more effective neurobiological intervention than a safe relationship."
"Relationships are the agents of change and the most powerful therapy is love."*

-- Bruce Perry, PhD, MD, researcher & child psychiatrist

Trauma has no boundaries with regard to age, gender, socioeconomic status, race, ethnicity, geography, or sexual orientation and it is often a common experience of individuals who struggle with mental health disorders. Students who have experiences of trauma exist in every school and community. There is a strong correlation between students who have experienced trauma and poor school performance (Goodman, Miller, & Olatunji, 2011). Given these concerns, it has become critically important to help prepare teachers with the skills and strategies necessary to successfully work with students who have been impacted by trauma.

Virginia has taken the lead in focusing on issues that impact children with the establishment of the Children's Cabinet by Governor Ralph Northam in June of 2018. The executive order identified a number of priorities; (a) Early childhood development and school readiness, (b) Nutrition and food security, and (c) Systems of care and safety for school-aged youth. One of the goals of the governor's policy council on PreK-12 education in Virginia was to identify significant issues and make recommendations on how to improve public education. Equity and opportunity for every student was described as a high priority and within this category the council acknowledged the importance of promoting alternatives to punitive school discipline. Recommendations further supported the implementation of positive behavioral supports, restorative practices, and making Virginia a national leader in using trauma-informed instruction in all of its public schools to support student success.

In addition, the governor created the Trauma-Informed Care for Children Work Group that was charged with developing recommendations to enhance student safety and to support a consistent, evidence-based, and culturally-competent statewide response to childhood trauma. Although the groups are in the preliminary stages of work, one recommendation that has come

forward is for child and family-serving agencies to adopt the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA) definition and framework of trauma-informed care.

The Virginia Department of Education has also reflected this emphasis on trauma education within teacher licensure and recertification requirements, approved August of 2018. According to the State Board of Education, Licensure Regulations for School Personnel (Article 2.1) Human Development and Learning, skills in this area shall contribute to an understanding of the physical, social, emotional, speech and language, and intellectual development of children and the ability to use this understanding in guiding learning experiences and relating meaningfully to students. Highlighted within this article is an understanding of trauma, including child abuse and neglect and other adverse childhood experiences and family disruptions (VDOE, 2018). According to Tara McDaniel, director of teacher education in Virginia, there are no plans at the moment to include any specific professional development regarding adverse childhood experiences and understanding trauma, as that is currently left up to the individual locality (T. McDaniel, personal communication, January 23, 2019).

Developing a Trauma-Informed Approach

Given the absence of direction on the specific content related to trauma, what should teacher educators include in their teacher preparation programs? Currently the child abuse and neglect recognition and intervention training curriculum guide on the Virginia Department of Education website (Attachment A, Superintendent Memo #209) provides some information regarding child abuse recognition and reporting, promoting resiliency, and resources. In addition, information from The Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA, 2014) can assist teacher educators with resources on trauma-informed care and trauma-sensitive practices. Both are excellent resources however, what are the most important

concepts teachers should know prior to walking into the classroom? How can teacher educators help future teachers develop a trauma-sensitive lens, what skills are needed, and what does this look like in practice?

Institutions as well as many school districts and organizations have looked to local expertise for direction in providing education in becoming trauma-informed. The Greater Richmond Trauma Informed Community Network (TICN) is a diverse group of individuals, convened by Greater Richmond SCAN (Stop Child Abuse Now), who share a commitment towards the creation of a more trauma informed and resilient community within the Greater Richmond region. This network includes a number of committee's to address this mission including a training committee that has developed a common language and understanding around our community on the impact of adverse childhood experiences and strategies to build individual and community resilience.

Members of the training committee provide community workshops free of charge as well as presentations to specific organizations upon request using research-based information and best practices. The TICN Outcomes Committee has worked to develop an evaluation plan to measure the collective impact and value of the TICN in the community. Knowledge is assessed using a variety of methods including pre and post-tests, evaluations, qualitative feedback, and assessments to identify changes in how individuals, organizations, and/ or systems function and interact as a result (Greater Richmond SCAN, n.d.).

The Virginia Department of Behavioral Health, responsible for promoting behavioral health wellness, has also launched their Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACE) Initiative with its Master Trainer series in partnership with Dr. Robert Anda, one of the original researchers of the ACE study. Two cohorts of trainers have participated in this two-day in depth training with the

charge to conduct a minimum of three additional trainings in their own communities across the state. This training is provided free of charge and trainers are listed on the prevention works website (Virginia Prevention Works, 2019).

According to SAMHSA (2014), a trauma-informed approach includes four Rs; (1) *Realize* the widespread impact of trauma and understand potential paths for recovery, (2) *Recognize* the signs and symptoms of trauma in clients/ students, families, staff, and others involved with the system, (3) *Respond* by fully integrating knowledge about trauma into policies, procedures, and practices, and (4) *Resist* re-traumatization. Using this framework, teacher educators can address student needs and promote learning that will prepare them to work with K-12 students who have been impacted by trauma. Key concepts, skills, and strategies within this framework will be addressed in this article.

Realize: The Impact of Trauma

The first step to becoming trauma-informed is the realization that trauma is pervasive in the lives of children. It is not isolated to students with emotional and behavioral disabilities or select schools or communities but exists everywhere. According to the U. S. Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS) (2013), an estimated 679,000 children were victimized by maltreatment that included neglect, physical, sexual, and psychological abuse. Nearly a half million children who experience physical and sexual abuse and neglect are placed into foster care each year (Dwyer & Noonan, 2005). An estimated one in five Americans was sexually molested as a child, one in four was beaten by a parent, and one in eight children witnessed their mother being physically assaulted (VanDerKolk, 2014). Nearly 11 million children under the age of 18 grow up in households with alcoholic relatives; 10 million have experienced the incarceration of a parent and live below the poverty level in unsafe communities (Paccione-Dyszlewski, 2016).

There is little question, that for many students, adverse childhood experiences or ACEs are common and often highly interrelated; where one ACE occurs, there are usually others (ACE Interface, 2015). There is a significant dose-response relationship that indicates the more adverse experiences; the more likely an individual is to experience mental, physical, behavioral health, and social problems (Felitti et al., 1998). Adverse experiences are also more likely to be transmitted from one generation to the next repeating toxic levels of stress and unhealthy coping patterns.

Teacher educators will want to keep in mind that some future educators they work with have their own histories of trauma (Carello & Butler, 2015). Statistics regarding undergraduate college students indicate as high as 66-94% report exposure to one or more traumatic events (Frazier et al., 2009). The introduction of information regarding adverse childhood experiences can trigger individual responses that pre-service teachers may not be prepared for. As a result, teacher educators need to be mindful of potential reactions and be prepared to provide appropriate support and resources that may range from warning students of such a reaction prior to the introduction of the material to the provision of resources for those who may want to seek additional supports provided by the institution such as counseling.

Recognize: The Signs and Symptoms of Trauma

SAMHSA defines trauma as an event, series of events, or set of circumstances that is experienced by an individual as physically or emotionally harmful or life threatening and that has lasting adverse effects on the individual's functioning and mental, physical, social, emotional, or spiritual well-being. In addition, the adverse events often involve intense fear and helplessness and fall outside of one's ability to cope (Perry, 2017). Examples of trauma include, but are not limited to: experiencing or observing physical, sexual, and emotional abuse; childhood neglect;

having a family member with a mental health or substance use disorder; experiencing or witnessing violence in the community or while serving in the military, poverty, and systemic discrimination (NCTSN, 2016).

A significant number of youth have previously or will experience some type of trauma prior to the age of 18 that may impact their ability to regulate their emotions, develop healthy relationships, and achieve academic success in the school environment (Van Der Kolk, 2014). Neurobiological studies have identified physiological changes to children's brains due to exposure to trauma potentially resulting in emotional and behavioral responses that can interfere with learning (Center on the Developing Child, 2007). Children impacted by trauma may experience diminished concentration, difficulty with memory and organization, increased aggression and negative peer interactions, dysregulation, avoidant behaviors, and distrust of teachers which can exacerbate challenges in the school setting (NCTSN, 2016; Ogata, 2017).

So how does a teacher know if a student has been affected by trauma? The answer is, despite some academic, behavioral or social indicators, they may never know. We need to presume the K-12 students we serve have a history of traumatic stress and exercise "universal precautions" by creating systems of care that are trauma-informed (Hodas, 2005). Universal design theories share some common principles with trauma-informed care such as using a strengths-based, person centered, and solution-focused approach (Carello & Butler, 2015).

Respond: Using a Trauma-Sensitive Lens

Teachers working with children and adolescents in the school environment spend a significant amount of time addressing difficult behaviors and assisting students with poor academic achievement (Keller-Dupree, 2013; Perry, 2009). Educators who learn about the impacts of trauma can have a greater understanding of some of the underlying reasons for

children's inappropriate behavior in the classroom rather than misreading it as intentional misconduct in need of more harsh consequences. A barrier to adopting a new and more trauma-informed approach for educators who believe in a discipline-oriented or more confrontational style for student misbehavior is the perception that one is "being soft" (Walkley & Cox, 2013).

Meeting the needs of students is a collaborative effort among all school professionals. The strategies associated with a trauma-informed environment need to span a continuum of prevention through intensive intervention using a multi-pronged approach that includes access to both internal and external supports (Chafouleas, Johnson, Overstreet, & Santos, 2016). Internal supports such as school counselors, social workers, psychologists, and special education teachers can help to facilitate coping when students are experiencing stressors. The goal is to provide universal (Tier 1) supports for all students by fostering a positive environment and skill building. Students who need more intensive services (Tiers 2 & 3) may require more targeted or individual interventions to support academic, social-emotional, behavioral, and mental health needs. These supports can extend to adult needs for education as well as support with regards to practices, data, and systems.

It has been well documented that trauma changes the way children and adolescents interact with others and they may adopt behaviors or patterns of thinking that can compound their problems and cause further trauma. Evidence-based approaches have demonstrated the importance of breaking the cycle of trauma by considering the question, "What happened to you?" instead of "What's wrong with you?" (SAMHSA, 2012). Multi-tiered frameworks of service delivery such as Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) are built on foundations involving early identification of risk, varied levels of intervention designed to teach skills and prevent more serious problems which align well with a trauma-informed approach.

The focus is on positive, preventive, and proactive approaches and a continual data-driven evaluation of responses. It is critical for teacher preparation programs to address frameworks such as PBIS. According to the National Education Association (2014), positive behavior supports help teachers recognize the significance of classroom management and preventive school discipline in order to maximize student success.

A shift in mindset puts the focus on what has happened to the child and what skills are needed rather than focusing on discipline alone for behavior that may be a student's attempt to cope with elevated levels of stress (Greene, 2014). Failure to acknowledge the impact of traumatic stress in children in the school setting may also lead to mislabeling students and giving diagnoses such as attention deficit disorder and oppositional-defiant disorder among others (Black, Woodsworth, Tremblay, & Carpenter, 2012). Further support for this movement came from the recent reauthorization of the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) which included the provision for trauma-informed approaches, training for school personnel, and recognition of the strong relationship between a positive school climate and student learning (NEA, 2014; Prewitt, 2016).

Many children who have experienced traumatic events view the world as a dangerous place and are more vulnerable to stress which can sabotage their ability to manage emotions and use coping mechanisms that can help to regulate their behavior. The development of learning environments that feel safe and supportive require underlying foundations such as trusting relationships, organization and structure, and engagement that builds on student strengths and teaches self-regulation skills. Teachers who provide trauma-sensitive supports in their classrooms can play a significant role in healing for students impacted by trauma but those practices will also benefit the growth and development of all students with whom they work. It

is important for teacher educators to provide prospective teachers not only an understanding of the importance of becoming a trauma-informed educator but specific strategies for K-12 teachers to follow in order to become trauma-sensitive practitioners (Table 1). These strategies fall within the three main components of the trauma-informed care movement.

Creating Safe Environments

The trauma-informed schools movement was created to encourage the development of positive and supportive learning environments that are responsive to the needs of students who have been impacted by trauma. Safety and consistency are cornerstones of a trauma-informed educational practice. This is often created through the use of school-wide positive behavioral interventions and supports and classroom expectations that are consistently taught and reinforced (Cavanaugh, 2016). High rates of positive interactions help to build upon student strengths and support feelings of success and self-efficacy as do increased peer supports and social skills instruction (Sugai, O’Keefe, & Fallon, 2012). The classroom environment should be a place of comfort and safety. The teacher can foster a caring classroom community where peers support each other as well as modify the physical environment by considering desk arrangements, color, lighting, music, scents, plants, and even alternative seating options. The environment can be the first line of defense and set the stage for regulation to occur throughout the school day. Imagine as a student coming from a loud and crowded bus ride, navigating through a busy hallway with a school bell ringing to a classroom where the teacher greets you by name with a smile, lights are lowered, the room is organized, there is calming music playing, and the schedule for the day is clearly displayed in the front of the classroom with the expectations outlined for the beginning routine. All students thrive and feel safe in an environment where the expectations are clear, routines are predictable and consistent, and students know what to expect (Sugai & Horner,

2010). Research indicates school and classroom environments benefit from the integration of trauma-informed strategies within the PBIS framework which focuses on improving school climate, reducing problem behaviors, and enhancing academic achievement (Chafouleas et al., 2016).

Building Relationships and Connections

Students who have experienced trauma may have some difficulty forming healthy relationships. Discouraged children often have a negative view of self, others, and the world which may translate to maladaptive ways of dealing with others and school related tasks. Safe, predictable, and consistent relationships can help to bring the brain back into regulation allowing students to then be able to access higher level thinking and reasoning skills (Perry, 2011).

Supportive relationships with students that provide unconditional positive regard can promote healing and growth. Perry (2011) referred to relationships as the “agents of change” and Comer (1995) said, “No significant learning can take place without a significant relationship.”

According to student interviews, teacher actions that demonstrated care and respect included both verbal and nonverbal signals and behaviors such as calling them by name, answering their questions, talking respectfully to them, noticing and greeting them, and helping them when they needed help (Payne, 2008). Students can often quickly tell when a teacher’s interactions and intent are not genuine and if their behaviors indicate judgement or support.

Students impacted by trauma often have lagging social and emotional skills that can make developing positive relationships and connections with them more challenging. Teacher educators could introduce the 2 X 10 strategy to teacher candidates for practice (Wlodkowski, 1983). This strategy includes talking with the person for at least two minutes each day for ten days in a row. The conversation should be brief, honest, allow for student voice, solution

oriented, and a reminder the student is accountable to others (Smith & Lambert, 2008). This simple strategy can increase student engagement, improve behavior, and send the message to the student that you are interested and you care (Smith & Lambert, 2008).

Supporting and Teaching Emotional Regulation

Increasingly important is an awareness of the internal emotional state of the adult. When a student exhibits disruptive or even aggressive behaviors an adult's emotional reaction may elicit a similar response. This is not only ineffective but can often escalate the situation. Educators must maintain a focus on preventative strategies while also understanding how to respond to challenging behaviors. According to Tackie, Nixon, and Keels (2018), aggressive or disruptive behaviors are indicators that a physiological response inside the student's brain and body is also taking place. Adults may feel similarly making it difficult to respond in a calm and thoughtful manner. Helpful strategies could be taught through role playing potential scenarios of student disruptions and include depersonalizing the behavior (it's not about you), remaining calm and minimizing your outward reactions (using deep breathing and possibly some mindfulness techniques), and using short and simple language (Tackie et al., 2018). A sequence of strategies could include; 1) identify the behavior the student is displaying, 2) check to see if you interpreted their behavior correctly, 3) affirm and validate student feelings, 4) assist the student in identifying reasonable choices or options, and 5) follow up with the student and discuss what went well, what possible changes or plans need to be in place for the future. Some things to avoid may include 1) don't argue or get into a power struggle, 2) don't raise your voice, and 3) don't handle the situation in public in front of the student's peers because you will open the door to additional drama (Tackie et al., 2018).

When a student is feeling stressed and overwhelmed or may be trying to deal with traumatic or painful memories the pre-frontal cortex or rational thinking and problem-solving areas of the brain shut down and a state of intense emotions with often impulsive responses takes over (Siegel, 2011). Students need skills in order to manage stressors so it is critical that teachers learn specific techniques they can model and practice with students that can build coping strategies such as identifying and validating emotions, deep breathing, positive imagery, and the creation of calming spaces or break times that can assist a student to calm emotions and return to a focus on learning (Weist-Stevenson & Lee, 2016). Teachers in the field can access a variety of support personnel such as the school counselor, social worker, and psychologist who can provide further guidance in this area. Perry (2006) recommends a sequence of engagement that begins with calming or managing emotions also referred to as *regulation* in order to be able to connect with or *relate* to the student and then *reason* with them. Regulation can be done independently by the student who has learned the skills and tools needed for reducing stress or can be assisted by the teacher using a calm voice, giving choices, modeling use of sensory items or moving to a calming area. Once regulated the teacher will be able to relate to the student, identify and validate feelings, and then move into problem-solving or reasoning with the student.

Resist Re-traumatization: Traditional Approaches are Not Working

Research indicates traumatic experiences in childhood can lead to toxic levels of stress that can disrupt development, impact academic success, and contribute to behavior problems in school-aged children (Clarkson Freeman, 2014; Proche, Fortuna, Lin, & Alegria, 2011). According to a study conducted in Spokane Washington, students with three or more adverse experiences had three times the rate of academic failure, five times the rate of severe attendance problems, six times the rate of school behavior problems, and four times the rate of poor health

compared with children with no known trauma (Blodgett et al., 2012; Iachini, Peetiwala, & DeHart, 2016). Without sufficient education, teachers are more likely to view these behaviors as bad or disruptive resulting in a focus on punishment as opposed to skill building (Emmons & Belangee, 2018). Traditional approaches to disruptive behavior in the classroom often focus on consequences and include strategies such as a change in status on a behavior chart, a loss of points or privileges, public correction, removal from the classroom, calls home, and suspension.

The school discipline reform movement, considering the impact of trauma, has recommended the reduction of exclusionary discipline practices and an increase in the use of non-punitive, trauma-informed restorative practices to address the root causes of disruptive student behavior (Max, 2017). Evidence-based, multi-tiered behavioral frameworks, such as School Wide Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (SWPBIS: www.pbis.org), are built on a prevention oriented approach that is proactive rather than reactive. This framework includes a continuum of intervention support designed to teach skills and prevent problems (Universal, Tier 1), early identification of risk (Targeted, Tier 2), and more intensive interventions (Individual, Tier 3) supports (Sugai & Horner, 2009). Implementation of SWPBIS can help improve overall school climate and safety by explicitly teaching and reinforcing expectations and self-management skills, promoting positive relationships, and taking a strengths-based approach which are key components of a trauma-sensitive school and classroom (Bradshaw, C., Koth, C.W., Thornton, L.A., & Leaf, P.J., 2009).

Research indicates students who have experienced even one suspension are less likely to earn a high school diploma, less likely to earn a college degree, and more likely to have been arrested and been in prison than their non-suspended peers (Rosenbaum, 2018). As seen in zero tolerance policies, applying the same standards of punishment regardless of individual

characteristics often results in discriminatory practices with minority students and students with disabilities (Mayworm & Sharkey, 2014; U. S. Department of Education, 2016). Evidence shows discipline practices that remove students from instruction, such as office referrals or suspensions, do not help to improve either student behavior or school climate (Skiba, Shure, Middelberg & Baker, 2011). In reality, removal and suspensions isolate students and communicate the message “you do not belong” which in turn can cause additional trauma (Forbes, 2012). Neither out of class or out of school suspensions teaches appropriate behavior but rather teaches students what they are not supposed to do and that is it important not to get caught (Mayworm & Sharkey, 2014; Strawhun, Peterson, Fluke, & Cathcart, 2015).

There is a need for school discipline policies to balance accountability with an understanding of traumatic behavior. According to the U. S. Department of Education (2016), 3.5 million students are suspended in-school and 3.45 million suspended out-of-schools each year and even more alarmingly are the noted disproportionately suspended numbers of African American children. According to the Virginia Department of Education, a large portion of student suspensions were due to incidents of disrespect and classroom disruption (VDOE, 2016). Negative consequences of suspensions include a higher risk of academic failure, disengagement from school, failure to graduate on time or at all, student alienation, alcohol and drug use, and future antisocial behavior (Sheryl, Stephanie, Herrenkohl, Toumbourou, & Catalano, 2014).

The fact that a great majority of suspensions are attributed to disruptive behavior as opposed to more serious or violent offenses tells us it is past time to reconsider our approach to student discipline. Understanding the students we work with and how to meet their needs can provide more equitable learning environments and focus on solutions rather than punishments. Trauma-informed educational practices such as using a multi-tiered systems approach where

expectations and self-management skills are explicitly taught and positively reinforced can provide much needed supports not only for students but for teachers as well.

Conclusion

The teaching profession is challenging both intellectually and emotionally particularly with the increasing numbers of students who are impacted by trauma. It is important to develop an awareness and understanding of the impact of trauma on the lives of children before we can begin to implement effective strategies that can support learning in the classroom. It has also become painfully clear that traditional methods of discipline that focus on consequences do not develop the skills students need to be successful. Research supports the use of Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports in conjunction with trauma sensitive practices that address the environment, relationships, and one's ability to regulate emotions (Chafouleas et al., 2016; Dorado, Martinez, McArthur, & Leibovitz, 2016; Sugai & Horner, 2010). The essentials of a trauma-informed approach include a focus on the four Rs; Realize, Recognize, Respond, and Resist Re-traumatization. The ultimate goal of implementing trauma-sensitive practices is to provide safe environments where students can feel supported, increase their ability to identify, express, and manage emotions, decrease trauma-related symptoms that can impact behavior, and increase their ability to develop healthy relationships which in turn can promote success in the school as well as the community setting (Dorado et al., 2016; Hummer, Crosland, & Dollard, 2009). Safe, predictable, and consistent relationships can help to bring the brain back into regulation allowing students to then be able to access higher level thinking and reasoning skills (Perry, 2011). The Examples of Trauma-Sensitive Classroom Practices chart (Table 1) provides a number of proactive strategies within these essential components that teacher educators can

highlight when helping preservice teachers develop the skills and strategies necessary to put information into practice.

Table 1

Trauma-Sensitive Classroom Strategies

Environment	Relationships	Self-Regulation
Welcoming, positive signage, daily greeting	Greet students by name every day	Identify and validate emotions
Predictable routine, visual schedule posted each day	Use calm, respectful voice & demeanor (unconditional positive regard)	Teach students how to scale emotions (e.g., on a scale of 1-5 how strong, <i>Zones of Regulation</i>)
Communicate clear, consistent expectations for ALL activities and settings	Inquire about students' interests & strengths	Teach / Model a variety of deep breathing techniques
Design of physical environment – organized, defined spaces, etc.	Increase opportunities for humor and fun	Yoga poses (e.g., <i>Yoga Pretzels</i> , <i>Yoga for the Classroom</i>)
Consider lighting, alternative seating, calming music, etc....	Hold regular class meetings or proactive circles	Mindfulness (e.g., <i>Mind Up Curriculum</i> , <i>Mindfulness for Kids</i>)
Provide a safe space for calming (e.g., “peace corner,” “meditation room,” passes to take a break, etc.)	Use <i>behavior specific</i> praise for academic skills and behavior (Identify skill. behavior; not just <i>good job</i>)	Sensory items available for use (stress ball, fidgets, etc....)
Active supervision; be aware of students' body language, tone of voice, emotional state	Plan activities and move seating frequently to help peers develop connections	Coloring Mandalas, Zentangle, etc.

Prepare students for transitions, give advance notice, use common signal	Use cooperative learning strategies to increase engagement	Movement / brain breaks (e.g., <i>Go Noodle</i> , <i>Move to Learn</i> , <i>CosmicKids</i> , <i>Fuel Up to Play</i>)
Monitor seating arrangements	Provide opportunities for helpful participation (jobs, mentor, etc.)	Incorporate themes of emotion regulation into curriculum / literature
Communicate safety procedures & how you will handle situations	Address issues / concerns in private NOT public	Progressive Muscle Relaxation
Use positive recognition / reward systems and logical consequences NOT systems based on punitive consequences or take away	Assume positive intentions – Often students struggle because of lagging skills (<i>punishment will not create the skills they need</i>)	Establish a safe/quiet place for students who feel overwhelmed (e.g., peace corner, meditation space)
Increase engagement, provide student voice and choice in learning / projects	Collaborative problem-solving - Include the student when developing plan	Talk about, teach, and model stress management

References

- Black, P., Woodsworth, M., Tremblay, M., & Carpenter, T. (2012). A review of trauma-informed treatment for adolescents. *Canadian Psychology*, 53(3), 192-203.
- Carello, J. & Butler, L. D. (2015). Practicing what we teach: Trauma-Informed educational practice. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work*, 35(3), 262-278.
- Cavanaugh, B. (2016). Trauma-informed classrooms and schools. *Beyond Behavior*, 25(2), 41-46.

Center on the Developing Child at Harvard University. (2007). *A science-based framework for early childhood policy: Using evidence to improve outcomes in learning, behavior, and health for vulnerable children*. Retrieved from <https://developingchild.harvard.edu/>

Chafouleas, S. M., Johnson, A. H., Overstreet, S., & Santos, N. M. (2016).

Toward a blueprint for trauma-informed service delivery in schools. *School Mental Health*, 8, 144-162.

Clarkson Freeman, P. A. (2014). Prevalence and relationship between adverse childhood experiences and child behavior among children. *Infant mental Health Journal*, 35(6), 544-554.

Cole, S. F., O'Brien, J. G., Gadd, M. G., Ristuccia, J., Wallace, D. L., & Gregory, M. (2005). *Helping traumatized children learn: Supportive school environments for children traumatized by family violence*. Boston, MA: Massachusetts Advocates for Children.

Dorado, J., Martinez, M., McArthur, L., & Leibovitz, T. (2016). Healthy Environments and Response to Trauma in Schools (HEARTS): A whole-school, multi-level, prevention and intervention program for creating trauma-informed, safe and supportive schools. *School Mental Health*, 8, 163-176.

Dwyer, D. & Noonan, K. (2005). Measurement error in reported reasons for entry into the foster care system. *Southern Business and Economics Journal*, 28(3&4), 88-107.

Fallot, R. D., & Harris, M. (2009). *Creating Cultures of Trauma-Informed Care (CCTIC): A self-assessment and planning protocol*. Washington, DC: Community Connections.

Retrieved from <http://www.healthcare.uiowa.edu/icmh/documents/CCTICSelf-AssessmentandPlanningProtocol0709.pdf>

- Felitti, V., Anda, R., Nordenberg, D., Williamson, D., Spitz, A., Edwards, V., Koss, M. & Marks, J. (1998). Relationship of childhood abuse and household dysfunction to many of the leading causes of death in adults: The Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACE) Study. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 14, 245–258.
- Forbes, H. (2012) *Help for Billy*. Beyond Consequences Institute.
www.BeyondConsequences.com
- Frazier, P., Anders, S., Perera, S., Tomich, P., Tennen, H., Park, C., & Tashiro, T. (2009). Traumatic events among undergraduate students: Prevalence and associated symptoms. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 56, 450–460.
- Glaser, D. (2000). Child abuse and neglect and the brain: A review. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry* 41, 97–116.
- Greater Richmond (SCAN) Stop Child Abuse Now. (n.d.). Trauma-Informed Community (TICN) Network. Retrieved from <http://grscan.com/trauma-informed-community-network/>
- Goodman, R. D., Miller, M. D., & West-Olatunji, C. A. (2011, August 22). Traumatic stress, socioeconomic status, and academic achievement among primary school students. *Psychological Trauma: Theory, Research, Practice, and Policy*. Advance online publication. doi: 10.1037/a0024912
- Greene, R. (2014). *Lost at school*. New York, NY: Scribner
- Iachini, A. L., Petiwala, A. F., & DeHart, D. D. (2016). Examining adverse childhood experiences among students repeating the ninth grade: Implications for school dropout prevention. *Children & Schools*, 38(4), 218-226.

Hodas, G. (2006). Responding to childhood trauma: The promise and practice of trauma-informed care. Retrieved from

<http://www.childrescuebill.org/VictimsOfAbuse/RespondingHodas.pdf>

Keller-Dupree, E. A. (2013). Understanding childhood trauma: Ten reminders for preventing retraumatization. *Practitioner Scholar: Journal of Counseling & Professional Psychology*, 2(1), 1-11.

Mayworm, A. M., & Sharkey, J. D. (2014). Ethical considerations in a three-tiered approach to school discipline, policy and practice. *Psychology in the Schools*, 51(7), 693-704.

National Child Traumatic Stress Network (2016). *Symptoms and behaviors associated with exposure to trauma*. Retrieved from <http://www.nctsn.org/trauma-types/early-childhood-trauma/Symptoms-and-Behaviors-Associated-with-Exposure-to-Trauma>

National Education Association. (2014). Positive behavioral interventions and supports: A multi-tiered framework that works for every student. An NEA Policy Brief. Retrieved from https://www.nea.org/assets/docs/PB41A-Positive_Behavioral_Interventions-Final.pdf

Ogata, K. (2017). Maltreatment related trauma symptoms affect academic achievement through cognitive functioning: A preliminary examination in Japan. *Journal of Intelligence*, 5(32), 1-7.

Overstreet, S. & Chafouleas, S. M. (2016). Trauma-informed schools: Introduction to the special issue. *School Mental Health*, 8(1), 1-6.

Paccione-Dyszlewski, M. R. (2016). Trauma-informed schools: A must. *The Brown University Child and Adolescent Behavior Letter*, 32(7), 1-8.

Payne, R. (2008). Nine powerful practices. *Educational Leadership*, 65(7), 48-52.

- Perry, B. D. (2006). *The Neurosequential Model of Therapeutics: Applying principles of neuroscience to clinical work with traumatized and maltreated children*. In N.B. Webb (Ed.), *Working with traumatized youth in child welfare* (pp. 27-52). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Perry, B. D. (2009). *Principles of working with traumatized children*. Retrieved from http://teacher.scholastic.com/professional/bruceperry/working_children.htm
- Perry, B. (2011). *The boy who was raised by a dog*. New York, NY: Basic Books
- Porche, M., Fortuna, L., Lin, J., & Alegria, M. (2011). Childhood Trauma and Psychiatric Disorders as Correlates of School Dropout in a National Sample of Young Adults. *Child Development*, 82(3), 982-998. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/29782885>
- Prewitt, E. (2016). New elementary and secondary education law includes specific “trauma-informed practices” provisions. Retrieved from <https://www.acesconnection.com/g/aces-in-education/blog/new-elementary-and-secondary-education-law-includes-specific-trauma-informed-practices-provisions>
- SAMHSA. (2012). *About the National Center for Trauma-Informed Care*. Retrieved from <https://www.samhsa.gov/nctic>
- SAMHSA. (2014). *SAMHSA’s Concept of Trauma and Guidance for a Trauma-Informed Approach SAMHSA’s Trauma and Justice Strategic Initiative*. Retrieved from <http://store.samhsa.gov/product/SAMHSA-s-Concept-of-Trauma-and-Guidance-for-a-Trauma-Informed-Approach/SMA14-4884>
- Sheryl, A. H., Stephanie, M. P., Herrenkohl, T. I., Toumbourou, J. W., & Catalano, R. F. (2014). Student and school factors associated with school suspension: A multilevel analysis of

- students in Victoria, Australia and Washington State, United States. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 36(1), 187–194. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2013.11.022>
- Siegel, D. J. (2011). *The whole brain child*. New York, NY: Bantam Books
- Smith, R., & Lambert, M. (2008). Assuming the best. *Educational Leadership*, 66(1), 16–21.
- Strawhun, J., Peterson, R., Fluke, S. & Cathcart, A. (2015). *In-school suspension strategy brief*. Lincoln, NE: Student engagement Project, University of Nebraska- Lincoln.
- Sugai, G. & Horner, R. H. (2009). Responsiveness-to-Intervention and School-Wide Positive Behavior Supports: Integration of multi-tiered system approaches. *Exceptionality*, 17, 223-237.
- Sugai, G., & Horner, R. (2010). Schoolwide positive behavior supports: Establishing a continuum of evidence-based practices. *Journal of Evidence-Based Practices for Schools*, 11(1), 62–83.
- Sugai, G., O’Keefe, B. V., & Fallon, L. M. (2012). A contextual consideration of culture and school-wide positive behavior support. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, 14, 197-208.
- Tackie, H., Nixon, J., Keels, M. (2018). *Strategies for de-escalation and student re-engagement*. Practice Brief #5. TREP Project.
- U.S. Department of Education. (2016). *School climate and discipline: Know the data*. <https://www2.ed.gov/policy/gen/guid/school-discipline/data.html>
- Van Der Kolk, B. (2014). *The body keeps the score: Brain, mind, and body in the healing of trauma*. New York, NY: Penquin Random House.
- Virginia Department of Education (2016). Annual report for discipline, crime, & violence. Retrieved from

http://www.doe.virginia.gov/info_management/data_collection/support/school_safety/index.shtml

- Virginia Department of Education (2019). Child Abuse and Neglect Recognition and Intervention Training Curriculum Guideline. Retrieved from http://www.doe.virginia.gov/boe/guidance/health/child_abuse_intervention_training.pdf
- Virginia Department of Education (2018). *Professional studies requirements for Prek-12 endorsements, special education, secondary grades 6-12 endorsements, and adult education*. Retrieved from <https://law.lis.virginia.gov/admincode/title8/agency20/chapter543/section140/>
- Virginia Prevention Works (2019). Virginia's Adverse Childhood Experiences Initiative. Retrieved from <http://www.virginiapreventionworks.org/family-wellness/>
- Walkley, M., & Cox, T. L. (2013). Building trauma-informed schools and communities. *Children & Schools, 35*(2), 123-126.
- Wiest-Stevenson C, Lee C. Trauma-informed schools. (2016). *Journal of Evidence-Informed Social Work, 13* (5):498-503.
- Wlodkowski, R. J. (1983). Motivational opportunities for successful teaching [Leader's Guide]. Phoenix, AZ: Universal Dimensions.