



The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin

International Journal for Professional Educators

Fall 2014 • Volume 81-1

Teaching Performance

The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin

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The *Bulletin*, the official journal of The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International, promotes professional and personal growth of members through publication of their writings.

The *Bulletin* invites materials appropriate to the Society's Purposes: position papers, applied and/or data-based research, reviews of literature, program descriptions, and other articles on announced themes or other topics of interest to educators; letters to the editor; book and technology reviews; poetry; and graphic arts.

Prose manuscripts for the *Bulletin*, a refereed journal, are reviewed by the Editorial Board and the Society editorial staff. Selection is based on relevance of the topics addressed, accuracy and validity, contribution to the professional literature, originality, quality of writing, and adherence to Submission Guidelines (see page 59). Editorial Board members evaluate each submission's focus, organization, development, readability, and relevance to the general audience of *Bulletin* readers. Due to the diversity of the *Bulletin* audience, material that expresses a gender, religious, political, or patriotic bias is not suitable for publication.

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Fall 2014 • Volume 81-1

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*The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International
promotes professional and personal growth of women
educators and excellence in education.*

Call for Submissions	4
From the Editor	5
Awards	
Souders Receives 2014 Achievement Award <i>By Beverly Helms, EdD, International President 2012-2014</i>	7
2014 Educators Award: Raising Henry: <i>A Memoir of Motherhood, Disability, and Discovery</i> <i>By Rachel Adams, PhD, reviewed by 2012-2014 Educators Award Committee</i>	8
On the Theme: Teaching Performance	
Looking at the Bigger Picture with Dr. Robert Marzano: Teacher Evaluation and Development for Improved Student Learning <i>By Angela E. Quinn</i>	12
Out with the Old and In with the New: One University Department's Experience with Revisions of the Tenure-and-Promotion Policy <i>By Elizabeth Pyle</i>	19
Embarking on the Tenure Journey at Age 50 <i>By Kelly Welsh and Connie Schaffer</i>	26
Reevaluating Narrow Accountability in American Schools: The Need for Collaborative Effort in Improving Teaching Performances <i>By Melissa Brevetti</i>	32
Setting the Stage for Collaboration: An Essential Skill for Professional Growth <i>By Nina J. Morel</i>	36
Collegial Administrative Support: Reflections from a Principal at an At-Risk Public High School <i>By Deb Graham</i>	40
Need TPACK? Embrace Sustained Professional Development <i>By Lisa H. Matherson, Elizabeth K. Wilson, and Vivian H. Wright</i>	45
Beyond Bubble Sheets and Number Two Pencils: Assessment in the Digital Age <i>By Dianne Ford Lawton</i>	53
Submission Guidelines	59
Submission Grid	60

Call for Submissions

Members are encouraged to submit manuscripts for consideration by the *Bulletin* Editorial Board. The Delta Kappa Gamma *Bulletin* accepts Action/Classroom Research, Qualitative Research, Quantitative Research, Reviews of Literature, Program Descriptions, Position Papers, Book/Technology Reviews, Graphic Arts, Letters to the Editor, and Poetry for **print** issues (spring, fall) and **online** issues (summer, winter). Manuscripts should be focused, well organized, effectively developed, concise, and appropriate for *Bulletin* readers. The style should be direct, clear, readable, and free from gender, political, patriotic, or religious bias. For more detailed information, please refer to the Submission Guidelines on page 59 and the Submission Grid on page 60. Listed below are the suggested themes of upcoming issues.

Winter 2015 (81-2) Teacher Leadership in Nonsupervisory Roles (Online)
(deadline is September 1, 2014)

National Board Certification + Mentoring and Coaching +
Content-based/Instructional Leadership

Spring 2015 (81-3) Varied Learning Environments (Print)
(deadline is December 1, 2014)

International Assumptions + Access and Equity + Instructional Strategies

Summer 2015 (81-4) Policy and Practice (Online)
(deadline is March 1, 2015)

Impact of Policy + Unfunded Mandates + Impacting Policy +
Sustaining Change + "Jumping Off the Bandwagon"

Submit all materials to:

***Bulletin* Editorial Staff**

bulletin@dkg.org

From the Editor

How appropriate that Indianapolis, home of races involving high-performance vehicles, was the site of the most recent DKG International Convention—a gathering of high-performance women educators! As such educators in the United States “Race to the Top” as part of a federal initiative and as colleagues internationally work to develop proficient and career-ready students to compete in a global economy, the issue of teacher performance demands center stage in this issue of the *Bulletin*.

An Indy vehicle achieves high performance based on its innate construction—its built-in horsepower, handling capability, and overall durability—but no matter how well built it may be, the car’s true test comes on the track. There, its driver must deal with variables beyond the vehicle itself: track conditions, weather challenges, and emerging issues such as spin-outs and crashes by others. So, too, an educator’s innate intelligence and drive are essential for high performance—but his or her true test comes where the “rubber meets the road” working with others in an educational setting. There, the complexity of *teaching performance* becomes clear, involving far more than being the *sage on stage*—a performer who can function well at the front of a class to share knowledge with others. Rather, a high-performing educator must be able to know and understand content areas; to develop a relationship with students of diverse backgrounds, needs, and capacities; to plan and implement a positive and appropriate learning environment; to assess wisely and help students achieve on standardized tests; to collaborate with students, colleagues, parents, and community members; and to grow professionally and personally in a dynamic and demanding environment—among other things!

Although the articles in this issue of the *Bulletin* cannot explore all of the myriad dimensions of teacher performance, the featured authors do provide insight into key issues such as evaluation, collaboration, and strategies. Editorial board member Quinn interviews noted educational theorist and consultant Robert Marzano, who sets the stage with thoughts about instructional improvement and teacher evaluation. Pyle offers insight into evaluation for tenure and promotion at the university level, and Welsh and Schaffer, relying on the concepts of *Lean In* (2013) author Sheryl Sandberg, explore the unique challenges of pursuing tenure when one is beyond the age of 50. Brevetti argues for the importance of collaboration to enhance teacher performance, a theme that is echoed by Morel, who sees collaboration for professional growth as a key way to address the loneliness that teachers may experience. Graham, principal of an at-risk public high school, considers the importance of administrative support for collaboration among teachers, particularly for professional development. Reflecting on the ever-growing impact of technology on teaching performance, Matherson, Wilson, and Wright suggest a way to integrate technology with knowledge of content and pedagogy, and Lawton reminds educators of technology-based changes in assessment.

“ ...[E]ducators must maintain a tight focus on and reflective disposition about teaching performance in a world of shifting demands and resources.”

Those responsible for the high performance of Indy race cars are consistently analyzing the race-readiness of the vehicle and driver and addressing what needs to be changed based on shifting variables such as weather and track conditions. In a similar way, educators must maintain a tight focus on and reflective disposition about teaching performance in a world of shifting demands and resources. As reflective practitioners dedicated to personal and professional growth and excellence in education, readers of this issue of the *Bulletin* will find inspiration and content for consideration in the authors' thoughts on teaching performance.

Judith R. Merz, EdD
Editor

Letter to the Editor

Dear Editor,

As a retired teacher from Gaston County Schools in North Carolina, I was encouraged by reading the Spring 2014 article in the DKG *Bulletin* by Jennifer L. Stitt and Judith J. Pula. These two educators embody the complete picture of teaching and learning as they "retain their humanity" in the classroom by advocating and combining objective-grading methods with subjective grading.

Students are not "parts in a factory" that can be shaped and molded and measured into standard forms and models. They are human beings who deserve respect and compassion and understanding relating to their diverse needs and situations. These conditions are certainly appreciated by employees in the workplace, so why would they not also be acceptable in the classroom?

This article gave me a feeling of vindication concerning how I graded my students through the years as I certainly included subjective grading where it was appropriate.

Keep up the good work, Jennifer and Judith! We need your voices in education today.

Sincerely,

Anne Smith Haynes

Beta Epsilon Chapter, North Carolina State Organization

At the 2014 International Convention, DKG members amended the Society's *Constitution* to place the *Bulletin* journal entirely online and to add a collegial magazine. The editorial board will work diligently to realize this new vision and anticipates the new formats will begin with Volume 82 in 2015. Watch the *DKG NEWS* and the DKG Web site at www.dkg.org for additional information, including an opportunity to name the new publication! Thank you to all members for their support in this exciting new venture!

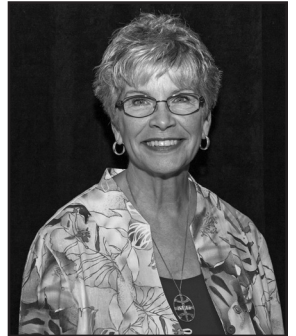
2014 International Achievement Award

Souders Receives 2014 Achievement Award

By Beverly Helms, EdD, International President 2012-2014

Each year The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International recognizes one member for distinguished service to the Society. From recommendations submitted by members, chapters, or state organizations, the international Executive Board selects a member for this honor. The symbol of this honor is a gold medallion presented to the recipient. The first medallion for the International Achievement Award was given in 1933 to Dr. Annie Webb Blanton.

Dr. Jensi P. Souders, 2010-2012 International President; chair of the 2012-2014 Transition Training Team and the DKG Supporting Corporation Board of Directors; and member of the Educational Foundation Board of Trustees and the Administrative Board's Performance Appraisal Team is the 82nd recipient of The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International Achievement Award. The award was presented at the 2014 International Convention in Indianapolis, Indiana.



Souders, a member of Alpha Phi Chapter in Tennessee, was initiated in 1975 and is a graduate of the 1988 Golden Gift Leadership Management Seminar. She received an international scholarship in 1994 and has held numerous leadership positions at the chapter and state organization levels, serving as Tennessee state organization president (1995-1997), editor (1995-2004), and executive secretary (2004-2008). She received her state organization's Achievement Award in 1998.

On the international level, Souders has served as Member-at-Large (2000-2004), Southeast Regional Director (2006-2008), International First Vice President (2008-2010), and International President (2010-2012). She has also chaired the Research, Communications, and Lucile Cornetet Bequest Committee as well as several subcommittees of the Administrative Board and the Educational Foundation. She has also served as Society representative to 45 state organizations.

Souders is recognized as a talented musician, outstanding workshop presenter, and exemplary leader. Her award nomination stated, "Dr. Jensi Souders is a visionary, mentor, and driving force in DKG. This reflective, courageous, and open-minded woman has exhibited outstanding leadership skills in five consecutive international positions, culminating as 2010-2012 international president. With her vast knowledge of DKG, Jensi becomes a collaborative resource who encourages including younger members and maintaining mature members. She motivates others to take leadership positions and reach their potential. Jensi Souders not only exemplifies DKG leadership, she builds it."

As international president, Souders was instrumental in the adoption of the second DKG international project, *Support of Early Career Educators* (SEE). She joins other remarkable women educators as a recipient of the highest award presented to a member of The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International.

2014 Educators Award

Raising Henry: A Memoir of Motherhood, Disability, and Discovery

By Rachel Adams, PhD (2013). New Haven, CT: Yale University Press, 272 pages

The DKG Educators Award is given to a woman author whose book displays content that may influence the direction of thought and action necessary to meet the needs of today's complex society. The content must be of more than local interest with relationship, direct or implied, to education everywhere. The award committee has chosen the 2014 award recipient, *Raising Henry: A Memoir of Motherhood, Disability, and Discovery*, and two honorable-mention books.

Raising Henry is a memoir of Rachel Adams's journey as a mother raising a child with Down syndrome while navigating a complex medical system. Adams describes her life as a tenured professor at Columbia University prior to this experience as both systematic and predictable. But everything changed with the birth of her second child, Henry. In this book, Adams records the first 3 years of Henry's life, as well as her reflections about becoming the mother of a child with special needs. *Raising Henry* is an examination of social prejudice, genetics, prenatal testing, medical training, and inclusive education. As a successful academic, Adams effectively combines material from her research with her personal experiences.

The author describes the early-intervention therapists who came to her home within weeks of Henry's birth. They attended to his muscle tone, socialization skills, cognition, play, and, eventually, literacy. Adams writes,

When we started early intervention, I discovered that my city is home to an army of therapists, almost all of them women, who spend their days traveling from home to home, lugging backpacks full of paperwork and equipment to treat their clients. For years I must have passed them on the sidewalk and shared seats with them on the bus, but Henry made them visible to me. (p. 86)

Adams credits the intervention therapists for recognizing Henry's achievements. This wonderful group of people gave the author immense hope for Henry's future.

The author recalls her memories of countless visits to a geneticist who seemed to schedule appointments with Henry



Raising Henry

*A Memoir of Motherhood,
Disability, & Discovery*



RACHEL ADAMS



so the residents could observe a child with Down syndrome. After yet another visit, she writes,

I perched on my seat, silent and incredulous. It was 2009. We were sitting in the office of a respected hospital in New York City, but this felt too much like a freak show, with Henry and me as the main attractions. (p. 113)

As both a scholar and the parent of a child with Down syndrome, Adams writes about the balance between working to make the world more tolerant of people with physical and intellectual disabilities and the temptation of utilizing medical *cures*. She goes on to discuss the innovations that may improve cognition and stave off early dementia and the ethics of plastic surgery to alter the facial characteristics of Down syndrome.

Adams also describes the frustrations that she experienced as the sole manager of Henry's support network. She candidly describes the following realization:

On paper, we got Henry everything he needs. But now I have to set it up. I have to find the therapists. I have to make the schedule. I have to figure out how to get him there and back. Sometimes I just feel overwhelmed. (p. 222)

Raising Henry is a beautifully written book, revealing both a mother's heart and an educator's mind. This is a *must read* for an eclectic group of readers that would include parents, teachers, therapists, and medical professionals. Readers will be inspired by the author's determination, promise, joy, and hope that flow through each page of this work.

About the Author

Rachel Adams received a BA from University of California, Berkeley (1990); MA from University of Michigan (1992); and PhD from University of California, Santa Barbara (1997). A professor of English and American studies at Columbia University, Adams specializes in nineteenth- and twentieth-century literatures of the United States and the Americas; media studies; theories of race, gender, and sexuality; food studies; medical humanities; and disability studies. She is also the director of The Future of Disability Studies Project at Columbia and holds an appointment in the American Studies Program. In 2010, Adams was the recipient of the Lenfest Distinguished Columbia Faculty Award—a 3-year award of \$25,000 per year.

In addition, Adams is the author of *Continental Divides: Remapping the Cultures of North America* (University of Chicago Press, 2009) and *Sideshow U.S.A.: Freaks and the American Cultural Imagination* (University of Chicago Press, 2001). She is co-editor, with David Savran, of *The*



Sheila MacKay, Alberta, Canada, and Sandra Petrucelli-Carbone, Connecticut, led the development of this article with contributions from all members of the 2012-2014 Educators Award Committee:

Kathy Flynn, Colorado, Chair

Elli Heikkila, PhD, Finland

Sheila MacKay, Alberta, Canada

Sandra Petrucelli-Carbone, Connecticut

Diana Wright, South Carolina

Beverly Helms, EdD, Delta Kappa Gamma International President, ex officio

Linda Eller, EdD, Information Services Administrator, ex officio without vote

Masculinity Studies Reader (Blackwell Press, 2001) and, with Sarah Casteel, of a special issue of *Comparative American Literature* on “Canada and the Americas.”

Adams is editor of a critical edition of Kate Chopin’s *The Awakening* (Fine Publications, 2002). Her articles have appeared in several journals, including *American Literary History*, *Yale Journal of Criticism*, and *Twentieth-Century Literature*. Adams’s writing also includes articles for *The New York Times*, the *Chronicle of Higher Education*, and the *Times of London*.

Educators Award: Honorable-Mention Books

Education and Democracy in the 21st Century, by Nel Noddings (2013). New York, NY: Teachers College Press, 167 pages.

At 85, now retired, Noddings has authored 17 books in the field of education. An educational philosopher and strong proponent for public schools, Noddings looks at education as a multi-aim enterprise in which school personnel must address needs in three great domains: home, occupation, and civic life. Noddings stresses that “while some 20th century ideas should be abandoned, others should be revived, analyzed carefully, and re-evaluated” (p. viii). She stresses that critical thinking is even more important now in the twenty-first century.

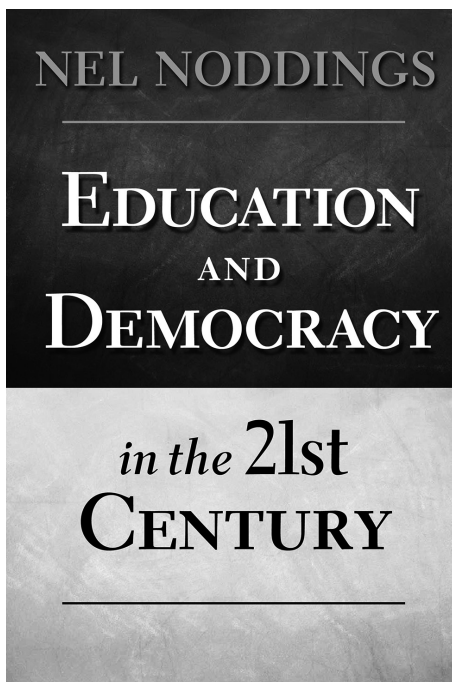
Noddings’s views are at odds with those of many current politicians, and she emphasizes that the term *failing schools* does not apply to all schools. She voices what many in the education field already know: testing does not give all the answers. Many public schools are quite successful, and an across-the-board *fix* might harm some successful schools. Rather than focusing on competitive ratings, she notes, “We are living in a global community—that is, we are trying to build such a community—and the keywords now are collaboration, dialogue, interdependence, and creativity” (pp. 1-2).

Noddings earned her PhD in education at Stanford University, where she is Lee Jacks Professor of Education, Emerita. She is a past president of the National Academy of Education, the Philosophy of Education Society, and the John

Dewey Society. Noddings also spent 15 years as a teacher and administrator in public schools. Her other books include *When School Reform Goes Wrong* (Teachers College Press, 2007), *Educating Citizens for Global Awareness* (Teachers College Press, 2005), and *Educating Moral People* (Teachers College Press, 2002).

Getting Teacher Evaluation Right, What Really Matters For Effectiveness and Improvement, by Linda Darling-Hammond (2013). New York, NY: Teachers College Press, 178 pages.

Teacher evaluation is one of the most contentious issues in the field of education. In her new book, Linda Darling-Hammond makes a compelling case for a research-based approach to teacher evaluation and delivers guidelines and models to make it happen. Her research focuses on issues of educational equality, teaching quality, and school reform. The book is a comprehensive guide to improving the teaching profession. The author focuses on best practices and research to provide explicit steps in the development of a synoptic teacher-evaluation guide. Her main assertion undergirding the book is that “[w]e should



think about teacher evaluation as part of a teaching and learning system that creates a set of coherent well-founded supports for strong teaching throughout the profession” (p. vii).

Darling-Hammond is the Charles E. Ducommun Professor of Education at Stanford Graduate School of Education and Faculty Director of the Stanford Center for Opportunity Policy in Education. Named one of the nation’s ten most influential people affecting educational policy over the last decade, she recently served as the leader of President Barack Obama’s education-policy transition team. In 1985, after completing her doctorate, Darling-Hammond was a Senior Social Scientist and Director of the RAND Education and Human Resources Program. She departed for academia in 1989. Among Darling-Hammond’s more than 300 publications are *The Flat World and Education: How America’s Commitment to Equity Will Determine Our Future* (Teachers College Press, 2010).

LINDA DARLING-HAMMOND

GETTING TEACHER EVALUATION RIGHT



**WHAT REALLY MATTERS FOR
EFFECTIVENESS AND
IMPROVEMENT**

Interview

Looking at the Bigger Picture with Dr. Robert Marzano: Teacher Evaluation and Development for Improved Student Learning

By Angela E. Quinn

This interview continues a series initiated by members of the Bulletin's Editorial Board. The goal of the series is to feature interviews conducted with Delta Kappa Gamma members or other educational leaders on a topic related to the theme of the issue. Here, board member Quinn presents the results of an interview with Dr. Robert Marzano, noted educational researcher, lecturer, and trainer.

Few people will disagree that the most significant factor for a student is the teacher. In an article for the November 2012 issue of the *Phi Delta Kappan*, Oon-Seng Tan, Dean of Teacher Education at the National Institute of Education in Singapore, discussed the importance of teacher recruitment, professional development, and effective instructional delivery (p. 76). Marc Tucker (2011), in his comparative study of the United States and top-performing educational systems, devoted considerable time to teacher quality and effectiveness. According to the 2012 Phi Delta Kappa/Gallup Poll (Bushaw & Lopez, 2012), Americans describe their influential teachers in common terms: caring, encouraging, attentive, and committed (p. 16). None of those words appear on a teacher's license, and few appear on evaluation forms used by one's administrator or lead teacher. Recently, I had the honor of exploring instructional improvement and teacher evaluation, as well as a few other controversial topics, with one of education's premier researchers, Dr. Robert Marzano, author of *The Marzano Teacher Evaluation Model*.

QUINN: Thank you so much for agreeing to be interviewed today. I'll share a little about our readership. We have an international readership for our journal, which is published through Delta Kappa Gamma Society International, an organization of almost 82,000 key women educators in 17 countries. I believe, as educators, the majority of readers will be familiar with your work, but please give us a little background on yourself and your work with teacher evaluation models.

MARZANO: I am the CEO for Marzano Research Laboratory, which is in Denver, Colorado. We take research and theory and turn it into practice. We cover a variety of topics at the highest levels of school reform and specific components within that—from something as specific as vocabulary instruction to something as general as leadership. Instructional strategies have always been a big part of what I do, and probably one of the

first books I wrote on that [general instruction strategies] was *Classroom Instruction That Works* in 2000 [publication 2001] and a series of related books since then. In 2007, I wrote a book called *The Art and Science of Teaching*, which included all of my previous work and that of other people in a comprehensive framework of instruction. Then, about 5 years ago, I adapted that for teacher evaluations. The teacher evaluation model is used, I believe, in more than 30 states—in some states to a great extent and in other states to not as full an extent. The model is designed to help teachers get better, not to measure them.

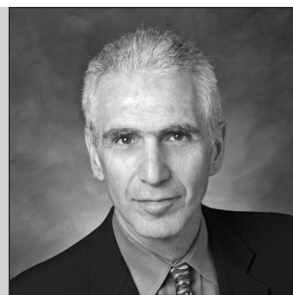
QUINN: *When you were developing your model, how did you arrive at the model? I assume you relied on your previous work, but did you look at other models for flaws you thought had not been addressed?*

MARZANO: We relied on our research to identify the components of the model as well as research from others for the last four or five decades. The reason I decided to design a model of instructional evaluation is that I did not think the models out there were focused enough at a level of specificity to allow teachers to get better, so what distinguishes my model is that it gets down to specific strategies and how well those are being employed. There are good measurement models out there, but I thought what was missing was this level of granularity that helps people improve, which I've always thought my model supplied because it was designed for that.

QUINN: *From what I've seen, I certainly agree. I think one of the most unique aspects of your model is the suggested student-evidence piece. How did you decide that was an important part to include? Sometimes we don't honor what our students say and think when we are in the evaluation process.*

MARZANO: Well, there are 41 elements, and each element has specific strategies. Each element also has a desired effect, something you're hoping will happen with students if teachers use a given strategy. For each element, we identified the desired effects; that explicitly gets to the student level. If previewing is the strategy—maybe a teacher is using K-W-L—what you want to have happen is that students activate prior knowledge and make a connection with that prior knowledge and what they are about to learn. That's pretty concrete and something you can observe in the classroom. Since the model's inception, we've created student surveys. Those student surveys have the highest correlation with measures of student learning—much higher than the correlation between a rater's evaluation of a teacher and student learning. This actually makes sense. The surveys go right to the source—the students—to determine the effect of a strategy. I really think down the line you will see a change in teacher evaluation from observing what teachers do to looking at effects on students. Student evidence, for me, was just a logical place to look to see if a strategy worked.

Robert J. Marzano, PhD, is co-founder and CEO of Marzano Research Laboratory in Colorado. A leading researcher in education, he is a speaker, trainer, and author of more than 150 articles and 30 books, including *A Handbook for High-Reliability Schools* (2014).



Angela E. Quinn serves as Director of Instruction for the Pontotoc City School District in Pontotoc, MS. She is currently completing dissertation work at The University of Mississippi. Chapter President of Alpha Psi, Angela also serves as Zeta State Organization (MS) Northern District Director and is a member of *The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin* editorial board, 2012-2016. aquinn@pontotoc.k12.ms.us



QUINN: I love that piece. My work is as Director of Instruction in a school district in Mississippi, and I love to talk to students. Sometimes I find that is the best way to know what they are learning and doing. You talked about your model being very specific, which we know is important as different administrators or lead teachers are often observing the same teachers. What advice or warning do you offer teacher observers?

*MARZANO: The big one is to remember to make a distinction between observations that are focused on measuring teachers versus observations that are focused on developing teachers. So, if you are going to measure teachers—if that is the goal—then you aren't going to observe all 41 elements of the model. There are a number of models that are strictly for measuring teachers, and those have anywhere between 10 and 15 things that raters look for. I co-authored a book called *Teacher Evaluation That Makes a Difference*. There we point out the 10 to 15 elements to look for when measurement is the focus. But for teacher development, observers need to get at every element and include the teachers' own self-evaluations. What we found in our studies was that when teachers are asked to rate themselves, those ratings correlate more highly with student learning than observer ratings. The tricky part is that the self-ratings of teachers have to be in a nonevaluative manner. That's why we make the distinction between measurement and development.*

“ You get far better data about what's working and not working in classrooms by simply asking teachers and students how things are going. ”

I think what's going to happen in the next few years is that the measurement focus when observing teachers is going to go away because it's highly inefficient and very imprecise. You get far better data about what's working and not working in classrooms by simply asking teachers and students how things are going. There's going to be a big shift in the wind when it comes to teacher evaluations in the next 5 years.

QUINN: You mentioned that student ratings were highly correlated with student learning and that teacher ratings were more highly correlated with student learning than administrator ratings, as well. How do students' and teachers' self-ratings compare?

MARZANO: As far as the order of correlation with student learning, student surveys are first; teacher self-ratings are second; and observer ratings are third.

QUINN: That's very interesting because we rely so heavily on the third in most schools.

MARZANO: The problem with observation is that you can never get enough observations to get a clear picture of what a teacher is doing. There's this thing called sampling error. If you only observe four times, you're probably not going to get more than a general idea of the typical behavior of a teacher in the classroom. If we were able to observe teachers 180 days, then observations would be a great tool that is highly precise, but obviously that's never going to happen. Given that, the student surveys and teacher self-evaluations are much more efficient. You get a lot of good data, and you're able to use it as a development tool.

QUINN: I know you are probably too busy, but does your research team work in schools to observe teachers and students? I think our readers would be very interested to know any patterns you have noticed across regions, or even in other countries.

MARZANO: Yes, we are in schools all of the time. The biggest pattern relative to evaluation everywhere is that raters give scores that are far higher than are deserved. For example, in my model, we have a 0-4 scale. A 3 is what we are shooting for. A 3 means, say for previewing, that a teacher is using the strategy and getting the desired effect. Students are activating prior knowledge. A 2 means that the teacher is using a strategy without monitoring to see what works or not. In my research, where I have looked at more than 1000 videos, the average score I come up with is 2.3. Across the country, the average score is about 3.3 from observer ratings. When teachers rate themselves, the average score is about a 2.2. This is obviously an interesting pattern. It means that even with the emphasis in *Race to the Top* on more accurate teacher evaluation, evaluators tend to inflate teachers' scores dramatically. They don't want to rate people low, probably because they want to give everybody the benefit of the doubt. What happens, though, is that high scores are assigned that wouldn't be assigned if an objective observer or researcher looked at the classroom, or even if the teachers rated themselves.

QUINN: *And that goes back to your talking about your model's efficiency for developing teachers. If there are only high scores, we lack development room.*

MARZANO: Right, we go in and talk to administrators and say, "You aren't helping anybody when you say a teacher is doing everything perfectly when they're not." The whole point is to help teachers get better, and they have to know in what areas they aren't doing well to improve.

QUINN: *I guess the hottest topic surrounding instruction in the United States right now is the adoption of the Common Core State Standards. Would you share your views on the standards and offer some instructional guidance for schools in the adjustment phase?*

MARZANO: Sure. Actually, we created a document on the website (www.marzanocenter.com) that talks about four different adaptations to make within our teacher-evaluation model to address Common Core. The model isn't different, but there are some different things teachers can do within it to improve teaching for Common Core. First of all, there are seven elements in the model that should be used more frequently. We didn't add anything to our model; we just identified the parts that teachers needed to use more frequently: engaging students in complex tasks, having students revise their understanding, being very clear about what critical information is needed, and the like. In addition to that, the Common Core State Standards for English language arts, the math standards, the mathematical practices, and the Next Generation Science Standards all concretely state that students should be explicitly taught cognitive skills such as problem solving and decision-making. Problem solving is already built into the model, but the change [with Common Core] is to model for students the process of solving problems, to teach them what it means to make a decision or an inference. The third adaptation is to push for more rigor in each of the elements of the framework. Planning is the fourth adaptation. It is very affected by the Common Core. You have to plan with a focus on greater depth of understanding. I know some states say they aren't using Common Core anymore, but if you look at those states' standards and you look at the Common Core, you see some interesting trends.

QUINN: *They're using it.*

MARZANO: Sure. Some states say they aren't using Common Core, but when you examine their mathematics and English language arts standards, it is clear they have

incorporated Common Core State Standards into their state documents. The part I am unclear about is what's going to happen with the assessments: PARCC [Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers] and Smarter Balanced [Smarter Balanced Assessment Consortium.] I'm not sure they are going to be used as widely as originally thought.

QUINN: That's what all of us in K-12 are wondering every day. Which one? Are we staying with the one our state originally chose? Will it be entirely different in the end? I think after teaching everyone to begin with the end in mind—to begin with the assessment piece in mind to guide instruction—not to have the assessment has everyone questioning.

MARZANO: Yes, I just think that they'll be used far less than originally thought.

QUINN: Another controversial topic that I think is important to our discussion of teacher evaluation is merit pay. A number of districts and states utilize your teacher-evaluation model within a merit pay system. What are your views on merit pay?

MARZANO: The problem with merit pay is that, year-to-year, it requires a level of precision when measuring teachers that no model has. To employ merit pay without a dramatic increase in precision of measurement makes no sense at all. Unless we observe teachers far more often and use better measures of student learning, merit pay won't work.

I wrote a book called *Effective Supervision*; the last chapter talks about this a little bit. Instead of year-to-year merit pay, what we recommend are bands of professionalism. Let's say a teacher first enters the profession and is what I'll call an *initial status teacher*; teachers stay there until they prove they deserve to move to the next level. That could take 2-3 years to move to what I'll call *professional teacher status*. Teachers could stay there the rest of their lives or prove their competence at higher levels like *mentor teacher* and *master teacher* levels. In short, I would think of merit pay not as a year-to-year phenomenon but in stages that span multiple years.

QUINN: Correct me if I'm wrong, but I hear you talking far more about skill—how teachers teach, how students learn, and how they improve their craft and their art far more than you are talking about their state test data.

MARZANO: I still want test data used as one of the types of evidence of student learning. But we have to recognize it's certainly not the only type, and maybe not even the best type. So as we move toward teacher development, we must look at test data as one piece only of the evidence for student learning.

QUINN: Our journal, as I mentioned earlier, has an international readership. Has Marzano Research Lab worked in other countries or in schools in other countries on teacher evaluation or instructional gains?

MARZANO: Sure. We do a lot in Australia; in fact, we just opened Marzano Research Institute Australia. Amsterdam and the Netherlands have been using our model for a number of years. We are starting to work more in China. We've also worked in Russia. Those are the four countries where we work directly. The model has been translated into a lot of different languages and is used in many Spanish-speaking countries, so it is relatively well known internationally.

QUINN: Speaking in general, comparative terms rather than statistically, of the countries where Marzano Research works, do you see some countries being stronger in one domain of

the model or some countries not doing so well at elements?

MARZANO: You know something? Teachers are remarkably similar from country to country. They really are! That is the one generalization I have. Teachers seem to have the same concerns.

Some countries are more test-driven than others—like China. China has the Gao Kao. It's their big high school test, so all of high school is devoted to that test; but, when you look at individual classrooms, they tend to teach the same and have the same concerns.

Teachers are more similar than not. It's the systems that are so different. We see more central control in many countries. I'll use a specific school where I worked in China: Beijing High School 80. They claim they are the best high school in China; if they're not, they are right up there. They are pretty darn impressive. The one thing they do that we don't is cumulative review. Every class systematically reviews what was done previously—not just what was taught during the last month but the whole year. All year, they review, review, review. Then, before the Gao Kao, they go through everything they've done and review again. Imagine the effect of that on student test scores when every teacher is systematically reviewing a curriculum that is completely aligned. It's fresh in every student's mind. But they do that as a system; everybody does it. No one opts out of it. We have more of an *every teacher does his or her own thing* approach, and that's the biggest difference I see.

QUINN: Given all of the information we know and the resources we have, where do you advise a district or national system to begin establishing a better system for teacher evaluation and, more importantly, for continued teacher and student growth?

MARZANO: That's a big question. We've developed a model called *High-Reliability Schools*. The first chapter of *A Handbook for High-Reliability Schools* is available on the MRL [Marzano Research Laboratory] website as a free download. That chapter will give readers a good sense of what I'm talking about. We looked at high-reliability systems: power grids, air traffic control, and aircraft carriers. These are endeavors where you can't afford to fail, and they all have similar characteristics. One is that they know exactly what to monitor.

In education, we do know what to look for, but we don't collect data systematically on these critical factors. High reliability organizations (HROs) use data to say either "Things are going well" or to say "Let's stop this problem as quickly as we can." It's not that HROs don't make mistakes; it's that they are monitoring the right things so frequently that they can forecast a mistake before it becomes a catastrophe. For me, that's the ultimate answer for how a school system can get better.

The central role of leadership, then, becomes to monitor what makes the biggest difference and to do so frequently. Look for certain things; in our model, we identify five. A school should be collecting data on those five elements, and that data will let the leadership know what is going well and what might be a problem. Instead of waiting until everything falls apart, effective leaders take action right away.

QUINN: So, last question: What's next for you and Marzano Research? What do we have to look forward to from your team?

MARZANO: Well, High-Reliability Schools. We've been working on the concept a long time, but we just launched it this year, so all of our research and professional development fits somewhere in that bigger picture. We have other projects and books, but when we talk to schools, we start with that [high-reliability schools]. We say, today we are here with you to work on instructional strategies, but know that, for us, it fits in a bigger picture—a bigger framework. We have a high-reliability schools network and, hopefully,

more schools will join that network. That's it for me. That framework is the synthesis of the work I've done since 1968.

QUINN: Thank you so much for your generosity of time. I have enjoyed talking with you and learning so much about Marzano Research Laboratory's work around the world.

Whether mastering Common Core State Standards or preparing for the Gao Kao, students rely upon effective teachers. Those teachers rely upon objective, fair use of evaluation procedures and their own school system's commitments to supporting teacher development. In the end, for many in education, all of the information evolves into two questions: Who will rate teaching and learning? How will those observations and ratings be used? Hopefully, my conversation with Dr. Marzano has offered a new lens to examine a picture far larger than typical drop-in visits and year-end reviews have captured.

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Out with the Old and In with the New: One University Department's Experience with Revisions of the Tenure-and-Promotion Policy

by Elizabeth Pyle

The tenure-and-promotion policy for university faculty often lacks clarity even if it has existed for many decades. Frequently shrouded in generalities and open to any number of interpretations, such a policy can create a stressful environment for pretenured faculty. The author explains how members of the department of Kinesiology, Recreation and Sport at Western Kentucky University revised their tenure-and-promotion policy to include less ambiguity and more definitive guidelines.

Introduction

The existence of a tenure-and-promotion policy within higher education is well-known, yet the specific parameters of the policy are often nebulous. Unlike tenure in the preK-12 public school setting, which is typically based on years of employment (ProCon, 2014), the process of tenure at the university level includes not only a probationary period of at least 5 years, but also proof of teaching expertise, research production, and service (Trower, 2010; *Faculty Handbook*, 2013). More often than not, the guidelines for each of these components are written within such a broad spectrum that they create more ambiguity than clarity. In some respects, such ambiguity is an asset—it gives the tenure candidate more freedom for self-expression. However, too many choices often produce undue stress for pretenured faculty because they are unsure if the choices they have made are the *correct choices* according to those serving on the tenure-evaluation committee. Trower (2010) stated that what pretenured faculty consider most important are clear and realistic tenure requirements. Revisions to the traditional tenure system at universities have occurred slowly despite significant changes in higher education and its professoriate (Jackson-Weaver, Baker, Gillespie, Bellido, & Watts, 2010). The following account describes the course of action that members of the Kinesiology, Recreation and Sport Department (KRS) at Western Kentucky University (WKU) took during the 2012-2013 academic year to update their tenure-and-promotion policy.

The Committee's Charge

The responsibility of the Tenure and Promotion (T & P) Revision Committee of the KRS was to review and revise the department's current tenure policy; the directives given were to

- create tenure-and-promotion guidelines that clearly communicate departmental expectations;
- bring department guidelines into compliance with the *WKU Faculty Handbook*;
- echo previous suggestions and recommend the creation of a faculty mentoring program;
- recommend connecting the tenure-and-promotion guidelines with annual evaluations; and
- develop tenure and promotion portfolio guidelines to provide continuity for reviews. (R. Poff, personal communication, December 10, 2012)

I served as one of two nontenured members of the KRS faculty on the five-person T & P Revision Committee; one other member was in his tenure-evaluation year, and two members were tenured, including the chair of the committee. Each of the four programs within the KRS Department was represented: Exercise Science, Physical Education, Recreation, and Sport Management. The only female on the committee, I represented Physical Education.

Prior to our first meeting on October 29, 2012, we were instructed to review the tenure-and-promotion section of the current (19th edition) *WKU Faculty Handbook* and to review the past two tenure-and-promotion policies for the department. The most recent policy statement had been written prior to 2000; the other did not have a date but was a typewritten document.

The T & P Revision Committee also reviewed a list of concerns that had been compiled by all pretenured faculty members during the spring semester in 2012. The concerns from these junior faculty members were as follows:

- They requested clarification of both the Student Instructor Teaching Evaluation (SITE) and the peer-faculty evaluation process in terms of weight. SITE is an evaluation of a professor's teaching that is completed by students in a particular course; it is voluntary and completed online.
- They requested clarification of the hierarchy or weight of journals because they vary from program to program.
- Having looked at the older tenure document for the department (with very specific requirements) and the present tenure document for the department (with requirements stated in more general terms), the junior faculty believed a document written in the middle ground might be appropriate.
- They expressed concern about a document's subjectivity.
- They expressed concern about weight of college input and the support from the department in the tenure decision.
- They believed a more formal mentoring process should be established.
- They requested more collaboration in the research process. (Pyle, meeting notes, April 20, 2012)

The T & P Revision Committee met face-to-face five times and communicated via e-mail between meetings. The members were dedicated to the end results of the evaluation being as objective as possible for the two perspectives—that of the pretenured faculty and that of the tenured faculty evaluators—because often times evaluators, even within the



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same programs and departments, evaluate tenure portfolios very differently and with very different outcomes (Knight, 2010).

The Challenges of Revision

The meetings were candid; regardless of tenure status or program, the members worked together to create requirements that were clear, realistic, and attainable, as well as demanding. The committee addressed each component—teaching, research, and service—separately; the most challenging aspect was to find a way to quantify that which is often more subjective. The committee members were in consensus that the KRS tenure-and-promotion policy needed a numerical rubric for clarity and guidance. Developing such a rubric proved more difficult than first thought. “Explicit promotion and tenure guidelines prevent ambiguous expectations and nuanced understandings derived from a range of interpretations across the institution” (Knight, 2010). However, creating a specific and yet flexible policy required the committee to consider not only the department as a whole but each program separately.

Teaching. Teaching is the most subjective and difficult of the three tenure components to evaluate even though most of a faculty member’s time is dedicated to it (Berube & Young, 2002). At the university, the assessment of a professor’s teaching effectiveness is most often based on students’ ratings and on comments and recommendations by the department head (Berube & Young, 2002). Indeed, the committee members expressed a strong concern about student ratings as the major consideration of teaching effectiveness. To give a more holistic picture of a teaching effectiveness, we included evaluations from others—department head, tenured faculty, nontenured peers, and even faculty from other departments. In other words, no single measurement of teaching effectiveness would be used. Figure 1 provides the rubric developed for assessing teaching as a factor for tenure and promotion.

Research. A tenure-track faculty member’s research is typically evaluated by examining the number of publications and presentations (Berube & Young, 2002). This is a straightforward quantitative measurement; publications and presentations are either done or not done. Evaluators often consider the reputation of the journal in which the article was published and whether it is an international, national, state, or local publication. In addition, research has customarily been given the greatest weight for tenure and promotion; it displaces the influence of teaching despite the fact that teaching is given a faux status of being the most important aspect of the tenure process (Hardré, Cox, & Kollmann, 2010).

The committee concurred that research is important for tenure but also concluded that research should be defined as broadly as possible because the types of research and publications vary greatly among programs within KRS. In addition, WKU is a public university with a different purpose than a Tier1 research university. Again, the committee developed a numerical rubric as a guideline for those in a tenure-track position. Figure 2 provides the rubric developed for assessing research as a consideration for tenure and promotion.

Service. The third component of the evaluation, service, is often considered the least influential but still required in the tenure process. Berube and Young (2002) contended that community service, as well as professional service, is often underappreciated and given little recognition. The committee members believed that service is a responsibility of university faculty and therefore created a numerical rubric to assess this element. Figure 3 provides the rubric developed for assessing service as a consideration for tenure and promotion.

Teaching (Feedback)	
Student feedback from course appraisals	
Department head evaluation of teaching	
Peer evaluation of teaching	
External (outside of department) evaluation of teaching	
Teaching (Professional Responsibilities) partial list	
Candidates are encouraged to rate with a score of 1-5 (and provide rationale) for each activity. These ratings and rationales will be considered by the tenure/promotion committee. * All faculty must report on these core responsibilities. Section Target 18 points	
*Meeting classes	
*Holding office hours	
*Providing academic advising to students	
*Supervising students in practical experiences	
*Documentation of direct assistance in helping students find employment	
Thesis/Dissertation committee	
Independent study supervision	
Documentation of direct assistance helping students apply for graduate school	
Other	
Teaching (Professional & Teaching Development) partial list	
The following list (not exhaustive) indicates additional contributions by which faculty may further demonstrate their level of performance in the area of teaching. Candidates are encouraged to rate and justify each of their activities with a scale of 1-5. * All faculty must report on these core responsibilities. Section Target 36 points.	
Professional Development	
*Comments/letters from students and alumni	
*Self-reflection of teaching	
*An evaluation of the knowledge of recent discoveries in the field	
*Participation in professional activities	
*Professional conference attendance	
Teaching awards (any level)	
Other	
Teaching Development	
*Participation in teaching development workshops/training	
Other	
Curriculum/Program Development	
*Developing, scheduling, and teaching general undergraduate and graduate courses	
*Systematic organization of appropriate materials for presentation and communications to students of course objectives, plan of study, and means of student performance evaluation	
*Assessment procedures such as tests, grading practices, and clinical performance	
Development or revisions of courses	
Development of web-based courses	
Other	

Figure 1. Rubric for assessing teaching as part of consideration for tenure and promotion. From *Tenure and Promotion Document* by Department of Kinesiology, Recreation and Sport (2013). Bowling Green, KY: Western Kentucky University. Reprinted with permission.

Note. Where responses from 1-5 are requested, 1 is a low rating; 5 is a high rating.

Research/Creative Activity (Publications)			
Minimum of five publications ; includes two lead authorships (at least one lead authorship at the International/National refereed level) Section Target 15 pts	Lead Author	2 nd or 3 rd Author	4 th Author or later
Refereed (peer reviewed)			
International/National Journal article	7	4	2
Regional/State Journal article	3	2	1
Research Abstracts (international/national)	2	1	0.5
Research Abstracts (multi-page abstract in proceedings)	2	1	0.5
Books/Monographs/Reports*			
Non-Refereed (non-peer-reviewed)*			
Research/Creative Activity (Presentations)			
Minimum of five presentations ; includes three lead presentations (at least two at International/National level) Section Target 15 pts	Presenter	2 nd or 3 rd Author	2 nd or 3 rd Author
International/National	7	3	2
Regional	5	2	1
State	3	1	0.5
Professional/Trade	3	1	0.5
Local/WKU/Other universities	2	1	0.5
Research/Creative Activity (Grants)			
Minimum of two grant applications (at least one lead author) Section Target 5 pts	Lead Author (Funded)	Lead Author (Applied)	Other author (Applied or Funded)
External Research	10	8	2.5
Internal Research	6	3	1.5
External Other	8	4	2
Internal Other	4	2	1
Research/Creative Activity (Other Contributions)*			
Faculty may further demonstrate their level of performance in the area of Research/Creative by providing additional examples. Candidates are encouraged to rate with a score of 1-5 (and provide rationale) for each additional activity. These ratings and rationales will be considered by the tenure/promotion committee.			

*List not provided because of spaced considerations

Figure 2. Rubric for assessing teaching as part of consideration for tenure and promotion. From *Tenure and Promotion Document* by Department of Kinesiology, Recreation and Sport (2013). Bowling Green, KY: Western Kentucky University. Reprinted with permission.

Note. Where responses from 1-5 are requested, 1 is a low rating; 5 is a high rating.

Service (University)			
Target for Associate: Average involvement in 1 committee/year at the college / university level and 1 committee/year at the department / program level			
	# of committees	Level of Involvement	
University Committees			
College Committees			
Departmental Committees			
Program Committees			
Service (Public/Professional) partial list			
Target for Associate: Involvement (measured by year/service in 1 international/national committee/board/officer -or- a combination of 3 regional/state/local committee/board/officer activities. Section Target 5 pts	International/ National	Regional/ State	Local
Officer	10	7	5
Board Member	7	5	3
Professional committee chairperson	5	3	2
Professional committee member	3	2	1
Peer-Reviewer for articles, chapters, etc. Points per review	3	2	n/a
Service (Additional Contributions)			
Faculty may further demonstrate their level of performance in the area of Service by providing additional examples. Candidates are encouraged to rate with a score of 1-5 (and provide rationale) for each additional activity. These ratings and rationales will be considered by the tenure/promotion committee.			
University Service (partial list)			
Departmental/college/university administrative duties such as program director/coordinator			
Special assignments from chairperson/dean/department head			
Participation in faculty meetings and seminars			
Mentoring/advising new faculty			
Mentoring/advising student groups			
Creation/maintenance of advisory groups			
Public/Professional (partial list)			
Work with schools through contact with teachers, administrators, students; through participation in science fairs, college days, performance, in-service programs; through Advising on curriculum matters, pedagogy			
Organizer/director of seminars, workshops, and/or other conferences.			
Expert or member of policy advisory committees			

Figure 3. Rubric for assessing teaching as part of consideration for tenure and promotion. From *Tenure and Promotion Document* by Department of Kinesiology, Recreation and Sport (2013). Bowling Green, KY: Western Kentucky University. Reprinted with permission.

Note. Where responses from 1-5 are requested, 1 is a low rating; 5 is a high rating.

The Final Outcome

The completed document was presented to the entire KRS department for discussion and input and was approved for implementation in May 2013. As charged, the committee established its own agreed-upon set of clear tenure-and-promotion guidelines that were deemed fair and unbiased. Candidates for tenure or promotion are not required to have a grand total of a certain number of points, but a target goal exists for each section (teaching, research, and service). Points may vary according to the program responsibilities of each faculty member, and a candidate can provide written justification and documentation to justify the number of points on a specific item. For example, a teacher-educator might

be entitled to full point value for supervising student teachers, but a faculty member in exercise science might have points for lab supervision instead. This arrangement also gives flexibility among the sections: one faculty member may have many points in research but not as many in service or teaching; another may have the most points in teaching and service but just the minimal target points in research. Ultimately, however, a faculty member could be denied tenure if he or she only met minimum target points.

The goal of the committee was to find a way to be as objective as possible in a process that is often very subjective. However, to date, the document has yet to be officially approved by the dean of the college or by the university provost and therefore can only be used as an unofficial guideline. Consequently, without a set of explicit guidelines, pretenured faculty continue to have only the very general university policy as the official requirements for tenure and promotion.

A Personal Sidebar

When I began as a tenure-track assistant professor 5 years ago, the end of my tenure process was not in sight; however, now in the final months before my tenure portfolio must be submitted, I find myself in a state of dichotomy—wanting a definitive rubric but still wanting enough flexibility for my own interpretation. As a member of the T & P Revision Committee, I believe strongly that we developed a document that is explicit yet flexible; it will serve as my unofficial guide as I compile my tenure-portfolio documents. In addition, although all universities, departments, and programs have unique sets of circumstances with regards to tenure and promotion, a framework such as this may give guidance to others as they search for a rigorous, flexible, and fair tenure-and-promotion policy.

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Embarking on the Tenure Journey at Age 50

By Kelly Welsh and Connie Schaffer

*How is the pursuit of tenure a unique experience if one is a woman and over 50? The stories of two women candidly address this question. Framed within concepts outlined by Sheryl Sandberg in her book *Lean In* (2013), their journeys outline the risks, fears, and frustrations of being experienced novices. Frustrated with the general advice typically offered to new tenure-track faculty members, the two set out to create their own path. Through a series of personal and professional nudges, seemingly small interventions that yielded significant return, the women recalibrated their perspectives and behaviors. The implications of their stories are that regardless of the challenges, people can free themselves from the paralyzing effects of fear, reframe rejection and failure, and lead themselves and others to the goals they have set.*

From the outside, the work of a college professor looks easy. One teaches three or four classes each semester, and the rest of the time is the individual's. The reality is much different. There are meetings and committees, office hours to keep, advising duties, class preparation and grading—the list goes on. For new faculty, the demands beyond teaching can become overwhelming when the pressure of attaining tenure is added. The challenges of tenure related to teaching, service, and research are increased when internal fears create barriers that block the faculty member from taking the necessary risks to achieve tenure.

Literature Review

The typical journey to become a tenured university professor includes the following, well-known steps: (a) earn a doctoral degree, (b) secure a faculty position, (c) persevere through the tenure process, and (d) attain tenure. As new professors complete the first two steps and move on to Step 3, literature (Buller, 2010; Higgs, Graham, & Mattei, 2006; Mabrouk, 2006; Olson, 2010; Stewart, 2013; White & Meendering, 2008) offers a plethora of advice and guidance. Similar to other novice professionals, tenure-tracked faculty members are encouraged to seek out mentors, network with colleagues and their professional community, judiciously manage time, establish credibility through high-profile projects, create a work-life balance, and avoid workplace politics. In addition to these general career recommendations, those seeking tenure are advised to have a clear understanding of the specific teaching, research, and service requirements of tenure on their campuses and within their departments (Buller, 2010; Higgs, Graham, & Mattei, 2006; Mabrouk, 2006; Olson, 2010; Stewart, 2013; White & Meendering, 2008).

There is, however, no single story of the road to tenure. For some, the nuances of the journey are influenced by their gender, race, ethnicity, or sexual orientation (Cook, 2007; Cooper & Stevens, 2002; Mabrouk, 2006; Samble, 2008; White, 2005; White & Meendering, 2008). For others, the tenure process is influenced by the age at which they

entered the tenure path. The median age of doctoral recipients in the United States is 31.8 years (National Science Foundation, 2014), and faculty in the first 5 years of their university careers are typically just under the age of 40 (Berberet, 2008). Just as other demographic variables of faculty members impact the tenure process, so, too, does age (Cooper, Ortiz, Benham, & Woods Scherr, 2002; Jaschik, 2008).

What Would We Do If We Weren't Afraid?

The following stories help to illustrate our experiences as two female assistant professors who began our tenure treks when we were just under the age of 50. The key issues emerging from our stories are framed within the writing and research of Sheryl Sandberg, author of *Lean In* (2013). In order to lean into their careers, Sandberg advises women, regardless of their age, to confront the fears and internal barriers that may stymie their professional lives and to take the risks needed to chart unique career paths that allow them to build fulfilling careers. We begin the story with Sandberg's essential question, "What would we do if we weren't afraid?"

Kelly's story. When I was an undergraduate taking my English-methods course, I loved my methods course and the professor who taught it. For the first time, I found myself wondering about teaching college—about being a teacher-educator. I thought it would be fun, but college teaching required a doctorate, and I was not prepared intellectually to do that, so I focused on being a high school English teacher. Twenty-some years and two master's degrees later, I was working part-time as an adjunct faculty member in a college of education while teaching high school full-time when a colleague stopped me after a meeting.

"We think you should get your doctorate so you can come teach with us full-time," she said. I could not believe it—me? Become a college professor? Leave my school? I loved my job teaching high school English. I had been there for 14 years and had established myself as a well-respected practitioner. Yet, teaching college was my dream job; how could I say no?

Stunned, I managed to stammer out, "Okay." Five years later, I found myself sitting around a conference table with the other new faculty, learning about the *reappointment, promotion, and tenure* process and wondering what I had gotten myself into. Instead of enjoying the ease of knowing how each year would play out, I was struggling to figure out

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what I would be teaching the next day and when I would have time to even think about writing. Achieving tenure was not going to be as easy as I had thought.

Connie's story. The conversation started with information seeking, was followed by surprised disbelief, and ended soon after, because quite frankly, it was difficult for most to understand. The exchange typically went like this.

"So, this is a promotion?" asked the friend.

"Um, not really, it's just a different role," I replied.

"Will you make more money?"

"No, I'll be taking a pay cut."

"What? Why would you do that? I thought you liked what you did?"

"I do; I mean, I did. It is just... I think this would be a good move."

"That's interesting. Do you know what the weather is supposed to do tomorrow?"

Let me explain. I had been working in nontenure-track professional roles at a large university for 14 years, advancing through several positions and supplementing my salary with adjunct teaching. I really liked my various jobs. I had student contact, worked with great staff and faculty colleagues, and enjoyed a strong professional relationship with my boss, the dean of my college. While doing this, I completed my doctorate because, well, that's what one does when she is in higher education.

Despite my success, I had a gnawing desire to become a faculty member. My aspirations may have originated from the part of my personality that always drives me to seek out and accomplish the "next" great challenge. Or perhaps I had bought into the "grass is always greener" mentality; but quite honestly, I was already a recipient of many of the benefits of being faculty, such as opportunities to attend conferences and freedom to develop projects that were of interest to me. I also had great autonomy in my schedule, allowing time for me to meet the demands of being a wife and mother.

So surprisingly to everyone but me, when the opportunity presented itself, I applied for a position as an assistant professor, survived a competitive national search process, and became a faculty member. At age 48, I began the tenure journey.

Life as Experienced Novices

We were experienced. At our ages, both of us had established careers that gave us advantages as we began our work as faculty members. Kelly had 19 years of successful teaching behind her, and Connie had 15 years of professional experience at the university plus 8 years of teaching experience. Both of us had taught as adjuncts and had important campus networks established before we began our first years as faculty members. In addition to our work histories, we had experience balancing multiple responsibilities. Kelly worked full time and taught as an adjunct while at the same time earning her doctorate. Connie had previously been able to establish a balanced schedule that allowed her to meet the demands of her family and her career.

Yet the accounts of our first year allude to our co-status as novices who were naïve to the realities of tenure. Kelly articulated that "achieving tenure was not going to be as easy" as she had anticipated. Connie admitted that she may have viewed faculty status through a lens that made the "grass appear greener" than what she currently had underfoot in her other university role.

To our credit, we were willing to set aside fears of the unknown and reroute our career paths to look more like "a jungle gym, not a ladder" (Sandberg, 2013, p. 53). To outsiders, the perception was we were moving up the ladder when, in reality, we were "[forging] a new unique path" (2013, p. 53) by taking a cut in salary and risking our established professional

status in an effort to reach a greater or at least renewed fulfillment in our professional lives. However, as Sandberg noted, and as we realized as our stories unfolded, moving beyond fear and embracing the risk of uncharted paths are very difficult tasks, particularly for women.

Kelly's story. Teaching was easily the best part of my first year. Because of my schedule, I finally had time to teach the way I had always wanted. I was able to model everything I wanted my students to be able to do. Instead of trying to survive, I was teaching with intentionality and thoroughly enjoyed every moment of it.

If *idyllic* was to describe my first year, then *difficult* and *disquieting* described my second. I had come face-to-face with the new realities that now defined my life, and I was scared. For the past 20 years, I had accomplished every professional goal I had set for myself, including the one thing that I thought I could never do—earn a doctoral degree and become a college professor. This was who I was—a great teacher, a strong writer, and a hard worker. When my first article rejection came, I dismissed it. It had to be a fluke. However, when more rejections came, I was a failure.

Why had I done this to myself? I had kept my teaching certificate current, but the thought of returning to a secondary classroom only increased the feelings of failure. I did not share these feelings with anyone. Although my identity was cracking into pieces, I needed the people around me to think I was still the same strong, confident woman they respected.

Connie's story. My grades as an undergraduate, graduate, and doctoral student were stellar. My professors nominated me for awards, repeatedly told me I was a good writer, and used my dissertation as a model in a research-design class. I had been an academic all-star—that is, until I joined the faculty ranks of academia.

Now failure seemed to greet me at nearly every turn. Manuscripts were rejected. Grant applications were not funded. My reappointment, promotion, and tenure committee rated my research as “average.” With each rejection and disappointment, I went through a series of emotions that included disbelief, anger, depression, and fear. Although I could cycle through the other emotions quickly, fear never left me.

On one level, I was afraid I did not have “what it takes” to be a faculty member. On another, deeper level, I was afraid that if I did not succeed I would lose a significant part of my identity and have little time left to invent a different one. If I did not get tenure, I would be over 50 and have few options to reestablish myself in a new career. I struggled with my fears alone. I did not share them with my friends, family, or colleagues because I thought I would be perceived as insecure, and to me insecurity was not a pretty picture—particularly for a 50-year-old with 15 years of experience at the university.

What I had originally perceived as an opportunity to become a faculty member now seemed a huge risk. A once-familiar work environment now was uncharted territory. Although I did not long to go back to my previous work, I found myself succumbing to the paralyzing effects of fear.

Life as Imposters

Our experiences and successes from our past careers seemed all but discounted. We questioned our abilities on a daily basis and wondered just how long it would take before others realized our insecurity, if not our inability. Despite 20-plus years of proving our abilities, we were insecure, and, as Connie stated, this was not a flattering portrait of someone who is 50 years old and has her doctorate.

Not only did our age and past successes make coping with this insecurity difficult; so,

too, did our gender. When we had manuscripts or proposals rejected, we distorted this rejection by internalizing it as a definitive judgment of our abilities or lack thereof. Kelly put it bluntly, concluding “I was a failure” rather than considering how other variables may have also led to “rejection.” This type of distortion is much more common in women than men (Sandberg, 2013).

This distortion led to deepened self-doubt. We could not “seem to shake the sense” (Sandberg, 2013, p. 28) that sooner or later we would be exposed as “imposters with limited skills or abilities” (2013, p. 28). Feeling like a fraud or imposter was problematic because it could become a paralyzing self-prophecy for us. It was important for us to confront these feelings and reframe our fears if we were to move past the inertia that they were causing (Koch, 2002). We needed an intellectual and an emotional recalibration. As Sandberg advised, we needed to “undistort the distortion” (2013, p. 33) in order to lean into our faculty roles fully.

Leaning and Nudging

The recalibration began without our realizing it. Two tenured colleagues brought us together at the end of the first semester because they were concerned about our progress in research. They offered suggestions and shared what others had done to increase their research productivity. This was the first “nudge” we needed. It was at this meeting that we chose to collaborate on research and work from home one day each week instead of coming to campus.

Sandberg defines nudges as “small interventions that encourage people to behave in slightly different ways at critical moments” (2013, p. 33). Nudges, a concept first coined by business professors Richard Thayer and Cass Sunstein (2008), do not mandate behavior changes, but rather steer people to make choices that are relatively easy and can be done with minimum cost or risk. Nudges are most needed in situations in which people do not get prompt feedback and are struggling to navigate circumstances that they do not fully understand. Nudges could help us get feedback and chart a path through the tenure process.

We started meeting off campus the first Tuesday of the new semester. Our internal recalibration process was slow at first as we had to learn to trust each other. Although we had known each other for several years and had worked on projects together, it was not until we started working on the idea for this article and sharing our stories that we realized how similar we were. “I thought I was the only one who felt like a failure, and I was trying so hard to hide it,” Kelly explained. “But, when I found out that Connie was feeling the same, it was actually a relief.” This was another nudge—being honest with ourselves and talking about what was happening.

We started asking ourselves, “What would you do if you weren’t afraid?” We joined the biweekly department writing group where anyone could bring a question or concern related to research and publishing. This nudge provided us with another layer of feedback, support, and acceptance. Kelly asked question after question about how to find journals for publishing. Connie needed help with an accepted article that had been “lost” by a journal editor. Sharing our struggles also meant that our colleagues could see what we did not know. The risk was that we were exposing our identities as imposters; however, the benefits outweighed the risks. A doctoral student who attended these meetings said she was relieved that we asked these questions because she felt better about herself knowing that we had the same questions. An unexpected result came from these nudges. Other new instructors started sharing their similar fears with us. They needed nudges to recalibrate

their own distortions. It was a comfort to know others had the same questions, the same issues, and the same fears. Instead of being viewed as imposters, we were viewed as role models—willing to answer questions and willing to ask questions. Through these nudges, we stopped being afraid of failing.

At some point in time, each of us will have uncharted paths to navigate, and we must embrace the risks these paths present instead of allowing the fears to paralyze us. There will be challenges, even failures, but that does not mean we give up. Instead, we simply keep asking ourselves, “What would [you] do if [you] weren’t afraid? And then go do it” (Sandberg, 2013, p. 26).

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Reevaluating Narrow Accountability in American Schools: The Need for Collaborative Effort in Improving Teaching Performances

By Melissa Brevetti

*E*specially in American education, teachers' responsibilities and school accountability issues have dominated the debates about school reforms. Many supporters assert the best way to improve the educational system is through merit pay based on high-stakes testing results. The author describes the warnings of researchers and teachers regarding use of merit-pay systems as a key way to evaluate teaching performances. Believing that collaborative efforts could bring teacher and student success, the author argues that schools should emphasize a shared responsibility among teachers, parents, and community to improve teaching performances and should develop mentoring systems for collaborative learning in order to remind educators that teaching requires much courage and heart.

A class may finish for both students and teachers. Learning, however, should never stop throughout a lifetime. Unfortunately, once student teaching is finished, most new teachers typically have little support or mentoring from other teachers. As a result, teachers have few opportunities to navigate the complexities of becoming skilled in areas of expertise that are essential to a classroom environment, such as managing student behavior, designing lesson plans, and assessing students' assignments. Educational policymakers should have realistic perspectives on teaching performances. Indeed, all stakeholders in the school community must call into question the "failure" (Berliner, 2004, p. 15) to provide improvement opportunities and collaborative methods for teachers.

Schooling, whether public or private, arguably affects the lives of people more than any other American institution. For that reason, teachers' performances are critiqued and closely evaluated as they are forced to prove themselves by objective measurements. Especially in American education, teacher- and school-accountability issues have dominated the ongoing debates about school reforms. In this article, I argue that even though teachers should be held accountable for their impact on student achievement, the practice of basing merit pay on high-stakes testing undermines the essence and art of collaboration among teachers, parents, and community in schools.

Merit Pay in Education

In contemporary debates about teacher evaluation within American schools, the concept of accountability has risen to prominence as a key justification for sweeping education reforms. Notably, President Obama's recent school reform, *Race to the Top*, includes one more pressure for teachers: merit pay. For the purposes of this discussion, *merit-pay system* refers to any pay scheme that connects salary bonuses to student learning, often assessed by a test. *Race to the Top's* \$4.35 billion fund promotes a direct link between a teacher's pay and student achievement scores. In the section on reform-plan criteria, the application for funding requires "improving teacher and principal effectiveness based on performance" (p. 33) and explicitly notes that school system personnel should base evaluations on student growth data and use these evaluations

to inform decisions about . . . compensating, promoting, and retaining teachers and principals, including by providing opportunities for highly effective teachers and principals (both as defined in this notice) to obtain additional compensation and be given additional responsibilities; . . . (p. 34)

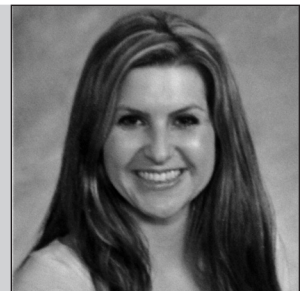
The premise is merit pay will improve the performance of teachers.

To unpack the concept of a merit-pay system more fully, policymakers for public education are using money as an incentive for individual teachers to have their students achieve high scores on tests. However, effective teaching is difficult to measure by a student test. As Ramirez (2010) stated, "Tests are typically designed to measure student learning—not instruction or teacher effectiveness" (p. 56). If policymakers shift educators' focus onto testing and money, the essence of good teaching will be lost.

Many teachers feel pressure to be recognized as a top teacher. A merit-based pay system, particularly one in which funding is limited, can put teachers in competition with their colleagues for pay increases. Such rivalry, in turn, can prevent collaboration and promote practices that do not have the best interest of learners at heart. For example, Nichols and Berliner (2007) found that when teachers are evaluated with high-stakes testing and merit pay, cheating on tests has occurred. As a further illustration, in Houston, with a traditional history of merit pay, teachers focus on the certain types of students who can help them get bonuses (Amrein-Beardsley & Collins, 2012). These children are generally from wealthy and middle-class families and most likely to grow academically and do well on standardized testing. Teachers who are motivated by bonuses want these children and request no special education students or English language learners—i.e., those less likely to have high achievement on standardized tests. In short, education can become distorted and competitive on all levels when teachers and students must prove they are not part of an inefficient school system through the narrow gauge of test scores.

I argue that we must be wary of competitive practices in order to bring back the collaborative nature of education and promote a community of teachers and parents. In particular, stakeholders should not expect one person to be entirely responsible for a child's success in the classroom and build an accountability system focused on that single

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individual. An old African proverb states that it takes a village to raise a child. This phrase refers to community responsibilities in child rearing and suggests that many good teachers, both inside and outside of the classroom, should be in a child's life.

Collaborative Approaches with Parents Improve Teaching Performances

Teaching performances are significant. Good teachers can make a positive impact on students' academic progress. Nonetheless, one must be aware of the myth that teachers have the greatest influence on a child's education (Berliner & Glass, 2014). Decades of research studies show that parents are the most influential factor to a child's academic achievement (Christian & Bryant, 1998; Epstein, 2001; Henderson & Mapp, 2002; Jeynes, 2007). Children spend just 14% of their time in school, 33% sleeping, and 53% at home and in the community (Bransford et al., 2000). That being said, accountability for student achievement should not simply rest on teachers, and certainly the fairness of merit pay based on such achievement becomes questionable. Specifically, families and community should broadly share the responsibility for student success.

Although teachers can and must be held accountable for classroom responsibilities, such as behavioral management and tracking of student work, parents must back school personnel in discipline practices and students' work responsibilities. Over the years, I have used the strategy of acquiring a parent signature to show shared responsibility. A parent may need to sign a failed test or discipline demerit. Also, parents sign school handbooks in order to emphasize a collaborative union. Whether or not they have read the handbook, parents must sign that they understand what is expected from their child, as well as from them. Parent involvement encourages children to attend school and graduate. When parents can check homework and just talk to their children about the importance of their schooling, teaching lessons are reinforced. Put succinctly, family involvement benefits students and teachers.

Collaborative Approaches among Educators Enhance Teaching Performances

Ultimately, of course, teachers must be expected to fulfill classroom tasks: keeping a safe classroom environment where learning can flourish; designing engaging and meaningful lesson plans; implementing fun activities and various ways that many students' learning styles can be utilized; grading essays or tests in a fair manner; and striving to give prompt and constructive feedback in order to achieve deep learning. These components are salient to good teaching and may be difficult for new teachers and even veteran teachers. Thus, educators should embrace a formal system of mentoring for the profession of teaching. New teachers need support and guidance from veteran teachers on how best to keep grades and maintain consistent discipline practices in a classroom. Veteran teachers need assistance to bring technology into classrooms and to use contemporary practices that allow students to break away from traditional textbook-based learning. A mentoring system holds the idea of sharing, helping, and caring through a collaborative group of teachers. Outstanding teaching performances rely on collaboration and recognition of the power of sharing ideas and being a teaching community to all students.

Challenges for the Future of Education

In conclusion, schools are significant places of instruction, but learning is not limited to what a student learns from a schoolteacher. Educational policymakers, teachers, and community members should understand teaching performances in a realistic manner and recognize that student achievement requires parents' involvement and many forms

of collaboration. The complex art of teaching should involve teachers' sharing knowledge without the undermining stresses of competition and merit pay based on high-stakes testing results.

Educators should build a community of learning on all levels of a school to achieve student improvement and teacher success. They should, moreover, encourage students to build important skills that are not measured by objective evaluations or tests, such as creativity, honesty, and prudence. Effective teaching performances begin with immeasurable courage and heart as teachers seek to bring love of learning and of others to the classroom every day. In education, as in life, people must work together to discover teaching relationships filled with hope and love.

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Setting the Stage for Collaboration: An Essential Skill for Professional Growth

By Nina J. Morel

Collaboration is identified as an essential twenty-first-century skill, and research supports that professional learning is enhanced by collaboration among teachers. Nevertheless, many American schools have little time built into the day for collaborative professional interactions such as coaching, peer observation, modeling, or professional-learning-community work. Administrators and teacher leaders can take a few essential steps to promote and enhance their own collaboration among colleagues and promote the collaborative practices of professionals in their schools.

A few years ago, I met Kum Fong, an administrator from the Singapore Ministry of Education, who was visiting Nashville, Tennessee, as a Fulbright Scholar to share her research on professional collaboration among teachers. At the time, I was working to develop collaborative professional-learning practices in my school district, and I asked her to comment on her impressions of American teachers and their collaborative professional learning. Without hesitation, she answered, “Teachers are so lonely here.” Her observation backed up my own sense that the professional isolation of the American teacher must be addressed in order to improve teaching and learning in the twenty-first century. In this article, I explore why collaboration is so important at this juncture in education.

Why is Collaboration So Important Now?

Collaboration, according to Rubin (2009), is a “means of aligning people’s actions to get something done” (p. 16). Collaboration leverages diverse perspectives and skills and can promote creativity and productivity. In addition, collaboration is a skill that is valued by employers as well as civic and social organizations. It is tied to greater job satisfaction, and it is an effective learning practice, especially for adult learners. Practicing collaboration models its importance for the students who will be called upon to collaborate in an increasingly complex economy and society.

Collaboration is necessary in a complex, global society. One hundred years ago, a teacher might live her whole life collaborating with only a few hundred people whom she knew and developed relationships with over a lifetime. Today, through technology, educators come in contact with hundreds of people from around the globe every day. Fifty years ago, teaching required an individual to get along in his or her geographic community; today, teachers are expected to communicate instantaneously with parents, leaders, and colleagues at home and around the globe. Information about best practices in the classroom is instantly available to all stakeholders, and community members expect

their teachers to stay up to date with current research and to implement innovations in their own classrooms almost immediately. The increasing complexity of teaching students to develop skills for a future society that one can barely imagine requires teachers to be learners every day—not just in the summer when professional learning opportunities have been traditionally offered.

Collaboration increases teachers' job satisfaction. The MetLife Foundation has conducted an annual *Survey of the American Teacher* every year since 1984. In 2012, the survey indicated that teachers' job satisfaction had dropped to the lowest level in 25 years. Only 39% of the 1000 public school teachers surveyed reported job satisfaction—a drop of 23% since 2008, when 62% of teachers reported being satisfied with their jobs. Compared to the most-satisfied teachers, the least-satisfied teachers in the 2012 survey were more likely to work in schools that, during the previous 12 months, had experienced cuts in professional development and decreases in time for professional collaboration. Satisfied teachers tended to work in places with adequate professional development and time for collaboration with peers. The 2012 survey indicated that teacher stress was also much greater than it had been in the past, with 51% reporting significant stress in their jobs—up from 36% of teachers reporting job stress in 1985. Not surprisingly, teachers who experienced more stress also reported lower job satisfaction. These data suggest greater teacher satisfaction exists when teachers are free to reflect, collaborate, and create their own professional growth. In a time when attracting and retaining excellent teachers is becoming more and more difficult, providing collaborative professional learning can go far to increase teacher satisfaction.

Collaboration is an effective learning practice. Working with others to share ideas, take a point of view, defend a position, give and accept feedback, achieve consensus, and apply knowledge to a common goal leads to improved teaching and learning. Working with others can enhance creativity, improve reflection, increase respect for others, promote team celebration, and enhance self-efficacy. Just as children are no longer expected to learn information passively, teachers cannot be expected to depend entirely on workshops and lectures to develop their practice. According to Materna (2007), “Group collaboration especially is essential in adult education, since adults want to share their experiences and interact with others both academically and professionally” (p. 42).

Collaboration is an important example to students. If educators expect students to excel in twenty-first-century skills, then teachers must model these skills. Students notice and emulate teachers' use of technology, collaborative practices with colleagues, and development of problem-finding and problem-solving skills. When teachers fail to model collaboration and the other competencies that support higher level thinking and creativity, students may assume that a right answer exists to all problems and that taking an intellectual risk is inappropriate. Teachers who work collaboratively contribute to an environment in which students can grow and learn their own relationship skills. According to Joyce and Calhoun (2010), “When teachers live in healthy schools, they create an elevating environment for their students” (p. 30).

What Skills Do Teachers Need to Collaborate?

Collaboration both *builds* interpersonal skills and *requires* certain skills. These skills do not always come naturally, and school

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leaders and professional developers may need to teach and reinforce the use of such skills explicitly with faculty members to help them collaborate more successfully with their peers. Based on my experience leading collaborative groups, requisite collaboration skills include the ability to

- read the emotional climate of a situation and improve emotional safety for others;
- apologize;
- focus on the project and not on individual personalities;
- listen;
- express and advocate for one's own point of view;
- take the other person's perspective; and
- define mutual goals.

A variety of resources is available to help individuals self-assess their abilities in these areas and then hone them to greater effectiveness. Individual or group coaching can go a long way to help leaders excel in these skills.

What Kind of Environment is Required for Effective Collaboration?

Collaboration thrives in an environment in which the school leader has developed a climate conducive to collaboration. Three essential elements are necessary for that climate: involvement in significant work, trust, and consistent processes.

Involvement in significant work. When pairs or teams work together, the goal must be worthwhile and the expectations must be high. *Busy work*, work that is not taken seriously by leaders, does not lead to effective collaboration. Rock (2008) explained that

“Being given significant work related to the goals of the organization and being provided a protected time to do this work increases the status and motivation of teachers.”

when individuals interact with others, their brains are looking for status, certainty, autonomy, relatedness, and fairness. *Status* is how one thinks others value him or her and is one of the most important needs of human brains. All individuals want to believe that the person with whom they are interacting has respect for them and their work, and humans are very adept at identifying the regard others have for an individual. Being given significant work related to the goals of the organization and being provided a protected time to do this work increases the status and motivation of teachers. In schools, the most significant work is, of course, the achievement of students. Tying organizational goals and collaborative work to student outcomes underscores the significance of any project.

Trust. Trust is the most important component of collaboration (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). High-stakes, highly competitive structures, over-direction or micromanagement, secrecy, and lack of transparency undermine trust among faculty members. Principals must work to create a climate of respect and trust. This does not happen overnight, and it starts with a positive example set by the leadership. Teachers, administrators, and coaches should identify and commit to a communication model that they will follow with fidelity as they work together. Some school personnel agree to an open communication model, where all collaborative professional information is shared among teachers, coaches, and administrators. Others decide on a model where only positive information is shared, and still

others agree that communication among teachers and coaches is open, but principals will not ask for or receive information about areas of concern except from an individual teacher about his or her own practice. Whatever the model, the key is that all the professionals in the school agree to and adhere to it consistently (Morel & Cushman, 2012).

Consistent processes. When trust has not yet been developed, a tight process for working together provides a safe emotional environment in which to take risks. Consistent team processes provide identified roles, discussion protocols, and agreed-upon norms that lead to productive dialogue. The use of consistent protocols in meetings supports the needs of the brain identified by Rock (2008). Protocols balance *status* among participants because they provide a process for everyone's voice to be heard. Effective meeting or learning protocols begin by reviewing norms or agreements for interaction, setting a time to begin and end, and making personal connections. This process shows mutual concern for everyone's needs and emphasizes the importance of the relationship. Specific protocols also provide *certainty* because everyone knows the rules, and there is a definite outcome for every interaction. Meeting protocols protect *autonomy* because each participant is *invited* and not forced or micromanaged to participate. *Relatedness* and *fairness* are further enhanced because the norms for safe interaction provide a voice for everyone.

Conclusion

I hope someday to visit Kum Fong in Singapore and witness firsthand the levels of collaboration that teachers there enjoy. I also hope, when I go, that I will be able to take many examples of how teachers in the United States have worked together to decrease isolation and increase professional collaboration for the benefit of our students.

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Collegial Administrative Support: Reflections from a Principal at an At-Risk Public High School

By Deb Graham

Ever since the National Commission on Excellence in Education released its document entitled A Nation at Risk, educational leaders have put numerous reform efforts into place aimed at improving the quality of education in the United States. Significant research points to the fact that improved teacher support is a key element of this reform. The author outlines data to emphasize the importance of teacher support, particularly in at-risk public high schools, while offering some practical reflections from a high school principal of such a setting.

Still a Nation at Risk

In 1983, the National Commission on Excellence in Education released a document entitled *A Nation at Risk*, revealing how the United States had fallen behind other countries in education and expressing the urgency for improvement of the educational system. Ensuing policies initially resulted in expanded resources to increase per-pupil spending and decrease class sizes but did not result in any significant increases in performance (Hanushek, 2008). Hanushek (2008) offered one explanation for this lack of progress: The United States had not paid enough attention to teacher quality and effectiveness. He purported that improving the quality of teachers is a key element to improving student performance.

One of the ways that schools have identified teachers as being effective or ineffective is to assess effectiveness via students' performance. According to Hanushek (2008),

If a student had a good teacher as opposed to an average teacher for 4-5 years in a row, the increased learning would be sufficient to close entirely the average gap between a typical low-income student and one who is not on free or reduced lunch. (p. 8)

Hanushek's (2008) assertion that having ineffective teachers damages students was the basis for his proposal of *deselecting* these ineffective teachers by removing them from the classroom. Typically, the process of deselection is an extreme proposal and one that is undertaken when supervisors have exhausted all efforts to support the teacher's effectiveness. Therefore, school leaders who are devoted to improving student performance would benefit from examining the type of support teachers receive for quality of instruction in the classroom.

Teacher Preparation and Administrative Support

Nations other than the United States that have realized significant increases in student achievement have allegedly done so by making a greater investment in teacher education. One such nation is Finland, a country that catapulted from one of the least successful educational countries in the 1970s to one of the top-ranking countries today. In Finland, “teachers’ preparation included both extensive coursework on how to teach—with a strong emphasis on using research based on state-of-the-art practice—and at least a full year of clinical experience in a school associated with the university” (Darling-Hammond, 2010, “Improving Teaching,” para. 3). Additionally, preparation programs provided student teachers with a model for professional practice that included time for planning; opportunities to improve their teaching through continual reflection, evaluation, and problem solving; and the provision of significant time for collaboration among colleagues (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Along with other initiatives, such extensive teacher training and professional development have been reform components that have allowed Finland to rise toward the top of the educational world, even in light of a rapidly growing number of immigrant students (Darling-Hammond, 2010).

Administrative support with a systemic emphasis on professional practice and focus on extensive teacher training and professional development is particularly relevant in schools with academically at-risk populations. The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), a primary source for providing educators with data obtained from national teacher surveys, conducted a survey in 1994-1995 specifically targeting teachers new to the profession. When reviewing the data relative to teachers who worked in urban, high-poverty schools, NCES researchers found that job dissatisfaction accounted for 40% of the teachers leaving. These early findings are supported by more recent studies that identify the main reason for teacher dissatisfaction to be poor administrative support (Spradlin & Prendergast, 2006).

When students enter high school as freshmen and are already performing well below state standards, it is paramount that the teachers at every level receive sufficient professional support to provide students with every opportunity to succeed. Nations that have experienced success toward improving student achievement have adopted a whole-system educational reform that focuses more on the capacity for building teamwork and less on individual accountability (Fullan & Knight, 2011). In fact, “countries that have gone from great to excellent focused 78 percent of their interventions on professional learning and only 22 percent on accountability” (Fullan & Knight, 2011, p. 53). Thus, educational reform is best based on emphasizing teaching and learning as a system and providing support for all elements of the system as a whole—students, teachers, and administrators—to continue to learn and improve. More specifically, the strategies for such reform include elimination of external standardized tests; a shift in resources to support the professional development of teachers skilled in differentiated instruction; de-tracking of students; and a shift from centralized to local control of schools (Darling-Hammond, 2010).

This type of a systemic approach places an emphasis on the process of change aimed at enhancing student achievement in schools where the principals must serve as the instructional leaders. Green (2009) suggested that instructional leaders “... distribute leadership responsibilities

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and facilitate the establishment of a school culture conducive to student learning” (p. 198). Furthermore, the effective instructional leader must be committed to providing the faculty with opportunities to identify instructional strategies that enhance learning and best meet the needs of all students (Green, 2009).

This teamwork approach to systemic reform points to the role of coaching as a critical component for building instructional capacity. In buildings where the principals function as the instructional leaders, coaches can be used for “planning lessons with classroom teachers, modeling lessons, observing instruction, facilitating meetings, reviewing student data, and leading the collaborative marking of student work” (Fullan & Knight, 2011, p. 51). In this regard, the coach is more than a one-on-one mentor. He or she is a system leader who can work with the principal to foster team learning based upon solid pedagogical practice (Fullan & Knight, 2011).

The Role of the Supervisor

Danielson (2010) contended that good teacher supervision is essential in assisting teachers with their own professional growth. Teachers who think that they are successful and that they make a difference in their students’ lives will be more likely to remain in a school than those who feel unsuccessful and frustrated. Danielson (2010) further contended that teachers in the latter group are victims of a deficient evaluation system—one in which meaningless checklists and subjective comments provide teachers with little information as to how they are doing and, more importantly, how they can become better. In her research, Danielson (2010) identified the true purposes for teacher evaluation systems as ensuring teacher quality and promoting professional development. These two purposes complement one another: the former is a valid, reliable system in which assertions about the teacher’s performance are defended with observable evaluative criteria, and the latter is a more collegial and collaborative approach aimed at helping the teacher to grow professionally.

Putting Research into Practice: The Importance of Collegial Conversations

In my experience as a principal at an at-risk public high school, I have found this collegial and collaborative approach to supervision to be critical to success. Additionally, the supervisory relationship is most effective when based upon mutual respect and trust. The teachers need to believe that the administrator’s true goal is to work in concert with them in order to help them become better teachers. As a principal, I value every minute I am able to spend in the classroom and the ensuing, nonevaluative, reflective dialogues I am able to have with the teachers. As I reflect on the school year that has recently concluded, a couple of specific examples come to mind.

During an informal observation of a freshman biology class, the teacher was presenting a lesson on genetic mutations. The students were going over a worksheet that explained the cause of mutations. About halfway into the lesson, a section on the worksheet asked the students to consider the sentence, “The fat cat sat.” When the teacher called upon a student to read aloud from the worksheet, he stumbled through a narrative that explained what happens when the first letter is deleted and the other letters remained in groups of three. The new sentence would then read “hef atc ats at,” which, of course, does not make sense. Another student asked to read as the worksheet narrative went on to explain the analogy between this incomprehensible sentence and the phenomenon that occurs when an insertion or deletion of DNA alters a gene, thus leading to a mutation.

As I looked around the room, the students were compliant and there was no evidence

of disruptive or inappropriate behavior; however, I asked myself the question, “Were the students engaged?” I observed a few students “perk up” when the teacher described sickle-cell anemia as an example of a genetic disorder and said, “Maybe some of you know a person who has this disease.” Now that the teacher had made the lesson a bit more relevant to some of the students, they appeared to be a bit more “tuned in.” This was not a bad lesson by any means, but I believed it could have been better. So, when I met with the teacher to talk about the lesson, our reflective dialogue centered upon what she might have done differently to increase the engagement level of the students.

Essentially, what we came up with was to abandon the worksheet initially and begin the class with the sentence about the cat. Why not allow the students to discover on their own what would happen to the sentence if they deleted the first letter and rewrote the remaining letters in groups of three? Perhaps asking the students to read the altered sentence and allowing them to deduce that the sentence is now incomprehensible would capture their attention more efficiently. Now, the teacher would be able to segue into the biology lesson with an essential question such as “What happens when a similar event occurs in the world of genetics?” Having given the students a frame of reference that they had ownership in creating, the teacher could ask them to explore how protein-coding DNA divides into codons. Ideally, this would result in a piqued interest in the lesson and the ensuing activity on genetic mutations.

In another experience, I scheduled several meetings with three freshman English teachers to discuss the activities they would be doing to support their students’ reading of *Romeo and Juliet*. My request to hold these meetings with them was motivated by walkthroughs I had done the previous school year, during which I observed several freshman English classes discussing the play. The students were responding to the teachers’ questions about the events that led up to the unfortunate, yet inevitable, fate of Romeo and Juliet—questions that did little more than summarize the plot. As was true in the biology lesson, they were compliant but not particularly engaged. Additionally, the recall level of questioning was not sufficiently challenging for the students. As such, our collegial conversations centered on ideas for projects that might make a difficult Shakespearean tragedy more relevant to students and, at the same time, increase the rigor.

As a follow up to our meetings, I visited these teachers’ classrooms once the students had started reading the play. I visited one classroom in which I observed students creating Facebook posts, complete with *emojis*, in the persona of one of the play’s characters. The students were all engaged and having fun while clearly demonstrating a deeper understanding of what the characters were experiencing in the play. At the end of the unit on *Romeo and Juliet*, all three teachers offered their students options for a final project in lieu of a multiple-choice exam. Most of the students elected to create a newspaper, complete with a cover story, obituaries, classified ads, and so on. For this project, some students chose to modernize their newspapers, while others kept theirs in line with the story’s Elizabethan era. In one student’s editorial, he spoke of revenge being all too common and frequently ending in tragedy, while another student reflected on being involved in a relationship viewed unfavorably by others. It was apparent that the majority were able to make connections clearly from a sixteenth-century piece of literature to their own lives and, unfortunately, to the violence and tragedy to which they have been exposed in their own homes and neighborhoods.

Toward the end of the class periods I visited, I walked around the room and asked several students if they enjoyed reading *Romeo and Juliet*. The overwhelming consensus was that they found the reading difficult at first, but the activities done in class helped them

better understand the work, and, as they got farther into the play, they could really relate to the struggles of the young protagonists. I applauded the efforts of the freshman English teachers to challenge their students while, at the same time, making the learning relevant. I have already developed some notes for our collegial conversations next year as to how we can challenge the students to an even greater degree.

Finding the Time to Succeed

As school communities continue to face the challenges of improving student achievement, administrators must support their teachers professionally by having these nonevaluative, collegial conversations that center upon strategies for increasing student engagement and, ultimately, raising student performance. This type of support takes time; therefore, school leaders cannot allow their daily managerial tasks to overwhelm them and preclude them from spending time in the classrooms, where the greatest impact on learning takes place.

Of equal importance is finding the time to recognize the successes of all members of the school community as a reward for their hard work. At the school in which I work, we try to celebrate our academic achievements on a quarterly basis. At a junior class assembly held at the end of the school year, we announced the unofficial data we had recently received for the April ACT college admission scores. When we stated that the estimated composite score for their class significantly exceeded all junior classes in the past 10 years, the applause from the students was both enthusiastic and genuine. They continued to applaud as their classmates received various awards, such as *most improved student*, *best effort*, and *good citizen*, and, more importantly, for their teachers, who were acknowledged for their hard work in preparing the students academically. Glancing around the auditorium, the pride on the faces of the teachers was apparent. I believe that these teachers, particularly in this moment, felt supported by the school community and knew that their efforts had a positive impact on student achievement. School administrators must make it a priority to support their teachers if they expect educators and, in turn, students, to experience the success necessary for schools and the United States as a whole not to be a nation at risk.

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Need TPACK? Embrace Sustained Professional Development

By Lisa H. Matherson, Elizabeth K. Wilson, and Vivian H. Wright

Technology is ever present in the classrooms of today, and today's students are consistently engaged in its use. However, a recognized gap exists related to what teachers are expected to know and do in a real classroom with technology. To instruct students in the best way with technology, teachers should have knowledge of the TPACK framework—Technology, Pedagogy, and Content Knowledge—and how to integrate its use in lesson planning and classroom instruction. The authors provide a description of TPACK and relate how the gap in instruction with TPACK can be alleviated by providing teachers with authentic and sustained professional development.

Nothing has promised so much and has been so frustrating [sic] wasteful for teachers and leaders as the thousands of workshops and conferences that led to no significant change in practice. Michael Fullan (as cited in Murray, 2014, p. xiii).

Introduction

The National Center for Education Statistics (2012) indicated that the ratio of students to instructional computers with Internet access in schools is 3.1-to-1. The same organization indicated that nearly 99% of students in Grades 9-12 are computer users (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2012). Students also have increasing access to mobile technologies, and schools are implementing Bring Your Own Devices (BYOD) programs to take advantage of how these devices can enhance instruction (Johnson, 2012). The number of technologies and technology tools available to students begs the necessity that they be guided in the proper uses of the technologies and that teachers develop lessons for the students that will incorporate the best of pedagogy, content, and technology.

As strongly as educational leaders advocate for students to be presented with and taught twenty-first-century skills, teachers must be provided appropriate professional development to demonstrate and model those skills for the students. The U.S. Department of Education's 2010 National Educational Technology Plan noted "widespread agreement that teachers, by and large, are not well prepared to use technology in their practices" (p. 39). The nation's students are digital natives and will be entrenched in technology their entire lives. To best provide students with academic instruction, the nation's teachers should be provided with the proper training to design instructional lessons to meet the needs of students.

Many of today's veteran teachers, i.e., those who graduated prior to 2005, do not have the technology knowledge, skills, and experiences that are necessary to teach students

properly because they did not grow up immersed in the language of technology nor were they taught with technology (Chesley & Jordan, 2012; Goldin & Katz, 2008; National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 1997; Office of Technology Assessment, 1995; Prensky, 2001; Rosenthal, 1999; Roth, 2014). In 1999, Kent and McNergney reported that only 15% of U.S. teachers received 9 hours or more of annual professional-development technology training, despite the increased emphasis on technology. In the ensuing years, according to the research, that percentage has not significantly increased, remaining below 24%, despite an increase of available technology (Sawchuk, 2010). This has led teachers to discover and design their own technology-inclusive lessons, if they use any at all.

Teachers have been characterized as gatekeepers because they decide what technologies may enter into the classroom and how they can be used (Cuban, 1986; Lei, 2009; Noble, 1996). Since Cuban (1986) first proposed this notion, the idea has held steady in research and practice. The gatekeeping mindset of many teachers can be traced back to their attitudes toward technology. If they are digital immigrants, they are unsure of the technology and the methods by which to incorporate it into their curriculum contexts. This does not benefit the students.

Technology skills alone cannot guarantee the effective integration of technology into the classroom (Carr, Jonassen, Litzinger, & Marra, 1998; Ertmer, 2003). Teaching and learning with technology exist in a relationship that is both dynamic and transactional (Bruce, 1997; Koehler, Mishra, Hershey, & Peruski, 2004). To integrate technology into the classroom meaningfully, there should be a systematic understanding of the technology, subject matter, pedagogy, and how these aspects work together (Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Zhao & Frank, 2003). For meaningful technology integration to happen, the teacher should develop a sound understanding of all the individual components—pedagogical



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knowledge (PK), content knowledge (CK), and technology knowledge (TK)—and how all three taken together constitute TPACK—Technology, Pedagogy, and Content Knowledge. TPACK is a useful framework for thinking about what knowledge teachers must have to integrate technology into teaching and how they might develop this knowledge (Schmidt et al., 2009). TPACK develops, in part, by doing, and as teachers grapple with the different components of TPACK and how to merge them successfully, they are learning, growing, and developing meaningful integrations (Bos, 2011). As these bodies of knowledge interact, in theory and in practice, they produce the type of knowledge needed to integrate technology successfully into the classroom (Mishra & Koehler, 2006).

What is the TPACK Framework?

Mishra and Koehler (2006), building off the seminal works of Shulman (1986), developed an instructional model for the twenty-first century that brought together the complex interplay between CK and PK that an educational professional learns in preservice instruction with the TK that has emerged since 2000. Shulman (1986, 1987) perceived that, for effective instruction to occur for students, teachers must include disciplinary, general pedagogical, and pedagogical content knowledge in the curriculum. Shulman described pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) as “the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction” (1987, p. 8).

At a meeting of the National Technology Leadership Institute in September 2007, the current acronym, TPACK, was adopted (Niess, 2008; Thompson & Mishra, 2007). It was widely introduced in the Winter 2007-2008 issue of the *Journal of Computing in Teacher Education* (Thompson & Mishra, 2007). The argument behind the updated acronym was that the “A” would better represent the interdependence of the three knowledge domains (TK, PK, and CK; Doering, Veletsianos, Scharber, & Miller, 2009).

The TPACK model is used as a way to represent what teachers need to know about technology and how to design authentic activities and lessons that incorporate the technological knowledge with the pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge to provide students with the utmost experience. Mishra and Koehler’s (2008) TPACK model, as shown in Figure 1, captures and expresses two key aspects of technology integration. Thompson and Mishra (2007) stated the model was a visual to “emphasize, through the letters, the three kinds of knowledge (Technology, Pedagogy, and Content) and the notion that they form an integrated whole, a ‘Total PACKage’ as it were, for helping teachers take advantage of technology to improve student learning” (p. 38) in the context of a specific teaching-learning situation.

TPACK is the basis of effective teaching with technology and requires understanding the representation of technological concepts and the pedagogical techniques to use the technologies constructively in teaching the content. Mishra and Koehler (2006) argued that developing good content requires “thoughtful interweaving of all three key sources of knowledge: technology, content, and pedagogy” (p. 1039). Developing a nuanced understanding of the complex

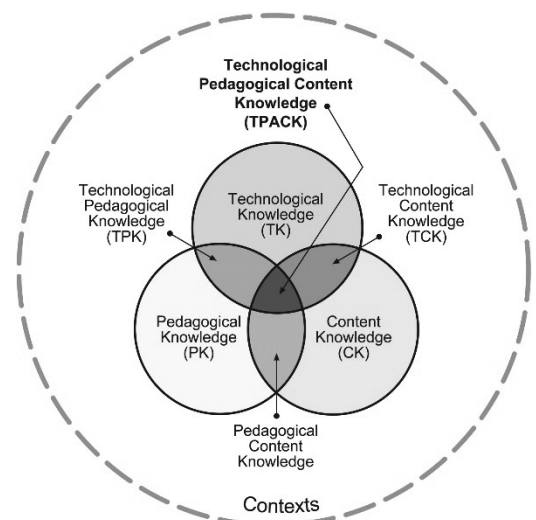


Figure 1. The Mishra and Koehler Model (Koehler & Mishra, 2008, p. 12). Retrieved from www.tpack.org. Reproduced by permission of the publisher, © 2012 by tpack.org

relationships between technology, content, and pedagogy and using that understanding leads to developing appropriate context-specific strategies and representations (Mishra & Koehler, 2006). The problem lies in that many educators have not developed this nuanced understanding; there is a palpable gap between emphasis of TPACK in the classroom and its actual implementation.

One contributor to the gap lies in what teachers are taught in their university courses and what they are expected to know and do in a real classroom with technology. In this respect, researchers, teacher-education program providers, and primary- and secondary-education leaders have made recent demands to help teachers bridge the gap between what they know and what they do not know in regards to integrating TPACK instruction into their classrooms (Ansyari, 2013; Di Blas, Fiore, Mainetti, Vergallo, & Paolini, 2014; Wetzell, Buss, Foulger, & Lindsey, 2014). A good twenty-first-century educator is one who is cognizant of the rapidly changing technology trends and is able to apply those trends to the educational setting in a manner that will ensure students are not left behind in the wake of progress and have the necessary skills to compete in the global world (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2009). To provide students with these skills, teachers must first possess the very same twenty-first-century skills that they expect their students to exhibit, and this is where the need for sustained professional development becomes imperative.

The Need for Sustained Professional Development

For teachers to overcome shortcomings pertaining to technology use in the classroom, they must be presented with ample professional development opportunities that are

embedded in school and classroom practices, sustained over a period of time, and include opportunities for reflection. Professional development is a common and necessary approach to improving teacher quality. To effect change in classroom instruction, the methods by which professional development is delivered should be changed. Professional development must go beyond the teachers' simply learning new material and skills to having them learn how to integrate those materials and skills into the classroom over the long term for the greatest impact on student learning (National Staff Development Council, 2001).

The National Research Council (2000) supported the notion that "learning is both an active and social process and, in order to learn, one must make the decision to engage deliberately with an idea" (Gess-Newsome, Blocher, Clark,

Menasco, & Willis, 2003, p. 326). However, engagement is only the first step in considering whether professional development is meaningful in terms of what a teacher needs to know for the classroom. Educational researchers have endeavored to identify and understand the varied characteristics that make professional development meaningful. We identified ten successful professional development recommendations in the literature. Professional development should

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It is important
that teachers
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1. utilize well-defined language of effective classroom learning and teaching to drive the professional development experience (Loucks-Horsley, Hewson, Love, & Stiles, 2001);
2. provide teachers with opportunities to build their knowledge and skills (Loucks-Horsley et al., 2001);
3. afford opportunities for teachers to engage in leadership roles (Loucks-Horsley et al., 2001);
4. create a learning community among participants (Loucks-Horsley, et al., 2001);
5. model the strategies teachers would use with their students (Loucks-Horsley et al., 2001);
6. require teachers to assess themselves continuously and to make improvements that impact teacher effectiveness, student learning, leadership, and the school community (Loucks-Horsley et al., 2001)
7. be focused on methods of strategic teaching that link to standards of learning (Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Yoon, 2001);
8. involve the collective participation of groups of teachers from the same school (Garet et al., 2001);
9. be meaningfully integrated into the daily life of the school (Garet et al., 2001), and;
10. be sustained and intensive rather than short-term (Garet et al., 2001).

The implication for educators relative to professional-development opportunities is that the opportunities become a process and not microcosm events presented in the “sit and get” format and irrelevant to the realities of the classroom. Additionally, teachers must adopt the notion that, to best take advantage of technology and improve student learning, they must understand and integrate a whole “Total PACKage” (Thompson & Mishra, 2007, p. 38).

It is important that teachers integrate technology into their classroom curriculum for the educational benefits technology may bring to learning, instead of just integrating it for the sake of using technology. In meeting this contingency, teachers should be presented with and educated upon the TPACK model of instruction because it provides a framework—a guide—that allows teachers to take into consideration pedagogy, content, and technology when making epistemological decisions for the curriculum.

An Example of a TPACK Lesson

The TPACK approach goes beyond simple attention to pedagogy, content, and technology and considers the three as they converge rather than considering each knowledge base in isolation. The TPACK model helps to integrate technology effectively to support and achieve curricular goals; it is a model that allows for the integration of technology for the purpose of enhancing the curriculum rather than just using technology as an add-on to the lesson. When the TPACK model is used, students are actively engaged in the lesson, are working and collaborating with their peers, and receive constructive and meaningful feedback.

In making decisions in developing a TPACK framework lesson, the teacher should select

- the learning goals to be achieved by the students based on the content standards;
- appropriate pedagogical approaches relative to the learning experience and assessment methods;
- the activities to be engaged in by the students and scaffold them for enhanced student learning; and
- tools and resources that will help guide the students to achieving the learning goals.

In the final choice area, the teacher must remember, however, that there may be other tools and resources beyond the scope of the examples provided by the teacher that will allow the students to achieve the learning goals.

The example of a TPACK framework lesson shown in Figure 2 illustrates how planning revolves around the key areas. The example is based on Alabama standards for Contemporary World Issues and Civic Engagement (9-12), but the framework can be adopted for any discipline and lesson.

Standard 3 – Compare civic responsibility, individual rights, opportunities, and privileges of citizens of the United States to those of other nations.			
Lesson Goal: Students will create a visual presentation or brochure detailing the civic responsibilities and individual rights of citizens of the United States and a country of their choice.			
Content +	Pedagogy/Activities +	Technology Tools =	TPACK
Students will gain knowledge of the civic responsibilities and individual rights of citizens of the United States and other countries.	Students will create a visual presentation or brochure explaining the civic responsibilities and individual rights of citizens of the United States and compare those to citizens of another country.	Google Docs MS Word MS PowerPoint MS Publisher Prezi Thinglink Voicethread *Student will select the web tool or app best suited for the content h/she will present.	

Figure 2. Sample TPACK framework lesson.

Conclusion

If teachers are going to develop or redress conceptual challenges, then they should be provided with the professional development, tools, and resources to do so. This is where administrators, local school leaders, professional-development leaders, and system leaders must provide the mechanisms of professional development that will allow the teachers to address the issues of integrating technology into the curriculum and be provided the long-term support to ensure that technology is integrated appropriately. Administrators should encourage teachers to seek professional-development opportunities and make sure that they have the opportunities for job-embedded and sustained professional development to help them integrate technology into their curriculum in ways that will meet the TPACK model of instruction.

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Beyond Bubble Sheets and Number Two Pencils: Assessment in the Digital Age

By Dianne Ford Lawton

The author provides a brief overview of the history of assessment from antiquity to the present day and explores the possibilities of creating tests that facilitate student achievement by presenting complex, multistep problems for students to solve. The judicious use of new technologies in assessment can strengthen the quality of instruction. Students have responded positively to tests designed in a game format that require them to apply creative problem-solving skills. Testing in the twenty-first century must move beyond evaluating students on the basis of a right or wrong answer.

When my granddaughter, Emma Joy, entered the world recently, she took her first standardized test during the first 5 minutes of her life. The test she took, the APGAR, determined whether or not she was ready to meet the world without additional medical assistance. Fortunately, Emma Joy passed with flying colors. This test, which measures activity, pulse, grimace, appearance, and respiration, was developed in 1952 by Dr. Virginia Apgar, an anesthesiologist (U.S. National Library of Medicine, n.d.). Even though Emma Joy did very well on her first standardized test, she still has a mountain of standardized tests to conquer before she completes her education.

A Brief Overview of Assessment History

Testing is very much a part of educational history. Assessment has its roots in antiquity. Viewed through the lens of a modern educator, Confucius was about 25 centuries ahead of his time in his teaching techniques. Rejecting the lecture method, he led group discussions among his students and placed the responsibility for learning on the students themselves. His practice of assessment could be called performance-based because he believed that reciting facts was useless if one could not perform his or her job (Cummins, 1983).

Around the seventh century AD, the emphasis in education shifted from adults to children. Schools in Europe, known as cathedral and monastic schools, were organized to prepare young boys for the priesthood. The primary purpose of these schools was to indoctrinate students in the beliefs, faith, and rituals of the church. Consequently, teaching strategies known as *pedagogy* evolved. The term refers to the art and science of teaching children (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 1998). Pedagogical activities serve the interests of children (Smith, 1998). Whereas strategies for teaching adults had focused on stimulating mental inquiry (Cummins, 1983), pedagogical strategies developed for teaching children included the authoritative teaching of prescribed subjects and uniform examinations (Lindeman, 1926).

Modern-day standardized tests have their origins in the work of Alfred Binet, a nineteenth-century French psychologist who sought to understand “the nature of intelligence as a single well-defined construct” (Merriam, Caffarella, & Baumgartner, 2007, p. 363). Influenced by Binet’s work, Lewis Terman developed the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test in the early 1900s (Gallagher, 1985). In the ensuing years, tests became standardized. Popham (2011) defined a standardized test as “a test designed to yield either norm-referenced or criterion-referenced inferences, that is administered, scored, and interpreted in a standard, predetermined manner” (p. 308). By 1938, testing had become so prevalent that Oscar Buros of the University of Nebraska founded the Buros Institute of Mental Measurements to provide factual information regarding published tests. He created the *Mental Measurements Yearbook* (Buros, 1938) because he believed that “test users have every right to demand that test authors and publishers present full particulars concerning the methods used in constructing and validating the tests which they place on the market” (Buros Center for Testing, 2014). The yearbook is currently in its 19th edition.

Testing has evolved from the early contributions of Terman to the highly lucrative commercial testing corporations of the twenty-first century. Popham (2011) noted that almost all nationally standardized tests are developed by for-profit, commercial testing firms. Kohn (2000) pointed out that by 1999 these commercial testing firms had gained nearly a quarter of a billion dollars in earnings through the manufacture and scoring of standardized tests. In 2012, the nationwide spending on assessments for Grades 3-9 was estimated at \$1.7 billion per year (Chingos, 2012).

Tipps, Johnson, and Kennedy (2011) stated that although standardized testing has been part of schools for many years, the passing of the *No Child Left Behind Act of 2002* placed more emphasis on standardized test scores than had previously been the case. Traditionally, students used bubble sheets and number two pencils to take standardized tests (Schaffhauser, 2011). Schaffhauser (2011) noted that in the months prior to the administration of such testing in the schools, testing companies pack truckloads of pallets stacked with boxes of “pre-labeled test booklets and bubble answer sheets” (p. 2) and deliver them to schools throughout the country, where teachers and administrators have to count and account for every single test booklet and bubble sheet shipped. Then, after the students spend several sessions stressing over the questions and diligently filling in those little bubbles with number two pencils, the operation is reversed. The teachers and administrators again count every test booklet and bubble answer sheet, pack them in boxes, and ship them back to the testing companies for scoring. The teachers, administrators, parents, and students then begin waiting for the results.

From Pencils to Computers

The Common Core State Standards (CCSS) Initiative was introduced in 2009. To date, 44 states, the District of Columbia, four territories, and the Department of Defense Education Activity (DoDEA) have adopted the CCSS (National Governors



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Association and Council of Chief School Officers, 2014). With this initiative comes the requirement that the method of assessment must match technological skills needed by students in the twenty-first century; therefore, states that have adopted the CCSS have committed to using computers to administer the standardized tests by the 2014-2015 school year (Schaffhauser, 2011). The trickle-down effect of this initiative is that, in order for the students to utilize computers for their standardized tests, school facilities must be technology-ready for these tests, teachers and administrators must have the necessary professional development to facilitate this testing, and students must be prepared to use the technology in the testing process (Behrens, Mislavy, DiCerbo, & Levy, 2010).

The State of Virginia has employed online testing for students in Grades 3 through 12 for a decade (Schaffhauser, 2011). The mastery of many hurdles in online testing by leaders in Virginia can serve as a model for the rest of the nation. As states segue into online testing, the new format requires teachers and administrators to acknowledge that the tests will look different from the traditional paper-and-pencil tests of the past (Behrens et al., 2010). As technology advances, the interaction and adaptation made possible through digital environments will directly influence how tests are designed (Mislavy, Behrens, DiCerbo, Frezzo, & West, 2012). Because assessment design is compatible with game design (Mislavy et al., 2012), the tests will have the look and feel of playing a computer game. Behrens et al. (2010) pointed out that “simulation-based games themselves contain many parallels to assessment” (p. 34). For example, both assessments and simulation-based games have rules “that define what information is available and the constraints around the solution paths” (p. 34). Moreover, students perform the “very skills we would like to assess” (p. 35) as they play the games that require creative problem-solving skills. Because the games are quantifiable, the end result is that game-playing provides information about students’ abilities. Tucker (2009) posited that technology-enabled assessments are valuable for educators because “these assessments present complex, multistep problems for students to solve, and they collect detailed information about an individual student’s approach to problem solving” (p. 49); thus, educators can evaluate students on more than just one right or wrong answer.

Baines and Slutsky (2009) noted that the success of the traditional way of teaching, which includes “working from a textbook, designing quizzes, and assigning seatwork” (p. 97), depends on the student being motivated and self-disciplined. Traditional approaches, however, do not work with apathetic students who do not fear earning a failing grade. Digital technologies, on the other hand, offer unique opportunities for teaching and assessment (Gibson, 2013), because digital technologies include everything from smartphones to cloud computing. Gibson (2013) defined digital or mobile technologies as anything “that can be created with and by digital information . . . and thus let us interact with literally everything digital that can be communicated wirelessly to any kind of handheld device” (par. 3). He referred to a study by Kristis and Glauber (2012, as cited in Gibson, 2013) that found at least half of all middle school students used smartphones on a daily basis and that one-third used some sort of mobile device to do their homework. Ironically, only about 6% of all students were allowed to use mobile devices in the classroom (Kristis & Glauber, 2012, as cited in Gibson, 2013).

Today’s students thus know how to use technology to learn because technology has always been a part of their world (Nasah, DaCosta, Kinsell, & Seok, 2010). These students, born in the late twentieth and early twenty-first century, have different educational needs and requirements from preceding generations. Previously, learning in school was “heavily geared toward the acquisition of content within a teacher-centered model” (Shute & Ke,

2012, p. 43). Ifenthaler, Eseryel, and Ge (2012) argued that learning in the twenty-first century must challenge students to become innovative, creative, and adaptable. Because students of the twenty-first century “have spent their entire lives immersed in a digital culture” (Nasah et al., 2010, p. 532), the ways they demonstrate their learning will look different from the traditional tests that utilize bubble sheets and number two pencils. In one study, eighth-grade students solved problems relating to buoyancy, mass, and volume using a simulated helium balloon. Their technology-enabled assessment allowed them to see “both visual and graphical representations showing what happens to the balloon during each experiment” (Tucker, 2009, p. 51). As a result, students were able to approach the problem in different ways and test more than one solution. Just as those 75 million baby boomers born in this country between 1946 and 1964 (Galusha, 1998) demanded the expansion of the public elementary schools in the 1950s to accommodate their sheer numbers (Poulos & Nightingale, 1997), these twenty-first-century “native speakers of the digital age” (Nasah et al., 2010, p. 532) will challenge educators to construct educational assessments that integrate twenty-first-century problem-solving skills with twenty-first-century technology (Mislevy et al., 2012).

Implications for Teachers

The key to bringing educational assessment into the digital age is the readiness of the classroom teacher to adapt instruction to address the CCSS and thus online assessment (Fletcher, 2012). Fletcher noted the importance of teachers’ ability to evaluate higher-order thinking skills as opposed to the traditional evaluation of grasping facts. Although the latter can be accomplished through short-answer and multiple-choice tests, higher-order thinking skills are most often demonstrated in writing assignments that require the development of clear assessment rubrics and the use of critical analysis in assessment (Fletcher, 2012). Because students will be tested on CCSS using technology, Fletcher (2012) stressed that teachers need to incorporate technology into their instruction in order for

“The key to bringing educational assessment into the digital age is the readiness of the classroom teacher to adapt instruction...”

students to be comfortable with its use before engaging in online testing. Gibson (2013) emphasized the role of “skilled teachers who use, learn, and teach with mobile technologies” (par. 3) in the future of education. Practice in the use of technology is especially important for students from homes where computers, iPhones, and iPads may not be readily available (Schaffhauser, 2013).

Students respond positively to the game format of standardized tests. According to Baines and Slutsky (2009), students do not have to be coerced into learning when there is play involved because they are intrinsically motivated. Furthermore, they are eager to participate in the same activity in the future. Schaffhauser (2011) reported that Linda Rogers, associate secretary for the teaching and learning branch in Delaware’s Department of Education, recently viewed some video interviews of students. Rogers stated that she was “mesmerized” as she watched the interviews with students who had had 8 months of experience with the online testing format. The students enthusiastically stated that they liked computer testing because it felt like an activity rather than an event. Furthermore, their results came back the same day, which was important to them.

Through game play, students demonstrate the skills and knowledge that they have acquired as they follow rules and navigate problems presented in the game. Their performance of these skills, such as the choices they make during their game play, provides information about students' creative problem-solving abilities (Behrens et al., 2010). Tucker (2009) posited that technology-enabled assessments will greatly strengthen the quality of instruction because new technologies enable educators to encourage innovation while at the same time maintaining accountability goals. Tucker (2009) emphasized that judicious use of new technologies in assessment can facilitate student achievement. As an example, he pointed to simulated exercises that can assess students' ability to apply critical thinking to complex situations (Tucker, 2009). As students solve these multistep problems, the technology will not only collect the students' answers, but it will also record each individual student's approach to problem solving, thus enabling educators to see how learners arrive at the answer. No longer will teachers be limited to knowing only if a student answers a test question correctly or incorrectly. Rather, teachers will have the opportunity to tailor their instruction in such a fashion to move each student forward (Behrens et al., 2010).

Emma Joy may never have the chance to fill in a bubble sheet with a number two pencil when she starts school in a few years. Her education will, no doubt, be facilitated by technology in ways not yet totally imagined. Someday, I will tell her about the bubble sheets and the number two pencils. They will probably sound as alien to her as my own grandfather's stories about a one-room schoolhouse and a Blue Back Speller (Webster, 1809).

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- ♦ Use *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, current edition, for manuscript preparation. Visit the APA Style website at www.apastyle.org.
- ♦ Double space the entire manuscript, including quotations, references, and tables. Print should be clear, dark, and legible. Pages must be numbered.
- ♦ References should refer only to materials cited within the text. Nonretrievable material, such as papers, reports of limited circulation, unpublished works, and personal communications, should be restricted to works absolutely essential to the manuscript.
- ♦ Abbreviations should be explained at their first appearance in the text. Educational jargon (e.g., preservice, K–10, etc.) should be defined as it occurs in the text.
- ♦ Place tables and figures on separate pages at the end of the manuscript. Use Arabic numerals and indicate approximate placement in the text.
- ♦ Photos, graphics, charts, etc. that may enhance the presentation of the manuscript may be included. Contact the editorial staff (bulletin@dkg.org) for information regarding the use of photos.

Submission

- ♦ One submission per author per issue.
- ♦ Submit electronically, in Microsoft Word format, to bulletin@dkg.org. Do not submit PDF files. For a manuscript, include definitive abstract, photo of author(s) [see below], and biographical information. Biographical information must include author(s) name(s), occupational position(s), Society and professional affiliations (list offices held), address(es), phone number(s) and e-mail address(es).
- ♦ Electronic/digital photo files must be saved in JPG or TIFF format and must be a minimum of 1.5" x 1.5" with a 300 dpi resolution. For photos submitted to enhance text, include caption/identification information.
- ♦ For poems and graphic arts, submit name, address, and chapter affiliation. A photograph is not required.
- ♦ All submissions will be acknowledged and assigned a review number within 2 weeks. Contact the editor at bulletin@dkg.org if you do not receive timely acknowledgement of your submission.

Publication of Submissions

- ♦ Published authors will receive five complimentary copies of the *Bulletin* in which their article appears.
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- ♦ The editorial staff reserves the right to make changes of a nonsubstantive nature.

For evaluation rubric, please go to the *Bulletin* page in the Library at www.dkg.org.

Bulletin Submission Grid

Submission Type and Description	Word Length	Abstract or Introduction	Documentation
Action/Classroom Research: Organized, systematic, and reflective observation of classroom practice that also addresses areas of concern.	1,500-4,000	Abstract	Required
Qualitative/ Quantitative/Mixed Methods Research: Essentially narrative with nonstatistical approaches and a focus on how individuals and groups view and understand the world and construct meanings from their experiences (Qual)/ Gathers and analyzes measurable data to support or refute a hypothesis or theory through numbers and statistics (Quan)/ Utilizes both qualitative and quantitative data to explore a research question (Mixed).	1,500-4,000	Abstract	Required
Position Paper/Viewpoint: Defines an issue; asserts clear and unequivocal position on that issue, and argues directly in its favor.	1,000-1,500	Abstract	Required
Review of Literature: Presents supporting and nonsupporting evidence on a topic of interest and value to educators; synthesizes and critiques the literature; draws conclusions; describes procedures for selecting and reviewing literature; may include narrative review, best-evidence, synthesis, or meta-analysis.	1,500-3,000	Abstract	Required
Program Description: Provides an overview and details of a single program in an educational setting. Goals, resources, and outcomes are included. No marketing or promotion of a program is allowed.	1,000-1,500	Abstract	Encouraged
Book/Technology Review: Combines summary and personal critique of a book, Web site, or app on an educational topic or with educational relevance.	400-700	Introduction	Required
Letter to the Editor: Responds to materials previously published in the <i>Bulletin</i> ; must include author's name and chapter/state of membership.	200-300	NA	Not required
Poetry/Graphic Arts: Original expressions in any brief poetic format or through drawings, sketches, etchings, woodcuts, photographs, cartoons.	NA	NA	Not required

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