AILACTE Journal Call for Manuscripts

The *AILACTE Journal* is a refereed journal with national representation on its editorial review board published by the Association of Independent Liberal Arts Colleges for Teacher Education. Each issue is nonthematic. The journal, published annually, is soliciting manuscripts addressing issues related to teacher education within the liberal arts context; including teaching and learning, preservice and in-service education, research and practice related to the preparation and development of teachers, and other related topics. Project descriptions, research reports, theoretical papers, papers espousing a particular point of view and descriptions of activities or issues pertinent to the education and professional development of teachers at the local, state or national level would be appropriate topics for the journal.

Criteria for submitting a manuscript:
Manuscripts must be postmarked by July 1, 2013, preceding the December 2013 publication.

Authors are asked to submit four copies of the manuscript. Manuscripts must:
- comply with *The Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, Sixth Edition (2010) for format and style;
- not exceed 15 pages, double-spaced;
- contain the complete title and abstract (150-word maximum) on the first page of text;
- contain running head and page number on subsequent pages;
- contain author's(s') name and affiliation on the title page only with autobiographical sketches of the author(s) (three to five sentences each) on one separate page; and,
- contain a 3 x 5 index card with complete name, postal address, email address, telephone and fax numbers of the contact person along with the title of the manuscript.

An electronic file copy of the manuscript in MS Word or compatible software will be needed after acceptance for publication. Submit manuscripts to:
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In light of our blind review process, please address any correspondence directly related to a particular manuscript to Frankie Kozicky at fkozicky@transy.edu.

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From the Editor

Welcome to the ninth volume of the *AILACTE Journal*. It has been an exciting venture for me in my inaugural year as editor. I am truly grateful to the 2012 *AILACTE Journal* Editorial Review Board who put in many hours reviewing manuscripts and providing critical commentary to authors. I would also like to thank Jacqueline McDowell, former editor, and my editorial team at Transylvania. Above all, I want to thank the many authors who submitted their work for review. Each piece demonstrated true significance, and I was reminded of the powerful work we do in teacher preparation within the liberal arts context.

Our commitment to the power of liberal arts education in the preparation of teachers is manifested within the articles here. This eclectic assortment provides both theoretical and application-oriented insights into the world of teacher preparation within liberal arts contexts. Chang Pu's piece, for example, uses the theoretical framework of narrative inquiry to uncover preservice teachers' understanding of English language learners. Suzanne Kaback's piece on anticipation guides provides sound advice for those of us trying to get our students engaged with their reading. The knotty problem of dispositions is tackled in the article by Kevin Thomas, Sarah Bush, and Anne Bucalos, whose insights on disposition assessment can inform all of us who wrestle with pinning down teacher competencies. Paul Egeland's and Jon Eckert's article on mentoring provides true insights into the power of mentoring in the liberal arts context. Brian Yontz's piece on the integration of teacher preparation and urban studies underscores the power of collaboration across disciplines within the liberal arts in the quest to prepare outstanding teachers for urban schools. Finally Maureen Lorimer reviews the relevant literature to create a very convincing argument for the value of arts-integrated learning within preservice teacher preparation.

Each piece represents a true gem of thinking about teacher preparation in the liberal arts. We are fortunate, indeed, to have such powerful voices and perhaps now more than ever before we need our voices to speak out and attest to the power of teacher preparation in the liberal arts.

Amelia El-Hindi Trail

Narrative Inquiry:
Preservice Teachers' Understanding of
Teaching English Learners

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Abstract

Informed by the narrative inquiry approach (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990), this qualitative study examined preservice teachers' narratives to investigate what they think, know, and believe in teaching English learners. Beyond just telling stories, narrative structures and meanings were examined with the goal of gaining insight of the preservice teachers' formulation of critical elements in teaching English learners. Five themes emerged from analysis of the narratives including: home language assumptions; schooling environment; English language proficiency; ESL accommodations; and critical awareness. Additionally, the analysis recognized that the preservice teachers' narratives positioned their identity, and reproduced a dominant middle-class view of learning. It further affirms that knowledge of teaching strategies, although important, is insufficient to help preservice teachers develop the sensitivities and dispositions to work with ESL students. This article also specifies areas for further investigation of preparing teachers of English learners and the use of narrative inquiry in teacher education programs.

Keywords: **preservice teachers, narrative inquiry, ESL**

Introduction

According to the U.S. Department of Education's survey of limited English language proficient students (2010), the Georgia population of English learners (ELs) in PK-12 schools has increased 406% between 1997-1998 and 2007-2008. As the demographic data of American education exhibit the trend that the student body becomes more diverse, teachers still maintain their homogeneity (Hadjioannou & Fu, 2007). Many colleges and universities in Georgia recommend or require preservice teachers to take ESOL (English for speakers of other languages) endorsement courses to receive the state ESOL endorsement. However, it is unclear what knowledge teacher candidates have developed regarding teaching ELs after taking these courses.

Narrative analysis provides a way to unravel the importance of stories and chains of causation in professional settings (Young, 2009). Clandinin and Connelly (1990) were among the first who proposed to use narrative as a research method in the field of education. Narratives are "retrospectively interpretative;" therefore, focusing on the meaning of experience, the use of narrative becomes "a predominant means of getting at what teachers know, what they do with what they know, and the sociocultural contexts within which they teach and learn to teach" (Golombek & Johnson, 2004, p. 308).

Using three sets of teachers' narratives, Clandinin and Connelly (1996) revealed that what teachers knew about effective teaching was defined more by values and norms established by the principal and others committed to the reform. Investigating teacher narratives, Lyons and LaBoskey (2002) also showed how teachers forged new understandings of their students, changed practices, and recast theories of teaching and learning. In Feuerverger's (2005) study, the author and her graduate students explored their life histories of living within and between various cultural worlds and reflected on the search for their personal and collective identities, as well as how such identities informed their teaching and drove their professional actions and choices in educational careers.

Existing studies referenced above demonstrate that narrative inquiry documents "an intentional reflective process and the actions of a group of learners interrogating their learning to construct knowledge that might be used in the future" (Lyons & LaBoskey, 2002, pp. 2-3). Recent research studies on teacher narratives (e.g., Gibson, 2010) further argued that narratives should not be seen as merely individual production, but as being shaped by social, cultural and historical conventions.

Nieto (2008) argued that teaching ELs successfully means to reflect on and challenge teachers' own perceptions and attitudes towards ELs, and attend to the students, their languages and cultures, and their communities. Otherwise, as de Jong and Harper (2007) echoed, "their classroom practices will not significantly change" (p. 142) and they will fail to meet ELs' unique cultural and linguistic needs. Previous studies (e.g., Farrell, 2011) utilized the narrative inquiry approach to investigate ESL (English as a second language) language teachers' identity construction and roles in American K-12 schools, which becomes an emerging subject of interest in research. Yet relatively little attention has been paid to study preservice teachers' disposition development towards teaching ELs, although dispositions have been described as predictive patterns of action (Borko, Liston, & Whitcomb, 2007).

Informed by the narrative inquiry approach (Clandinin & Connelly, 1994; Connelly & Clandinin, 1990, 2000), this study examined preservice teachers' narratives of individual English learners they worked with to investigate what they think, know, and believe in teaching English learners. Also, this study explores what events preservice teachers selected to tell in their narratives, how they reflected on their experience, and how their identity and views were (re)constructed in light of narratives. Additionally, it is critical to understand what preservice teachers have learned through the experience and what gap still exists between what teacher educators want them to achieve and what knowledge they have obtained through the experience. Hence, the following questions shaped the design of this study.

(1) What are themes of teaching ELs that emerged from preser-

vice teachers' narratives?

   (2) How do narratives inform our understanding of preservice teachers?

   (3) What are the implications for preparing teachers of ELs?

Method

The Course

   All early childhood education, middle grades, and secondary education preservice teachers in our liberal arts college are required to take a course titled "TESOL: Methods and Materials" accompanied with a 20-hour ESL field experience placement. Throughout the semester, preservice teachers were involved in various classroom discussions and English as a Second Language teaching activities. The field placement aims to provide preservice teachers with authentic opportunities of working with ELs to develop a more comprehensive understanding of teaching them. Every preservice teacher was assigned to work with an EL in a local school for 20 hours during an academic semester; they were placed in different grade levels and different schools.

   The narrative project was the main project of the course; preservice teachers wrote about their EL and reflected on their ESL field experience in a narrative style after they completed their field experience hours. To compose their narrative, preservice teachers collected information about the EL in the following areas: the student's cultural, language, educational, and family background; observations conducted in the student's school and classrooms; and the student's language proficiency level obtained through informal language assessments (i.e. student oral language observation matrix, running records, think-alouds, and writing analysis). However, it was decided by the preservice teachers what they wanted to include in their narrative. No predesigned questions or topics were given to them to complete the narrative task. Also, there was no limit on the number of pages to write the narrative.

Data Collection and Analysis

   In the Fall 2010 semester, 21 education-major undergraduate

students (i.e. one Caucasian male student, 17 Caucasian female students, one biracial female student, and one second-generation female Jamaican immigrant student) enrolled in the course. They all identified themselves as middle-class and had some foreign/second language learning experience (ranging from one to five years); they all claimed English as their first language. This candidate body represents preservice teachers who enrolled in three sections of the course every year because of their similar backgrounds (ethnicity, social class, age, and gender). Preservice teachers' narratives, with their consent, were collected after the final grades of the course had been submitted. Both the narratives and data they collected in the field were collected to ensure the authenticity of the narratives. The names of all of the participants and schools discussed in this paper were replaced with pseudonyms in order to maintain confidentiality.

Clandinin and Connelly (1994) suggest viewing narrative inquiry in a three-dimensional space: personal and social (interaction); past, present, and future (continuity); and place (situation); which provided "a context within which to view and to locate the field texts within the experiences of the participants" (Mitton-Kukner, Nelson, & Desrochers, 2010, p.1163). They further called four directions of a narrative inquiry to address personal, social, and temporal issues systematically: inward (i.e. the internal condition such as feelings); outward (i.e. existential conditions, the environment); backward and forward (i.e. past, present, and future). Connelly & Clandinin (2000) proposed,

> To do narrative inquiry, one asks questions, collects field notes, derives interpretations, and writes a research text that addresses both personal and social issues by looking inward and outward, and addresses temporal issues by looking not only to the event but to its past and to its future (p.50).

In this study, the researcher adopted "wardnesses" as the guidance to reread and organize the narratives: inward (i.e. preservice teachers' feelings, disposition, and reactions), outward (i.e. exis-

tential conditions), and backward and forward (i.e. their experiences in the past, present, and future). The researcher then compared the narrative elements of individuals and coded recurrent themes to analyze how preservice teachers called on past events to inform their dispositions and future practices towards teaching ELs. The researcher focused on themes that were mostly cited and also were central to the research questions being explored (i.e. themes were cited by a minimum of 13 out of 21 students, which counts 60 percent coverage), which is set forth as the criteria to govern the study to address the concern of the data representation (Connelly and Clandinin, 1999). The analysis also noted the relationships that hold between and among the identified themes. As a narrative researcher and teacher educator, the researcher was aware that "the constructed narrative and subsequent analysis illuminates the researcher as well as the participant" (Bell, 2002, p. 210). Hence, the researcher maintained contacts with the participants, and used member checks to confirm the themes the researcher observed in their narratives. During analysis, the researcher also constantly compared their narratives with data they collected during the ESL field experiences to ensure authenticity, plausibility, and consistency of the data.

Findings

   In this section data was presented by using the salient themes. The researcher included the compelling narrative excerpts because they contain full descriptions of the selected events and these typical samples represent preservice teachers' dispositions and understandings of teaching ELs (inward, outward, backward), as well as their actions in their future classrooms (forward).

Home Language Assumptions: Home Domain

   All except one preservice teacher participants held negative feelings toward the use of native language at home, although they acknowledged that the primary language could be used in school to increase comprehension. They believed speaking first language (L1) at home "hinders" and "discontinues" the student's English

language development. ELs' non-English speaking parents also became an "obstacle" for their children's English language development. Preservice teacher Tyler wrote:

> At home he [GM, an EL] speaks one language, while at school he speaks another. His English life is not taken home with him every afternoon. Instead, it is left at school where he learns it. This presents an obstacle in his life that he cannot help…not speaking English at home hinders his English language development. Additionally, he cannot go to his parents for homework help, because this too is in English. Because his parent[s] do not speak English themselves, GM is still in the ESOL program at X Middle School.

Clearly, Tyler held several assumptions. First, as Tyler understood, GM could not develop English language outside his school because he spoke his first language. His school, as the immediate learning environment as well as the dominant discourses for teaching and learning, became the only place where GM was learning English. It indicates Tyler's unfamiliarity with ELs' formal and informal literacy practices outside school. Second, Tyler thought that parents' English language proficiency correlated with and directly affected their children's English language proficiency. Hence, GM was linguistically and culturally deprived; he was still in the ESOL program because of his parents' low English proficiency. Third, Tyler believed that parents had to be competent in English to help with their children's homework; if incompetent in English, parents do not have anything to offer. Such assumptions implied that preservice teachers still held false understandings of the critical roles that the primary language plays within immigrant families. Furthermore, none of the preservice teachers discussed in their narrative how they can help ELs continue English literacy practices and development at home. Hence, preservice teachers were not able to move from their inward emotions in the past and present to future actions.

School Environment

Preservice teachers understood that the immediate environment, the schooling context, was an important factor that can shape ELs' learning. Emily wrote:

> The learning environment at X Elementary is conducive for learning; however, other than a large global map, there is nothing multicultural in the lobbies, hallways, or Anna's classroom. This is interesting because, according to Principal XX, X's student population is comprised of approximately fifty-five percent Hispanic students. This makes it unfortunate that the majority of ELs at X do not have their home cultures represented at school. If I were Anna I would probably feel welcome to X, but not very appreciated. I make this harsh statement because X does not allow their teachers to speak to the students in their primary language.

Emily felt unfortunate (inward) because the environment of X elementary was culturally invisible although the school had a large diverse student body (backward). Emily linked her feeling to the external conditions (outward); she noticed that no cultural artifacts related to her EL's native culture were displayed in school and no language other than English could be spoken in the school setting. Interestingly, Emily also commented, "The learning environment at X Elementary is conducive for learning," although she noticed the cultural invisibility on campus. This indicates that she was unaware of the impact of culture on learning for ELs. She then moved forward to her action as a future teacher and addressed that teachers need to "find ways to connect with each one of them [students]" to make students "feel included and accepted" (forward). Emily further described (below) a reading event where she connected literature with Anna's linguistic and cultural background.

> When I worked individually with Anna, the book that I took to read was called *Lupe and Me*. I chose this book

because it contained Spanish words and a Spanish-to-English glossary. This allowed Anna to make a connection between her home language and English through a piece of literature.

English Language Proficiency

Preservice teachers noticed that their first impression or assumption about their EL's English language proficiency had been changed during their field experiences. The excerpt below is cited from Kristen's narrative, which represents her past and current beliefs, as well as future actions, toward ELs' English language proficiency and development.

> Because Feta speaks English well, I believed he would be able to easily accomplish the tasks, but I quickly learned that it wasn't that simple. When given math work, he will usually be the first one done. However, I saw him having a lot of trouble in math class when the teacher asked him to write down the strategy he used and how he went about getting the answer at the bottom of his page. Much work is needed to develop academic language and it requires more individualized instruction. I now see it as my job to pinpoint the specific strengths and weaknesses of all of my students, especially English learners, to give them the support that they need and deserve.

ESL Classroom Accommodations

Commonly, preservice teachers had believed that classroom accommodations for ELs required tedious work. In a milieu of ESL classrooms, preservice teachers observed classroom accommodation strategies and directly worked with ELs, which helped them better understand the meaning of accommodation. Dylan described his learning experience of providing accommodations to help John during an ESL pull-out session. Dylan documented his frustrations (inward); that is, even if he used translations and visual aids to accommodate John, John still struggled with the abstract physics

and math concepts. Dylan, in his narrative, indicated the initial approach he used as "ineffective." He modified his approach and still stood on uncertain ground, noticing John's minor progress regarding involvement but also being disappointed by John's struggles on the concepts. After consulting with the ESL teacher, he then realized that he had a wrong start; he wrote, "My criteria for accommodation were fundamentally flawed. I was trying to educate him in sixth-grade material, which was still far beyond his ability." Dylan explained that instead of making assumptions of what a student needed, he should learn more about the student's proficiency level at the beginning and then "shape my teaching to their current abilities and needs" (forward). Dylan also reflected his presumption toward EL accommodations as "complicated" (backward) and made sense of classroom accommodations as "helpful for both ESL students and other slower students in class" (forward).

Critical Awareness of ELs' Learning and Schooling Experiences

Preservice teachers' critical awareness of ELs' learning and schooling experiences is strongly visible in their narratives. Two main strands emerged: ELs' different classroom performance patterns and external factors that affected ELs' learning. During their field experiences, preservice teachers shadowed their EL in different classroom settings (i.e. home classrooms, interventions, ESL sessions). They noticed that their student had different participation patterns in different classroom settings. The researcher found the adjective words "quiet" and "shy" appeared repeatedly in the narratives when preservice teachers described their student in mainstream classrooms. They also wrestled with the reasons and were uncertain if it was due to students' personality, the lack of self-esteem, language barriers, or the teacher. The following narrative fragment written by Samatha illustrates such awareness.

> She seemed nervous to be called on by Mrs. Idell. She seemed unsure of her academic skills when the entire class was listening to her. In classes such as Cosmetology, Erica didn't participate at all. It appears that she didn't want to

say the wrong thing out loud that would get the rest of
the class to laugh at her. But, in her ESL class, she looked
more comfortable.

Samantha noticed Erica's quietness in her mainstream class-
rooms, compared to her performance during the ESL sessions.
Samantha suspected that this difference was due to the small group
setting and EL peers, and she further advocated for a change, sug-
gesting, "teachers not overlook the students who rarely raise their
hands in class" (forward).

Working with their ESL student, preservice teachers noticed that
external factors besides English language barriers could affect ESL
students' schooling and learning experiences. Such a disposition
exemplifies a preservice teacher's tendency to not ascribe ELs
academic underperformance to their learning of the English lan-
guage only, but also shows an intention to advocate for ELs.

Preservice teacher Jenna wrote: "This experience opened my
eyes to the loads of factors that go into their [ELs'] struggle with
learning. None of mainstream kids have to deal with their dad be-
ing deported." Working with her EL helped Jenna become aware
of different learning conditions students had (outward). Jenna
considered the student's unstable family condition and its effect
on the student's overall development, which led her to rethink the
student's learning needs. Accordingly, she called for action (for-
ward) that "If a teacher takes time to understand what is going on
in students' lives, she is able
to provide help or at least emotional support, and appropriately
evaluate students' performance." Jenna also noticed that Mary,
as a girl in her home country, was not allowed to continue her
education. She argued teachers should not attribute Mary's poor
performance and struggle in school to the lack of English language
competence; she wrote, "Language acts to conceal their other issues,
allowing teachers to subscribe all of the problems to translation,
and overlooking the other potential causes." It is evident that
the ESOL field experience facilitated critical thinking and social
awareness, and narrative inquiry helped capture this process.

Discussion

Five themes were brought to surface through the process of data coding: Home Language Assumptions, School Environment, English Language Proficiency, ESL Classroom Accommodations, and Critical Awareness of ELs' Learning and Schooling Experiences. The themes indicate what they come to know about teaching ELs. The narratives may not offer comprehensive or longitudinal representations of their field placement experiences. However, since preservice teachers decided what they wanted to include in their narratives, the five themes evidenced by the recorded scenarios are important and meaningful to them. Compelling findings indicate that preservice teachers understood that learning the English language was a social practice affected by external factors.

More importantly, by using the three-dimension narrative analysis (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000), the researcher was able to gain access to and identify preservice teachers' knowledge and disposition development and transformative actions towards teaching ELs, as well as existing gaps (e.g., misinterpretation of the use of home language) in their understandings. Since their narratives are fact-based, engaging in narrative inquiry can facilitate preservice teachers to articulate and synthesize their learning, internalize their experiential understandings of teaching ELs emotionally and cognitively, and externalize their experiences on the pathway to becoming classroom teachers.

Meanwhile, we can see how preservice teachers positioned themselves as "the norm" through their narratives. Preservice teachers normalized homework help as an important means of parental involvement. Emily, the preservice teacher, described her own growing-up experience, "My parents were very involved in my education. They spent the evenings helping my brother and I [me] complete homework assignments, or running us to our countless after school activities." In line with this way of thinking, incapability of providing homework help due to the language barrier singled out non-English speaking parents from other parents. Complaints on immigrant parents' lack of involvement in their

children's education sound cliché; though, grumbling was heard again. Nonetheless, preservice teachers did not follow up any actions and solutions in their narratives with regard to the perceived issue. It seems that they either did not know what they could do to offer guidance and help towards homework support outside school, or did not feel that it was their responsibility. A middle-class mainstream mindset was evident. Hence, immigrant students and their parents were "othered" in preservice teachers' narratives; meanwhile, preservice teachers, including the biracial preservice and the preservice teacher who is a second-generation immigrant, constructed their white and middle-class identity in their writings.

It is insufficient for preservice teachers to just recognize the different family and cultural backgrounds that mainstream teachers and immigrant students have; it is more critical to make preservice teachers understand what their mainstream beliefs and values are, and how such "taking for granted" beliefs impact ways that they teach and view their culturally linguistically diverse students. It further affirms that in our teacher education programs, teaching strategies, although important, are insufficient to help preservice teachers develop the sensitivities and dispositions to work with ELs.

Preservice teachers' narratives appropriated the ESL-related theories (e.g., English language proficiency) and they utilized their ESL field experiences to (re)conceptualize their understanding of theoretical knowledge (e.g., ESL Classroom Accommodations) as well as their future instructional practices. Through the mediation of the course and the first-hand experience of working with ELs, preservice teachers justified that teaching should be culturally relevant to immigrant students. Interestingly, when discussing their future actions, preservice teachers only talked about practices they could use in their future classroom, such as incorporating multicultural literature into instruction. Even though they noticed the importance of the schooling environment, they mainly focused on classroom practices that can make ELs feel accepted and valued. However, none of them mentioned what they could do to help raise teacher colleagues' and school administrators' awareness across their future school campus. As a matter of fact, a multicultural

school can only be established if multiculturalism is concretely reflected in the whole school curricula, represented in school in a multifaceted way, and valued by all school personnel (Nieto, 2008).

The selected events in preservice teachers' narratives strengthen what matters to them, to listeners, as well as to the instructor in their mind. The researcher was also aware that narratives require interpretation and analytic interpretations are partial and limited to some extent. First, the narratives written by preservice teachers were tentative and unsettling. They might exclude what cannot be spoken in the light of the power relationships between the preservice teachers and the course instructor (i.e. the researcher). Second, due to the time commitment required and writing space limitation, narratives are unsuitable for work with a large number of participants (Bell, 2002). Further, their future classroom practices may be consistent or inconsistent with their disposition, depending on various factors (e.g., educational policy, institutional context). Therefore, the purpose of this study is neither to offer the best solution to prepare preservice teachers to work with ELs nor to make any generalization. Instead, this study, hopefully, serves as a starting point, rather than an end, to offer an opportunity to open up a dialogue with teacher education colleagues to discuss the possibilities.

Conclusion

Narratives went beyond simply telling stories; instead, they offered teacher educators an appropriate tool to examine the underlying insights and assumptions that stories illustrated (Bell, 2002). Narratives are told "to make a point, transmit a message, offer moral evaluation or implied critical judgment" (Polanyi, 1985, p. 2), and to express both cognitive and emotional understandings of teaching with specific events (Golombek & Johnson, 2004). Following the four directions (i.e. inward, outward, backward, and forward) (Clandinin & Connelly, 1994), narrative inquiry can be especially useful to document and analyze how preservice teachers' knowledge and dispositions towards teaching ELs developed through their field experiences (see example in Appendix A), and also facilitate dialogues between the instructor and students on

teaching ELs. Since language barriers usually disguise ELs' other learning needs, it is essential to examine preservice teachers' understandings of the complex sociocultural contexts that affect ELs, which explicitly and implicitly influence their inclinations and actions in their future teaching. Identifying preservice teachers' moral and ethical positions is also one of the excellent qualities that the Association of Independent Liberal Arts Colleges for Teacher Education wants their member teacher education institutions to exemplify (Roose & Zande, 2005).

Narrative inquiry, additionally, allows teacher educators to see if and how preservice teachers plan to take future actions towards the identified issues/problems and how they use their knowledge to implement positive changes within the lives of children from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds (Roose & Zande, 2005), which aligns with the transformative approach of teaching. Further, understanding preservice teachers' perceptions of teaching ELs developed from their course and the ESOL field experience helps answer questions that teacher educators must ask ourselves: what knowledge, skills, and disposition have preservice teachers developed towards teaching ELs? What are the existing misunderstandings/incomplete understandings? How can teacher educators modify the course to fill the gap? In this study, the findings suggest the benefits of the shadowing experience with individual ELs, and also help pinpoint the needs in our teacher education programs; that is, opportunities should be provided to allow preservice teachers to participate in ELs' lives outside of the classroom and to understand the meaning of bilingualism and biculturalism.

Meanwhile, it can be used as a self-assessment tool; re-reading their narratives in light of the four directions helps preservice teachers understand their sense of their teaching, promote reflection, and enhance self and social awareness, which is consistent with the mission of our liberal arts based teacher education program (Chisholm, 1994). To sum up, narrative inquiry provides a channel to cultivate as well as to examine the pathway of knowledge and disposition development that preservice teachers pursue.

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Appendix A: Narrative Inquiry—ESOL Field Experience

Topic/Problem Identified Regarding Teaching ELs:	Comments
Inward (feelings/reaction): Demonstrated emotional understandings (e.g., feeling, reaction) of teaching during the ESOL field experience towards the identified topic/problem.	
Outward (the environment): Demonstrated an awareness of the current learning environment where ELs are exposed.	
Backward (past experience, present experience): Documented the past and/or current experience tied to the identified topic/problem.	
Forward (future action): Discussed actions to be taken in the future classrooms to solve the problem or address the topic.	

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Getting Students to Read:
Anticipation Guides as Tools to Encourage Engagement with Academic Texts

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Abstract

Supporting the reading development of college students is the responsibility of all professors. As experts in the field, with experience navigating and interpreting readings in a particular discipline, professors are obligated to think of themselves as master artisans apprenticing their students to the craft of reading. Texts in all subject areas have discipline-specific demands that must be identified, and then taught, as essential building blocks for mastery of a topic's content (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008). This article explores the role of purpose in guiding readers' comprehension. Specifically, it explains how creating anticipation guides encourages purposeful reading and more intentional teaching.

Keywords: **anticipation guides, reading comprehension, college students, engagement**

Dear Readers,
Prior to reading this article, please read the statements in the
middle column in the chart below and note your opinion about each
in the first column. When you finish reading, consider returning to
this chart, re-reading the middle column statements, and deciding if
your opinion has remained the same or changed under the influence
of the ideas in the article. Record your post-reading opinion in
column 3.

Figure 1: Anticipation Guide

	Before Reading Circle your opinion before reading this article	**Statement** Read each statement, then decide if you agree or disagree *before* reading the article and *after* reading it.	**After Reading** Circle your opinion after reading this article
1	Agree Disagree	I often notice that students do not read the assignments I give to prepare for class.	Agree Disagree
2	Agree Disagree	Students who don't read fail to do so because they're poor readers and the texts I assign are too difficult for them to understand.	Agree Disagree
3	Agree Disagree	Students who neglect to read assigned texts do so because they expect me to review the key points in class.	Agree Disagree
4	Agree Disagree	I've tried to solve the problem of students who don't read the assigned texts.	Agree Disagree
5	Agree Disagree	I understand the role *purpose* plays in preparing reading assignments.	Agree Disagree

Introduction

"I'm having a hard time getting my students involved in class discussions," my professor-colleagues often lament. "I don't think they're doing the reading. Why don't they read what I assign? Sometimes I think they don't have the skills to read effectively, so they don't even try." I'm often approached with questions like these because I'm a professor in our Education department, and my peers assume I will understand their inclination to blame K-12 teachers for all that's wrong with our college students. *Who better to explicate the shortcomings of schools today,* they think, *than a teacher educator whose job depends on fixing what's broken?*

The blame game generally targets one of two transgressions perpetrated by K-12 teachers on their students. First, they never taught their students how to read. The data are there for all to see, published in the local newspapers every spring, announcing the dismal results of the latest reading assessment. And second, even for those few students who are capable of reading well, who can understand texts and pull key ideas from them, their teachers neglected to impress upon them a scholars' work ethic. They don't understand what it takes to be academically successful, burning the midnight oil, poring over assigned texts, taking notes, re-reading—all in preparation for the next day's lecture. In short, someone failed to get these students ready for college.

My university colleagues are often surprised when they learn that I won't join them in holding K–12 teachers responsible for the obstacles we face when it comes to getting our college students to read what we assign. I assure them that I wrestled with the same problem when I started teaching in the college classroom. In my mind, I'd covered all the bases. I was careful about choosing texts that were current, relevant, varied and engaging. I tied each reading assignment to class topics so that students would feel well prepared to absorb the ideas I presented in lectures and then to extend their thinking by combining what they'd read with what I'd said. I also planned to reward students' reading efforts by writing exams that drew on the ideas they'd read—I wasn't going to be one of those professors who assigned mountains of reading only to put out tests

that focused mostly on lecture material.

Still, despite my best intentions, I knew most of my teacher candidates were not successfully reading what I assigned. Arriving at that conclusion was not difficult: I could see it in the way they came into class and sat as far away from me as possible. I could hear it in their hesitant answers to my questions. I could sense it in their avid notetaking as I lectured, pens flying across pages in hopes that recording everything I said would make up for not having read in preparation for class. Blaming K-12 teachers was fruitless. I knew my preservice teachers were college-ready: when the stakes were high, they put the time and energy into writing, or studying, or asking questions that allowed them to get the paper written or the test passed. It was that notion that certain times in the semester were high stakes and others were not that students needed to get beyond. Instead, I wanted my students to bring consistent and engaged attention to the course material throughout the semester, but I couldn't figure out how to make that happen.

That was Then, This is Now: Coming to Terms with my Pedagogical Responsibility

These days, my students arrive in class having read the assigned pages in our course texts and with ideas prepared for discussion. What changed? I discovered the power of purpose. Without a well-defined purpose for reading, students flounder, particularly when reading academic writing. If you ask students the question on many of my colleagues' minds, "Why don't you read what you're assigned?" the answers are varied, but they point to the same conclusion: Lack of purpose.

Students answer the "why don't you read?" question with comments such as, "Why should I read when the professor is just going to go over it again in class?" Or "I skim the reading, but I don't know what to concentrate on when there's a whole chapter in front of me." Or "I read the assignment, but I do it *after* the teacher has lectured about the chapter so I can review what she focused on." Or "I'll read when there's a test and I can use the study guide to tell me what to pay attention to." Words and phrases like 'concentrate

on,' 'focus,' 'direct my thinking,' and 'pay attention to' suggest the need for a purpose to make reading assignments meaningful for college students. When I understood the power of purposeful reading, I had the solution to the problem of unprepared students in my classes.

The solution, creating purposeful reading experiences, is not fancy, new-fangled, or complicated. Faculty who assign questions to answer before, during or after reading know the difference purposeful reading makes in supporting students' reading habits. Similarly, study guides outlining a chapter's content or essay assignments to complete after reading encourage students to read for specific reasons. Instructors who complain that their students don't read often want to blame the problem on lack of ability, lack of effort, or lack of interest, but I'm more inclined to think that the reason students don't read is because they lack a genuine reason for doing so.

Why Purpose?

Blanton, Wood, and Moorman (1990) explain three reasons why purpose is crucial to reading comprehension. "First, skillful readers develop a purpose that provides a guidance mechanism for processing information in a text before reading. Second, purpose activates a plan or cognitive blueprint for the reader to use while reading. Third, purpose helps the reader sort out relevant from irrelevant information while reading" (p. 488). Successful readers understand the role of purpose in supporting reading and they are skilled at setting their own purposes to guide, monitor and evaluate comprehension. By the time students reach college, faculty assume they have the requisite reading skills to tackle any assignment, but if they don't, as Culver and Morse (2012) point out, many "instructors have developed a 'sink or swim' policy, assuming that students will either gain these necessary skills or drop out" (p. 15); but the truth is, even post-secondary teachers have a responsibility to help their students learn to read the increasingly complex texts they're presented in college courses.

One obvious reason to embrace this responsibility is that even

students who arrive in the college classroom with strong reading skills will be challenged by the more sophisticated readings they encounter, not to mention the increase in the number of pages professors expect their students to read. As experts in the field, with years of experience navigating and interpreting readings in a particular discipline, professors are obligated to think of themselves as master artisans apprenticing their students to the craft of reading. Texts in all subject areas have discipline-specific demands that must be identified by professors, and then taught as essential building blocks for mastery of a topic's content (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008).

Another reason professors are well-advised to pay more attention to teaching their students reading strategies, like setting purposes, is that many students come to college under-prepared to read well. The gap is often wide between high-school proficiency and the expected skills for college success (Zhang, 2000-2001). DiTomasso (2005) writes, "Difficulties in reading comprehension are common for students transitioning to college, and the need to provide students with concrete strategies in approaching reading tasks is well documented." According to the Nation's Report Card (2005), a report summarizing results from the National Assessment of Educational Progress, recent data provide more statistics about the reading proficiency of students entering college. In 2005, the average reading score for high school seniors was 286 on a 0-500 point scale. The percentage of students performing at or above Basic decreased from 80 percent in 1992 to 73 percent in 2005, and the percentage of students performing at or above the Proficient level decreased from 40 to 35 percent (*Reading* section, Executive Summary, para. 1 & 2).

A 2007 study of reading habits and proficiency corroborates the NAEP data: Test scores show that only slightly more than one-third of high school seniors read proficiently (Iyengar, p. 13).

Of course, most colleges and universities have developmental reading programs to provide academic support, but these are generally reserved for students who speak English as a second language, who have identified learning disabilities, or for those on academic

probation; in other words, students with the most critical needs. However, anyone with even a semester of college teaching under her belt knows that the range of reading abilities in a class varies widely, regardless of cultural or learning differences, and that most students would benefit from more direct teaching of strategies to support reading college-level texts.

Instructors can choose from an array of reading strategies when they decide that taking time to identify and model skillful reading in their discipline is time well spent. Research points to several cognitive habits of proficient readers that support their comprehension; beginning with metacognition, the ability to monitor one's thinking to make sure meaning is preserved, to more specific skills, such as activating background knowledge, asking questions, inferring, determining importance and creating mental images (Duke & Pearson, 2002; Pearson, et al., 1992). Setting purposes for reading is another cognitive habit of mind of successful readers, and one that college-level instructors can highlight to improve their teaching and the learning of all their students.

One of my favorite stories about the consequences of purpose-less reading comes from Cris Tovani, a high school teacher and author of a book called *I read it, but I don't get it* (Tovani, 2000). Tovani, recalling days before she recognized the importance of purpose when assigning academic reading, asked her class to read a chapter in their history text and to highlight the "important parts." The next day in class, when students opened their books, it looked like someone had turned on extra lights in the room. The glow from the highlighted passages pulsated from her students' books. When Tovani asked one student why she had highlighted the entire chapter, the student said, *You told us to highlight the important parts. If it's in the book, it must all be important, right?*

In this case, the well-intentioned teacher had *attempted* to give her students a purpose, that is, "highlight the important parts," but the task was not specific enough. Finding functional "tools" to help students hold their thinking when they read is a worthwhile use of instructional planning time if professors want their students to engage with course material in ways that enrich their time spent in

class. In my teaching, I have found the use of *anticipation guides* to be invaluable in my effort to provide students with a purpose for reading. Of equal value is the way constructing an anticipation guide serves as a review of key material for me when planning a class session.

What is an Anticipation Guide?

   Anticipation guides (AGs) are part of a family of response strategies with many names. In general terms, AGs might be referred to as "tools to hold thinking," "previewing guides," "graphic organizers," or "reading response forms." Included in this family are reading logs, discussion questions, pre-tests, post-reading essay assignments, double-entry journals, and literature logs (Allen, 2007; Fisher, et al., 2010; McLaughlin, M., & Allen, M.B., 2002). The purpose of an anticipation guide is to promote students' interaction with the major ideas of a text through the use of instructor-created statements that activate their thoughts and opinions. By asking students to agree or disagree with these statements, instructors can determine what students know (and don't know) about the topic, while generating discussion, identifying students' experiences with the topic, and uncovering misconceptions.

   Anticipation guides are used prior to having students read a passage from their text or other supplemental reading material (whether they are reading it in class or as homework); students return to the AG after reading to evaluate changes in their opinions or knowledge base. Anticipation guides can be designed "to create a mismatch between what the learner knows or believes and what is presented in the text, a situation that can lead students to think more critically about the information" (National Urban Alliance for Effective Education, n.d.). While anticipation guides are most frequently used with print text, they are equally valuable to front-load and provide closure with all kinds of texts, written, spoken, or created; for example, before and after the viewing of a video, critiquing a work of art, or listening to a lecture.

Creating an Anticipation Guide

To support my description of creating an anticipation guide, I included one to accompany this article (see Figure 1). Readers can refer to it as I explain how I was thinking as I constructed it.

To begin, I skim through the reading assignment I'm going to give my students. As I read, I make marginal notes about the key points I want them to consider. When I'm finished reviewing the text, I turn the key points into statements that a reader might agree or disagree with. I am careful to include two kinds of statements, which I refer to as "thin" and "thick" ideas. A thin statement is one that checks for literal comprehension of the text. Statement 5 on the AG I wrote for this article (Figure 1) is an example of a thin statement. Thick statements, on the other hand, ask students to form an opinion about an idea presented in the text by drawing on past experience and current understanding of an issue. Statements 1-4, in Figure 1, are examples of thick statements.

After writing my key statements, I plug them into a template. The statements appear in a middle column sandwiched between a before-reading column (asking students to agree or disagree with the idea in the middle column), and an after-reading column (asking them to review their pre-reading opinions and to revise any that need changing).

When I create AGs, I am attentive to creating possibilities for integrating reading and writing as a way to further support critical thinking. At the bottom of the statement chart I include directions for a more thoughtful treatment of the key ideas. Students are instructed to *"pick two statements about which you changed your mind during the reading. Explain how the original statements needed to be modified in order for you to agree with them (word process this, please). If you didn't have any revisions, choose two statements with which you agree strongly or disagree and explain why."* [NOTE: I am careful to allow for the possibility that reading will reinforce an existing idea, rather than always providing a correction to an underdeveloped or incorrect interpretation or knowledge base.]

Requiring students to re-visit their pre-reading opinions to

determine how their thinking has been influenced by the reading extends the rigor of the basic AG. By asking students to choose two statements to write about, I also create a manageable amount of work to respond to. While I always collect their completed charts, I give these only a cursory glance; instead, I focus my evaluative attention on their written reflections—just two statements—believing that quality trumps quantity when it comes to giving students useful feedback.

The number of statements I include on an anticipation guide depends on the length of the assigned text and how much time I want to spend in class reviewing students' "agree or disagree" designations. Please note, the real value of AGs lies in their potential to support class discussions, particularly the thick statements. Assigning an anticipation guide in response to a reading, and then collecting it to evaluate without discussing students' responses undermines their usefulness and students' confidence in a professor's desire to know how students engaged with the assigned text.

Students' responses to thin statements take very little time to review because there is only one correct way to respond to the statement. On the anticipation guide for this article, for example, I wrote, "I understand the role *purpose* plays in preparing reading assignments." After reading this article, readers should all "agree" with that statement. Discussion is kept at a minimum.

Thick statements, on the other hand, require more substantial discussion time. In Figure 1, Statement 2, I wrote, "Students who don't read fail to do so because they're poor readers and the texts I assign are too difficult for them to understand." A statement like this is certain to invite different opinions. With thick statements, if I have a large class, I divide students into groups and assign each one a thick question to discuss. After talking, we meet as a whole group and report out about the conversation. In smaller classes, we can discuss each thick statement and respond to each other's ideas as a group.

Also, because the major goal of using anticipation guides is to scaffold students' reading development in a way that creates more independent, purposeful readers, I often leave an empty "statement"

space where students can insert statements (preferably thick) that they have identified as significant in the reading. Inviting students to enhance an anticipation guide with their own critical statements is a genuine way to communicate that the instructor isn't the only person in the class with interpretive skills.

Figure 2: Tips for Writing Anticipation Guides

Tips I've Learned about Writing an AG

1. Make sure your assigned reading fits the purposes of an anticipation guide. Does the text leave room for agreeing or disagreeing with ideas? Traditional textbook chapters in the academic disciplines don't often invite debate. Essays, magazine articles, novels, short stories, research papers—these are the kinds of texts that are ripe for anticipation guide use.

2. Have students read your AG statements and agree or disagree before they leave class. You'll be certain they get the benefit of the pre-reading purpose-setting by taking time to do this.

3. Include more thin statements than thick statements. What are the 3 or 4 key ideas you want students to think deeply about? More than that and you'll use a lot of class time discussing students' ideas.

4. After students have completed several anticipation guides, ask them to try writing one. Select several readings in advance and assign one to different groups of students. Explain that each group will read its assigned text, then write an anticipation guide for people who have not read the text yet. When they are complete, have groups trade reading assignments and use their peers' anticipation guides to provide a purpose for their reading. Writing thin and thick questions is an excellent exercise to support purposeful reading.

5. Alternatively, once your students have experience with anticipation guides, if they're going to give class presentations on a course topic, have them write an anticipation guide for their peers to use to set purposes for listening to the presentation and to support discussion after.

How Anticipation Guides Benefit Instructors

By now, it should be obvious that anticipation guides benefit students' learning by helping them read more purposefully with a focus on the key concepts they are expected to understand when they finish reading (or listening, or viewing). The advantages of the anticipation guide extend to instructors, too, helping them organize streamlined class sessions. Anticipation guides take time to create, but the effort is the epitome of efficiency. While creating an anticipation guide, instructors review the reading material in preparation for class lectures and/or discussion, creating a document that ensures students will be well-prepared for the class; at the same time, they create an outline to guide their lecture notes or to frame a discussion by focusing on key points in the course texts (again, remember that students can "read" a film, a painting, a mathematical formula, indeed any non-linguistic form of communication. They are all texts, and anticipation guides can be created for each of them).

Conclusion

When professors listen to me talk about the importance of setting purposes for students' course reading, they often ask, "Shouldn't college students be capable of setting their own purposes for reading?" In response, I refer to researchers like Shanahan and Shanahan (2008) who explain that, "despite the growing need for literacy, especially higher-level literacy skills, assessment data suggest that adolescents today read no better, and perhaps marginally worse, than a generation ago" (p. 42). The demands to develop enhanced literacy skills to function in the 21st century have been accelerated by technological advances, fewer blue collar jobs, and more sophisticated skills to ensure health maintenance. Job markets that require increased literacy skills necessitate that more students than ever move into higher education after high school (Shanahan & Shanahan, p. 41).

College faculty need to re-imagine the scope of their role in teaching and learning, envisioning themselves as partners with their secondary-teacher colleagues in the development of students'

literacy skills. In other words, high school teachers will work hard to help students become proficient readers of high school-level texts. College faculty must then take over by teaching their students how to read college-level texts successfully, rather than assuming students who lack the necessary skills to achieve in college will "learn by consumption" (McNamara, 2010). The truth is, as much as we would like our college students to arrive on campus ready to tackle hundreds of pages of text a week, and to complete that reading with incisive questions, new interpretations, and relevant connections, many students do not have adequate pre-college experience to prepare them to read in these ways. Professors who balk at the added responsibility of teaching students to read in sophisticated, critical ways, but who recognize the futility of not addressing the issue, find anticipation guides, and their focus on purposeful reading, useful.

And here's an added bonus: Anticipation guides are empowering to create. They let you manage the texts you're using and some of the ideas you want your students to consider, making good on the notion that in teaching, it's not what you cover, it's what you uncover. You'll feel professionally virtuous and extra well-prepared as you pass them out to your students, and the potential for teacher candidates to apply the critical reading habits engendered by anticipation guide use in all their liberal arts coursework makes the exercise a valuable complement to educating purposeful, engaged future teachers.

For examples of anticipation guides across different disciplines, visit these sites:

AG for studying the Declaration of Independence
http://www.texaslre.org/lpFiles/112006_LP_PredictingtheMeaningoftheDeclaration.pdf

AG for studying fungi
http://www.somers.k12.ny.us/intranet/reading/fungi.pdf

AG for the Panama Canal
http://www.somers.k12.ny.us/intranet/reading/canal.pdf

AG for Homer's **The Odyssey**
http://wvde.state.wv.us/strategybank/AnticipationGuide.html

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Can It Be Fixed? The Challenge of Remediating Problem Dispositions and Lessons Learned

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Abstract

Defining and assessing dispositions continues to be a conundrum for many teacher education programs, particularly when significant dispositional concerns arise that warrant intervention. This study focuses on the analysis of dispositions intervention data from one institution to identify the trends and patterns that could further inform the assessment process and program curricula. The results raise a number of questions about the representation of gender, ethnicity, and certification level in dispositions intervention plans, as well as the success rates of remediation. Additionally, results indicated that three of the 28 assessed dispositional characteristics were the target of a majority of the disposition intervention plans.

Keywords: **dispositions, disposition remediation, disposition intervention, teacher effectiveness**

We believe it is fair to say that most, if not all, teacher education programs have been in the conundrum of dispositions. Teacher education programs have struggled to define dispositions as well as identify which characteristics, traits, beliefs, and attitudes should be included in this definition (Damon, 2007; Katz & Raths, 1985;

Murray, 2007; Sockett, 2009; Taylor & Wasicsko, 2000). Additionally, programs have grappled with how to assist candidates in developing professional dispositions and the appropriate way to assess these dispositions (Bucalos & Price, 2005; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Diez, 2007; Rike & Sharp, 2008). What is not puzzling about professional dispositions is their impact on the effectiveness of a teacher and student success. Unfortunately, not all teacher candidates are imbued with the appropriate teacher dispositions. When this is the case, education faculty must intervene to assist in remediation; however, it has been this education faculty's experience that the remediation of dispositional concerns in candidates takes as much, if not more, energy and time as the cultivation of appropriate and highly effective dispositional qualities. The connection between appropriate dispositions and student learning as well as the time commitment necessary to remediate inappropriate dispositions makes this a serious topic for teacher education programs. It was this realization that prompted the authors to question the effectiveness of their own dispositions intervention and remediation procedures which became the foundation of this study.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to examine the candidates with Dispositions Intervention Plans (DIPs) and the frequency of dispositions items addressed in DIPs. These data will then inform the school of education about trends in DIPs, which could have implications for policies and programming. Additionally, this study will contribute to the professional literature on dispositions, specifically extending the literature on intervention practices and subsequent issues. The three research questions for this study were:

1. What is the demographic representation of DIPs across candidates and initial teacher certification programs in the school of education?
2. What are the trends in DIPs based on gender, grade level certification, and ethnicity?
3. What are the nature and frequency of dispositions items cited on the DIPs?

Background

There have been several "waves" of professional dispositions discussion and debate, from Katz and Raths' (1985) advocacy of putting dispositional skills into action; to Taylor and Wasicsko's (2000) use of screening instruments to determine "core perceptions" or stable traits; to Sockett's (2009) conception of professional virtues of character, intellect, and care that become habits of mind affecting behavior. Damon (2007) has argued for a more clearly defined construct for both the definition of disposition and its assessment, while Murray (2007) contends that significant scholarship and research are required to establish a higher level meaning of disposition beyond "the rate or frequency of a behavior in a defined situation" (p. 385). Beyond achieving consensus on the definition of the construct, agreement on how to assess dispositions is equally elusive (Bucalos & Price, 2005; Borko, Liston, & Whitcomb, 2007; Diez, 2007; Rike & Sharp, 2008). Regardless of the conceptualization of dispositions and their assessment, the connecting point in all of the literature is the impact of dispositions on the effectiveness of a teacher, and conversely, the interference of inappropriate dispositional qualities with student success (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Diez, 2007). King, Hilber, and Engley (2007) found that teacher candidates benefited from a very specific dispositions assessment of "emergent professionalism" based on modeling appropriate professional behaviors in their college classrooms, with attention to remediation of any inappropriate behaviors by the end of the semester. Yet, the dispositions literature with regard to remediation is limited primarily to legal cases where candidates contest dismissal or what they believe to be discriminatory intervention practices (Wilson, 2005), or to connections between candidates at risk for not completing preparation programs and determinants of their poor performance (Edwards & Edick, 2006).

Our education faculty views the articulation of dispositions and their assessment as a developmental process. This developmental progression is viewed within a variety of contexts, including self-reflection on assessments, in campus classroom settings, in field experiences, and certainly during the professional semester, and

assessed using a checklist at three "transition points" during a candidate's preparation program. Candidates self-assess, and then are institutionally assessed by faculty and/or university supervisors. The checklist was developed after a thorough review of literature, feedback from education partners in the field, and a year-long piloting of the instrument. It views dispositions both as patterns of behavior (Katz & Raths, 1985) and human qualities that can be cultivated (Dewey, 1922). When candidates self-assess or are institutionally assessed as "needing intervention," a DIP is put into effect with specific intervention strategies and a timeline for remediating the area(s) of concern. A DIP may be initiated by education faculty or advisors based on candidate data from course performance, assessments, cooperating teacher field evaluations, or performance during the professional semester. The goal of the DIP is to intervene early in the candidate's program so that candidates have the opportunity to remediate dispositional deficits that may result in dismissal from their program.

This education faculty developed its DIP in 2004, with minor revisions in 2010. Over the last four years, a total of 42 DIPs have been written on 34 initial certification candidates (undergraduate and master of arts in teaching programs). DIPs are recorded and tracked by the date they originate; therefore, students can have multiple DIPs if areas of concern are addressed at different dates throughout their time as an enrolled candidate. Although the DIP instrument was developed as a proactive approach to identifying candidates with dispositional deficiencies prior to the professional semester, assessment data and feedback from P-12 partners has indicated that dispositional concerns frequently have been the primary reason for unsuccessful professional semester experiences and/or dismissal from the school of education. Significant professional time and effort have been expended on interventions with candidates, with some concerns involving formal grievances and legal action. These factors contributed to the decision by the authors to take a closer look at the existing DIPs to identify the trends and patterns that could further inform and guide changes to assessment and remediation processes.

Method

Population

This study took place at a small Midwest liberal arts university in fall 2011. Candidate enrollment in the initial certification teacher preparation programs (undergraduate and master of arts in teaching [MAT]) from 2008 to 2011 was used as the targeted group. Total enrollments for undergraduates were 706 candidates, with 979 for MAT. Candidates were counted each year they were enrolled in their program, because they could potentially be placed on a DIP each year. Candidates with DIPs (n = 34), and the total number of written DIPs (n = 42) since 2008 are the study's targeted sample.

Instrument

The Dispositions Self- and Institutional Assessment is comprised of five "themes" as follows: 1) continuous reflection and lifelong learning; 2) personal integrity; 3) cultural responsiveness; 4) professional integrity; and 5) collaboration and leadership (see Figure 1). Each theme contains a list of individual dispositional characteristics, giving a total of 28 dispositional characteristics within the five themes. Candidates and faculty/university supervisors use the same instrument for comparative purposes at three transition points: admission to teacher education, admission to the professional semester, and at exit from the program. Candidates are rated "Acceptable," "Area for Growth," or "Remediation Required." A DIP may be written for an area for growth, but must be written for a rating of remediation required. A DIP may be required at any point in a candidate's matriculation through a program in addition to specific assessment points. The following steps are involved in a DIP: 1) the need for a DIP is determined; 2) a meeting is convened with the candidate, referring faculty, and advisor or program chair to discuss concerns; 3) a DIP is completed; 4) DIP data are recorded into the school of education's candidate database; 5) designated faculty and/or advisor monitor the plan until the end of semester 6) upon full remediation of the DIP, all documents related to the plan are submitted for data entry and confidential storage. If the plan is not fully remediated, a determination is made

regarding candidate status and continued monitoring of the plan.

Dispositions assessment data are tracked individually and programmatically, as are DIPs. Candidates and faculty assess dispositions through *LiveText*, the school of education's assessment management system. *LiveText*, an internet-based system for collecting, storing, and displaying data is used by education faculty to administer the self-and institutional assessments. Faculty meets three times a year (August, December, and May) to review candidates in regard to the three transition points, specifically considering those candidates on DIPs.

Copies of the 42 DIPs written on our 34 preservice teacher candidates were obtained and entered into an Excel spreadsheet that included the following: (a) the disposition date; (b) candidate enrollment status; (c) gender; (d) ethnicity; (e) program (undergraduate or MAT); (f) major; (g) content concentration (if applicable); (h) whether candidate was seeking alternative certification; (i) dispositional characteristics(s) cited; (j) faculty/advisor initiating DIP; (k) whether or not the disposition was remediated; and (l) date they were admitted into the school of education. This spreadsheet was blinded and did not contain candidate names or identification. The spreadsheet was used to calculate frequencies, compare trends, construct tables, and look for patterns in these data.

Results

Each of the five themes on the dispositions assessment is deconstructed into individual dispositional characteristics, with a total of 28. DIPs can identify one or more of these dispositional characteristics as areas of growth or needing remediation. From 2008 to 2011, a total of 42 DIPs were written on 34 candidates in the undergraduate and MAT initial certification programs. First, we analyzed the data with respect to the following five candidate demographics: program (undergraduate vs. graduate), remediation status, gender, grade level (elementary, middle, high), and under-represented populations. Additionally, we examined the frequency and trends of the cited dispositional characteristics (see Figure 1).

Program

DIP data revealed an imbalance in the number of candidates receiving plans and the number of plans written on candidates in the two initial certification programs (see Table 1). For example, of the 34 candidates receiving DIPs, 29.4% (10/34) were undergraduate, while undergraduates account for 41.9% (706/1685) of the total enrollment in the initial certification program. In comparison, graduate candidates account for 58.1% (979/1685), but 66.7% (24/34) of the candidates receiving DIPs. A similar imbalance exists in the number of plans written. Of the two plans written, undergraduate candidates accounted for 23.8% (10/42) of the plans while graduate candidates were responsible for 76.2% (32/42). With respect to enrollment, graduate candidates proportionally accounted for more DIPs.

Remediation Status

A total of 64.7% (22/34) of candidates' plans were remediated: 60% (6/10) undergraduates and 66.7% (16/24) graduates. Of the 6 undergraduate candidates with remediated plans, 2 withdrew and 4 graduated. In the graduate program, 1 candidate withdrew, 3 are still enrolled, and 12 graduated. Remediation time ranged from 44 to 640 days with M = 203.55 days. Conversely, 35.3% (12/34) of the candidates with DIPs have plans that have not been remediated, 40.0% (4/10) of undergraduates and 33.3% (8/24) of graduates. Of the non-remediated undergraduates with DIPs, 2 withdrew and 2 are still enrolled; for the graduate non-remediated, 2 withdrew and 6 are still enrolled. In summary, of 34 candidates with one or more DIPs, 16 graduated, 11 are still enrolled and 7 withdrew.

Gender

Males accounted for 41.2% (14/34) of candidates receiving DIPs: 20.0% (2/10) of all undergraduate and 50.0% (12/24) of all graduate candidates. However, males only accounted for 13.9% (98/706) of undergraduate enrollment and 24.5% (240/979) of graduate enrollment. Similarly, when looking at the 42 DIPs, males accounted for 40.5% (17/42) of the DIPs. Males accounted for 20.0% (2/10) of

undergraduate DIPs and 46.87% (15/32) of graduate DIPs.

Grade Level

In the undergraduate program, elementary, middle, and secondary majors accounted for 58.1% (410/706), 15.7% (111/706), and 26.2% (185/706) respectively of total undergraduate enrollment, and 40.0%, 0.0%, and 60.0% of undergraduate DIPs, respectively. For the MAT program, elementary, middle, and secondary majors accounted for 51.1% (500/979), 25.7% (252/979), and 23.2% (227/979) of total MAT enrollment, and for 25.0%, 53.1% and 21.9% of DIPs, respectively. See Table 1. Undergraduate secondary majors and graduate middle school majors had proportionally the most DIPs.

Underrepresented Populations

Underrepresented (non-Caucasian) candidates represented approximately 7.7% (130/1685) of the total enrollment in our pre-service teacher programs. However, 23.5% (8/34) of candidates with DIPs were underrepresented populations. Conversely, Caucasian candidates accounted for 92.3% (1555/1685) of enrollment but only 76.5% (26/34) of the candidates receiving DIPs. There were no substantial differences found for specific ethnicities. The discussion of ethnicity by year would not be appropriate in this study because of the potential to identify individual candidates.

Dispositional Characteristics

Findings from the analysis of data indicated that the identified dispositions of concern for the initial certification candidates were equally distributed across the five themes with the exception of Theme III (see Figure 1). Theme III, Cultural Responsiveness, accounts for only 2.1% (2/94) of the 94 dispositional characteristics cited in the individual plans.

Analysis of the dispositional characteristics revealed a preponderance of disposition plans were written on 3 of the 28 dispositions, accounting for 41.5% (39/94) of all dispositions issues. Likewise, within the five themes, several individual dispositions

accounted for the majority of those identified in candidates' plans. A total of 31.0% (13/42) of candidates' plans cited Theme II: 7, "Is present, punctual and prepared," as an area for growth. Additionally, 35.7% (15/42) of DIPs cited Theme IV: 19, "Demonstrates organizational ability by functioning in a proactive and dependable manner." Finally, Theme V: 23, "Demonstrates effective interpersonal skills (communication, enthusiasm, positive attitude) in working with teachers, parents, and education professionals," was cited in 26.2% (11/42) of DIPs. Of the 34 candidates with DIPs, 23 of them had 7, 19 and/or 23 as a cited dispositional deficit—with 9 of these being male. Out of these 23 candidates, 13 had one of the three, 7 had two of the three, and 3 had all three cited. Four of these candidates represented underrepresented populations.

Discussion

Analysis of the DIPs written over a four-year period revealed a number of trends. Most notable among these were an inordinate number of males and underrepresented populations with DIPs. Likewise, undergraduate secondary and graduate middle school candidates appear to be more prone to experience dispositional concerns warranting remediation. The majority of candidates with DIPs experienced deficits in three specific areas. Further, the authors discovered interesting trends specific to grade level for certification, program, successful remediation, gender, and ethnicity.

The most surprising finding regarding grade level of candidates was the disproportionate number of undergraduate secondary and graduate middle school candidates receiving DIPs. One explanation for the number of undergraduate secondary candidates receiving DIPs is the fact that these candidates spend less time in education course work and field experiences than their elementary/middle peers because they take a third of their classes in their content area. However, this does not explain the large number of middle school MAT candidates with a DIP who are focusing exclusively on education course work. This number contradicts the lack of DIPs on undergraduate middle school candidates. One possible explanation for the MAT middle school candidates is that these

career-changers are seeking teaching positions wherever there are shortages, without giving adequate consideration to their own skills, talents, and areas for growth.

It is significant to note that one-third more MAT candidates than undergraduates had DIPs. This is surprising considering that graduate candidates are older, presumed to exhibit higher levels of maturity, and, due to increased professional experience as career-changers, would have been exposed to professional behavior that could transfer to school settings.

Data revealed there were an inordinate number of males who received DIPs in both programs. This is especially significant given that the assessment items that appeared frequently as problematic for males involve punctuality and preparedness, organization, and effective communication, including enthusiasm. Are these attributes/behaviors gender specific? This pattern may align with a common stereotypic culture in schools that may characterize females in general as those who tend to be more organized, conforming to rules and structure, and compliant, than their male counterparts (AAUW, 1998; Gurian, 2011). Are males more reserved, particularly those in middle or secondary programs, resulting in the conclusion that some are not "enthusiastic enough?" These judgments (and possible stereotypes) have implications for the assessment tool as well as the "norms" for effective teaching.

The proportion of DIPs on underrepresented candidates is alarming because a priority focus of the school of education at this university is to recruit and, more importantly, retain, under-represented teachers. An evaluation of our dispositions assessment instrument is warranted in terms of cultural and/or racial bias. If we are truly using a developmental approach to dispositions, per-haps there should be more intentional cultivation of the prescribed dispositional behaviors in course work, advising, and field experi-ences. Paradoxically, only 2.1% (2/94) of the cited dispositions deficits (as shown in Figure 1) were related to Theme III: Cultural Responsiveness. Many of our candidates come from white middle class families and attended private and parochial P-12 schools. Preparing teachers who are responsive to issues of equity and

social justice is at the foundation of this teacher education program and the focal point of curriculum and instruction as well as field experiences. Yet, we must come to terms with the underrepresented groups' representation of DIPs and whether our cultural norms are culturally responsive. "Punctuality" may be interpreted differently by different cultures.

These data may be used to inform the education faculty in a number of ways. For example, data may assist in modifications to the current DIP in terms of content and procedure, with a particular emphasis on clarification of assessment items and specificity of the remediation plan. Additionally, faculty can use these data to help in adjusting the admission process, perhaps delaying it for those with dispositional concerns in an effort to prevent unsuccessful program completion. Finally, data can be used to identify proactive means of assisting candidates in developing dispositions identified by the education faculty as necessary for success in teaching.

Recommendations for Future Research

Given the very limited research base on dispositions intervention and remediation (Edwards & Edick, 2006; Jung & Rhodes, 2008), this study contributes to the literature by raising questions as to whether specific descriptors such as candidates' gender, grade level for certification, or ethnicity/race are related to dispositions intervention. Additionally, further research is warranted to determine the reason why candidates with dispositional concerns withdraw from teacher education programs. In the present study, of the 34 candidates with DIPs, 7 (20.59%) withdrew. Perhaps of greatest concern is the population of candidates who are not successful in remediation efforts. This study is limited by its small sample size as well as the scope of the sample—34 candidates in a small, Midwestern, private university. The generalizability of the findings is constrained by its limited population of underrepresented candidates. Yet, this study has provoked a number of significant questions about the possible bias of the assessment instrument, the clarity of the constructs used in the instrument, and the intervention procedures themselves. There are implications for admission

requirements and the timing of admission, in addition to the degree to which schools of education should pursue remediation of problem dispositions. This study may prompt others to take a closer look at the conundrum of dispositions assessment, and specifically, their processes of intervening in dispositional concerns. If dispositions truly make a difference in teacher effectiveness, schools of education must take seriously not only their definition and assessment, but their development and remediation, when needed.

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Figure 1: Dispositions Self-and Institutional Assessment with Frequency of Disposition Areas of Growth as Identified by Disposition Intervention Plans Since 2007

THEME I: Continuous Reflection and Lifelong Learning

 4 1. Seeks opportunities to learn new skills, knowledge of content, and develop professionally

 6 2. Exercises critical thinking and problem-solving skills to generate appropriate solutions

 1 3. Views reflection as integral to the instructional process

 1 4. Values learning beyond minimal expectations

THEME II: Personal Integrity

 1 5. Demonstrates respect, empathy, and caring for others

 2 6. Accepts responsibility for own actions and their consequences

 13 7. Is present, punctual and prepared

 0 8. Maintains integrity, honesty in academic work, and keeps personal and professional confidences

 4 9. Displays steady emotional temperament

THEME III: Cultural Responsiveness

_0_ 10. Demonstrates unbiased, fair, and non-prejudicial treatment of each person

_0_ 11. Demonstrates belief that diversity in the classroom, in school, & in society enhances learning

_0_ 12. Holds high expectations for each student

_2_ 13. Shows willingness to use culturally responsive strategies and non-discriminatory assessment in applying effective instructional strategies

THEME IV: Professional Integrity

_4_ 14. Solicits and values feedback from others and responds to that feedback

_7_ 15. Maintains a professional and engaging demeanor, appearance, and voice

_3_ 16. Values correct grammar in oral and written communication

_0_ 17. Actively and respectfully listens to students, parents, instructors, and colleagues

_3_ 18. Uses respectful and appropriate language with students, parents, and all professionals

_15_ 19. Demonstrates organizational ability by functioning in a proactive and dependable manner

_4_ 20. Demonstrates a positive work ethic through willingness to exceed minimum requirements

_2_ 21. Shows flexibility in dealing with the unexpected and can change plans in response

_3_ 22. Accepts responsibility for following established rules, procedures, policies, course and program

THEME V: Collaboration and Leadership

_11_ 23. Demonstrates effective interpersonal skills (communication, enthusiasm, positive attitude) in working with teachers, parents, and education professionals

_1_ 24. Shares information, ideas, and materials willingly with others

_1_ 25. Seeks to resolve conflict effectively

_3_ 26. Takes initiative in goal setting, prioritizing, and distributing responsibilities to others

_3_ 27. Uses research to develop and/or improve practice

_0_ 28. Coaches and mentors colleagues as appropriate

*Note. This figure represents 42 total Disposition Intervention Plans written on 34 students. Many of these plans cited more than one dispositional area of growth.

Table 1: Comparison of DIPs and Program Enrollment by Grade

Grade Level	Undergraduate (n=706)		Graduate (n=979)	
	Enrollment	DIPs	Enrollment	DIPs
Elementary	58.1%	40.0%	51.1%	25.0%
Middle	15.7%	0.0%	25.7%	53.1%
High	26.2%	60.0%	23.2%	21.9%

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Mentoring: A Unique Opportunity for Liberal Arts Teacher Preparation

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Abstract

In an era of specialization and standardization, what might the liberal arts offer to preservice teachers as they prepare for their participation in a demanding profession? The authors posit that teacher education programs housed in liberal arts institutions can provide rich mentoring opportunities for teacher candidates. While faculty in teacher education programs have traditionally worked closely with teacher candidates, these initiatives can extend learning beyond the required practica and P-12 classroom experiences. As a result of intentional mentoring by education faculty, undergraduates appear to show academic and professional growth, as well as spiritual and personal development. The process through which this has been accomplished in one AILACTE-member college is described and further illustrated with two examples. The authors conclude by offering recommendations for faculty, teacher education programs, and AILACTE institutions.

Keywords: **mentoring, undergraduate research, liberal arts**

The Liberal Arts and Teacher Preparation

How are teachers best prepared? A review of evidence by the National Research Council describes the current context. There are approximately 3.6 million public school elementary and secondary teachers in 90,000 public schools in the United States. More than 200,000 students complete teacher preparation programs each year and "little is known about these teacher candidates except that they are predominantly female and white" (National Research Council, 2010, p. 2). Seventy to eighty percent of aspiring teachers are enrolled in traditional programs at postsecondary institutions. The remaining twenty to thirty percent are in approximately 130 alternate routes (National Research Council, 2010). Interestingly, there is more variation within the traditional and alternative categories than between the categories. Teacher preparation programs are extremely diverse with regard to selectivity, quality, content of requirements, and duration and timing of coursework and fieldwork. An American Educational Research Association panel came to the similar conclusion that there was no superior program structure (e.g., four-year undergraduate programs, fifth-year baccalaureate programs, or alternative programs) for teacher preparation (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005).

Given the paucity of evidence about effective teacher preparation, what is the benefit of a liberal arts teacher preparation program? Due to its inherent values, a liberal arts education should develop students into thinking and problem-solving teachers. In 1963, Dorothy Sayers wrote, "The sole true end of education is simply this: to teach men how to learn for themselves" (p. 176). If this is what we hope for P-12 students, should we not then prepare their teachers with the liberal arts? "Because a liberal arts education represents a quest for truth rather than an information download, it moves us toward the unknown every bit as much as the known" (Davis & Ryken, 2012, p. 35). This notion provides the inquiry stance required for effective lifelong learning. Additionally, if we believe that teaching is both an intellectual and moral practice (Hansen, 2001; Lewis, 2001; Noddings, 1992; 2002; Spears & Loomis, 2009), teaching cannot occur in a moral vacuum:

"Good teaching involves enriching, not impoverishing, students' understandings of self, others, and the world. It means expanding, not contracting, students' knowledge, insights, and interests. It means deepening, not render- ing more shallow, students' ways of thinking and feeling. And it entails paying intellectual and moral attention as a teacher" (Hansen, 2001, p. ix).

In the *Abolition of Man*, C.S. Lewis (2001) conveyed a similar sentiment. "The task of the modern educator is not to cut down jungles but to irrigate deserts" (p. 13). The educator eliminates false sentiments by teaching and embodying just sentiments. This requires teachers to move far beyond an informational transac- tion of content. The primary aim of education should be to grow competent, caring, loving, and lovable people (Noddings, 1992, 2002). This is particularly important in urban public schools and the teaching of "other people's children" (Delpit, 1995). In a semi- nal study of schools in Chicago, Bryk and Schneider (2002), found that student learning outcomes were greatest in schools that created safe learning environments with a broad base of social trust. Strong educators are essential for the development of this social trust.

Spears & Loomis (2009) describe two general arcs in teacher preparation that translate into practice: "(a) practice that is a further descent into a technical model, where teachers are technicians, and (b) practice that moves away from the technical model and ascends toward the education good, where teachers are scholars" (p. 38). In order to avoid a descent into the technical model, teachers must ground their use of effective technical skills in a philosophical foundation that helps both them and their students understand who they are in relation to the world. Spears and Loomis argue that the skill domains of the liberal arts allow teachers to pursue truth when grounded in a proper foundation. These skill domains include *logos* (reason), *metis* (cunning, practical know-how), *arete* (upholding virtue, including justice), *sophia* (the development of wisdom), *phronesis* (habituated good action), and *praxis* (helping to realize individual and community excellences). These skills and virtues

must have a foundation in the structure for a "maximally justified set of beliefs" (Wood, 1998, p. 78). This foundation is necessary for the character development of the teacher as well as protection against the propagation of untrue or ideologically distorted curricula (Smith & Shortt, 2002).

Historically, virtues and the liberal arts have been linked (Holmes, 2001). In order to understand the links among disciplines, theory and practice, and learning and life, a sufficient breadth of learning is necessary. A liberal education provides insight into one's opinions, a grasp of their truth, eloquence in expressing those opinions, and forcefulness in using them (Holmes, 2001). John Henry Newman described this in 1852, and it is still true in the 21st century. A liberal education teaches a person "to see things as they are, to go right to the point, to disentangle a skein of thought, to detect sophistry and discard the irrelevant" (Newman, 1996, p. 126). This type of an education develops the ability to master any subject and understand differing perspectives. Liberal education impacts practice in four overlapping ways: attitudinally, ethically, foundationally, and as a worldview (Holmes, 1987).

In addition to being a moral and intellectual practice, teaching is relational. To that end, how could formal mentoring in a liberal arts teacher preparation program impact teaching and future teachers? From the beginning of liberal arts preparation, teachers have encouraged moral outcomes while embodying virtuous behavior for their students. "They also modeled virtuous behavior themselves, believing, as Homer did, that every teenager needs a mentor, just as Telemachus needed Mentes (the very name from which we derive the word mentor) in order to discover his true identity as the son of Odysseus. Modeling virtue and practicing virtuous habits serve as integral parts to the process of person formation" (Davis & Ryken, 2012, p. 111). Through mentoring relationships grounded in the liberal arts, students can pursue the intellectual virtues through their pursuit of truth. These virtues are developed and demonstrated as students learn how to be intellectually humble, intellectually courageous, display intellectual tenacity, and practice intellectual autonomy (Davis & Ryken, 2012). Moreover, if we believe that

"Good teaching cannot be reduced to technique; good teaching comes from the identity and integrity of the teacher" (p. 10), mentorship provides an ideal opportunity to develop preservice teachers.

Mentoring Overview

Mentoring programs exist in many forms, are based on a wide range of definitions and purposes, and this makes it difficult to generalize descriptions (Jacobi, 1991). They tend to target undergraduate freshmen, particularly students of color (Girves, Zepeda, & Gwathmey, 2005; Wallace, Abel, & Ropers-Huilman, 2000). For example, some universities seek to increase retention rates for freshmen through mentoring, and Nagda, Gregerman, Jonides, Von Hippel, and Lerner (1998) found this emphasis to be warranted. Others focus on the transition and adjustment to life beyond high school by offering formal programs for all incoming freshmen (Ribbe, 2012). These programs often precede the initial freshman semester and may extend throughout the entire first year of college.

Colleges also categorize academic advising as a form of mentoring (Campbell, 2007). Personal and professional mentoring are other forms that appear in both undergraduate and graduate institutions. For instance, through Harvard Assessment Seminars, small groups of students led by a teacher often resulted in their most valued learning experiences (Parks, 2000). Faculty mentoring of undergraduate students tends to center on academic success, which includes academic advising and career counseling (Campbell, 2007). To summarize, "A mentor provides the protégé with knowledge, advice, challenge, counsel, and support in the protégé's pursuit of becoming a full member of a particular profession" (Johnson, 2002, p. 88).

While mentoring programs appear to be prevalent, little research exists on their impact (Johnson & Huwe, 2003), with the notable exception of college retention rates (Nagda et al., 1998). The structure of faculty-to-students mentoring relationships also ranges from formalized to accidental (Campbell, 2007). Schools with lower student-faculty ratios place a higher value on mentoring

(Johnson & Huwe, 2003). This might suggest that smaller, liberal arts colleges, with their lower student-faculty ratios, might also place a greater emphasis on mentoring.

Historically, mentoring has been a traditional ingredient of strong teacher education programs, primarily through close supervision by faculty with students in the various practica. The student teaching experience highlights this, particularly with its intense, one-on-one support over several months. In larger universities, these supervisory roles are often filled by adjuncts. For example, Eastern Kentucky University, one of the largest teacher education programs in the state, hires many student teacher supervisors who work under the guidance of the "Instructors of Record," tenure track faculty (Eastern Kentucky University, 2012). In contrast, data from our institution shows that 76% and 72% of education majors were directly supervised by tenure-track faculty during student teaching in 2010 and 2011.

College Mentoring Initiative

Within this context, a small, Midwestern, Christian, liberal arts college embarked on an initiative to foster faculty-to-student mentoring in 2007. It was designed to extend to undergraduate students "an opportunity to be taught, discipled, and mentored by faculty in ways that go beyond what is possible in the classroom" (Wheaton College, 2008). The Faculty Student Mentoring Initiative (FSMI) was articulated by the Vice Provost in a report to the Board of Trustees:

> "The FSMI program is grounded on the solid premise that the deepest and most transformative types of education occur within the context of genuine, mutual and intentional faculty-student relationships. The goal of FSMI is to support the mission of [The College] by enhancing student academic, spiritual, personal and professional growth through close and sustained interaction with a faculty member" (J. Moshier, personal communication, October 16, 2009).

Subsequently, funds were secured that endowed a new faculty line in the Education Department, providing the coverage for individual faculty to be granted 2-4 hours of release time for mentoring students. As a result of discussions within the Education Department, a mentoring proposal was crafted, revised, and submitted to the vice provost. The proposal summary indicates that through these mentoring relationships, students should be "equipped with knowledge, heart, mind, energy and voice to make a difference in the world of education" (J. Moshier, personal communication, September 21, 2007). This supports the holistic and comprehensive institutional goals of growth in academic, professional, spiritual, and personal areas of students' lives, and it reflects the important questions facing young adults in higher education, including questions of faith (Parks, 2000).

The vehicles for mentoring are research projects, studies, on-site observations, curriculum projects, book studies, and discussion groups. Groups consist of three to thirteen students and form with faculty leadership through common interest in specific questions, and students can take these for no credit or up to two hours of credit per semester. Faculty and students meet together several times each month, usually weekly, and in various locations on and around the campus. Students can elect to earn credit for their participation in a group if they would like this listed on their transcripts. The duration of the individual groups range from one semester to two years. These mentoring groups differ from classes since they are designed to be less formal, more relational, and typically driven by questions that arise from the work of the group.

Prior to this mentoring initiative, faculty within the Education Department had been informally mentoring education students through research groups, summer programs, and independent studies. Since 2008, however, the number of mentoring groups has increased significantly. Several brief examples of mentoring projects include:

- developing an assessment tool for a program preparing minority students for college;
- nurturing student teacher reflection over time;

- analyzing the latest brain research to discern the impact of neuropsychology on teaching strategies;
- qualitatively studying male elementary teachers to learn about unique gender-based challenges they may face;
- reading and discussing interdisciplinary philosophical questions impacting twenty-first century education; and
- collaborating with a program in South Africa to create an HIV/AIDS curriculum.

Mentoring Example: Overseas Student Teaching

Two examples will illustrate how this mentoring model appears to push student learning beyond the classroom in significant ways. One group formed around student interest in overseas student teaching and the possible impact of this experience. For the first year, six freshman and sophomore students enrolled in a foundations course responded to the invitation of the instructor to participate. They researched and discussed the literature on this topic and ultimately created an instrument to survey all alumni who student taught internationally. The group met to discuss findings, assess progress, and determine next steps.

After reviewing other surveys, students concluded that they wished to discern the impact overseas student teaching had on the student teachers that had graduated from the program. With Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval, they collaborated to craft a survey. During the revision process they used their social media skills to locate the 46 alumni international student teachers who were now scattered around the globe. As the academic year ended, the survey was distributed electronically via SurveyMonkey to these same alumni. Over the summer, 44 of the 46 alumni responded to the survey, providing rich data and descriptions of their overseas student teaching experiences.

The second academic year yielded a new team of seven freshman, sophomore, and junior education students as a mentoring group. Weekly breakfast meetings allowed this group to quickly coalesce and pick up where the first-year team concluded. While this group focused primarily on analyzing the data collected

from the survey, the faculty mentor also created space for student sharing and support beyond the research task. This culminated in academic and professional growth, as well as spiritual and personal development, as described by students in their evaluations.

Academically, students gained basic research skills, particularly in conducting literature reviews and analyzing both qualitative and quantitative data. They also presented initial findings at the 2012 AILACTE Conference. As one student stated, "Presenting publically gave me a concrete goal to work toward, which helped motivate my research and analysis. It also gave me a new perspective on the topic." Professionally, those mentored seem to have a more accurate understanding of the cross cultural and curricular challenges of student teaching in international contexts. In one case, this new understanding helped a participant realize that teaching overseas was not a good fit. "This experience has been valuable for me in that it made me realize that I did not want to go overseas to do my student teaching . . . I would prefer to stay around campus so that I can get the support and help I need from the education professors." Spiritually, students were able to be more transparent and share some of their struggles, allowing others to support them in specific ways. A freshman wrote, "This experience has given me a chance to get to know older students who are in my major that I wouldn't have gotten to know before. They've answered so many questions . . ." Finally, personal development was evident in the approach of the students who will be student teaching overseas. A participant planning on student teaching in Latin America said, "This mentorship was very valuable, not only for the insight on research and analyzing data, but also the insight into the overseas student teaching experience. It was very beneficial to read about the experiences of previous student teachers, as I will be going overseas in the fall. They brought up issues and gave insight on these issues that I had not yet even considered."

Mentoring Example: Tracking Graduates

The second example of an effective mentoring team initiative arose from the need to better understand the contexts, experiences,

and perceived effectiveness of our first and second year graduates. In 2010, a team of eight freshmen and sophomore education majors who were interested in learning from graduates several steps ahead of them in their professional path began to examine the literature on teacher preparation and its impact on practice. The team identified exemplary programs from the literature and studied what they were doing. Students met weekly, were required to complete IRB training, and began developing a survey protocol and an interview protocol under the supervision of the faculty mentor. This research project continued into the 2011-2012 school year with seven students remaining on the team plus six additional students who were freshmen and sophomores. Each of the 13 students was responsible for regular contact with 7-10 graduates from 2010 and 2011.

For a number of years, the College's Education Department had been collecting data on first and fifth year graduates through a mail survey. The response rate averaged approximately 40%. The response rate to the survey increased to 96% and 94% in 2010 and 2011 respectively (See Figure 1). This is particularly encouraging because the new survey included nearly three times as many probes. Additionally, students on the mentoring teams conducted, transcribed, and coded 30-90 minute phone interviews with approximately 40% of the 2010 and 2011 graduates.

Students are meant to develop professionally, relationally, spiritually, and academically through the mentoring initiative. This development appears to have occurred on multiple levels. Professionally, students gained a greater understanding of the challenges and opportunities they will face as beginning teachers in a few short years. Relationally, students connected with each other across academic years in ways that they would not have, if not for the mentoring team. For example, several students developed strong connections with their small group of graduates over the two years. Spiritually, students were challenged to make sense of a vocational calling that requires a high degree of engagement with students, families, and colleagues. To that end, the mentoring team supported the graduates through weekly prayer. To facilitate this, the team maintained a Google document of prayer requests from

graduates that could be updated by all members of the team. One student wrote, "It was great having a small group together where we can grow spirituality and pray for each other and our graduates. It was also good to learn how to pray for a specific group of people constantly over the year."

Academically, students learned how to conduct qualitative and quantitative research under the review of the IRB. Another student wrote, "I feel like being on this research team has taught me a lot about working with people. I learned how to ask the right questions and learn in a more professional environment." Students gained insights from graduates about essential elements of preparation through the College's teacher education program. Finally, students had the opportunity to present their research on teacher preparation and their data at the 2012 AILACTE Conference.

The mentoring initiative not only facilitates the development of those involved, but this particular mentoring project improves the work of the Department. The data being collected are valuable for program improvement. Prior to the work of the mentoring team, the primary finding from the Education Department survey was that we did not know what approximately 60% of our graduates were doing as they did not respond to our survey. Now we know from 95% of our past two years of graduates that 68% and 57% believe their preparation was excellent, and 32% and 43% believe their preparation was good for 2010 and 2011 respectively (See Figure 2). More importantly, we have a more granular view of what our graduates are doing and what aspects of our program were most beneficial. We now know where our graduates are teaching, their communities, types of schools, grade levels, subjects taught, obstacles to employment, number of applications filled out, most beneficial preparation classes, least beneficial preparation classes, the benefit of a liberal arts education, their perceived effectiveness, their basis for that perceived effectiveness, and many other data points. This mentoring initiative, which is explicitly designed to address the development of the whole teacher, has also provided evidence of impact and avenues for improvement. In an education policy climate driven by data and evidence-based research, this is valuable information,

but the development of teacher researchers and problem solvers through rigorous inquiry and mentorship is even more compelling evidence of program effectiveness.

Implications

Faculty within liberal arts institutions will recognize that their programs endorse mentoring opportunities. In fact, these types of initiatives often support the mission of the institution. Therefore, education faculty can and should play a lead role in articulating the benefits of mentoring students. This personal investment of re-sources, while not always understood or recognized by promotion and tenure standards, provides significant growth opportunities for students and may also leverage faculty research (Campbell, 2007).

Educational certification programs within liberal arts institutions must find ways to institutionally support mentoring initiatives. Funding limitations may not allow for endowments to support these efforts, so creative approaches may be required. In addition, mentoring initiatives should be flexible enough to allow for a diversity of mentoring groups, reflecting the span of liberal arts and faculty interests and strengths. Prescriptive standardization may restrict rich opportunities and unique projects. At the same time, a clear and reasonable purpose must be established for each mentoring group, particularly in light of the efforts to ascertain the value of such experiences.

As AILACTE institutions, we could use mentoring initiatives to demonstrate our unique opportunities for impacting preservice teachers. By tracking preservice teachers who participated in mentoring initiatives, we can determine impact on their practice, professional leadership, and lives. This could be collected through surveys, interviews, and other data points over time. The power of these data would be significantly enhanced if we could begin to aggregate them across AILACTE institutions. Wider and deeper research into the effectiveness of mentoring is essential.

Mentoring initiatives in liberal arts teacher preparation programs should develop outstanding thinkers and problem solvers who will impact the profession of teaching. With ongoing research, we will

be able to determine the impact of mentoring on our graduates as we mentor future teachers.

Figure 1: First Year Survey Response Rate: 2005-present (mentoring project began in 2010)
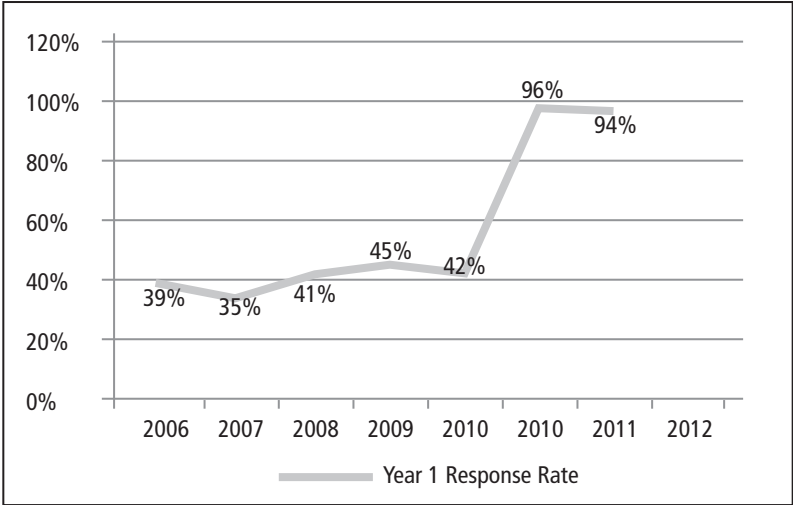
Figure 2: 2010 and 2011 Survey Results: How Would You Rate Your Teacher Preparation Program?
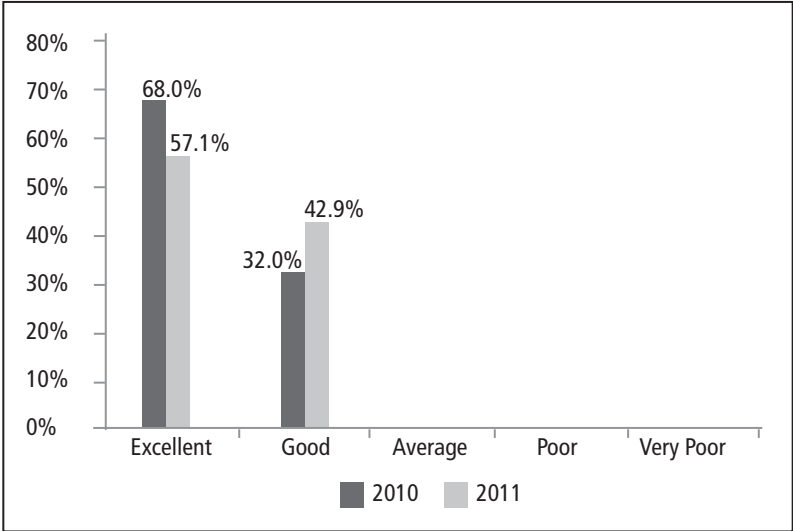
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A Three-Year Journey:
Lessons Learned from Integrating
Teacher Preparation and Urban Studies

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Abstract

This narrative outlines the process of how an independent liberal arts college integrated coursework and learning experiences focused on urban school teacher preparation with an existing university program in Urban Studies. Programmatic changes and additions to teacher education programs at independent liberal arts colleges are often very difficult to implement due to extensive institutional learning goals paired with state licensure requirements. The project described attempted to create a pathway for those teacher candidates planning on teaching in an urban environment to supplement their traditional teacher preparation program. Specifically, this project focused on course development, utilization of liberal arts offerings in Urban Studies, and partnership with local urban school districts for program design and program materialization.

Keywords: **urban studies, teacher preparation, liberal arts**

Introduction

Adjusting teacher education programs at independent liberal arts colleges can many times seem like a monumental task. As we believe that teachers are best prepared in a liberal arts setting, it is becoming increasingly difficult to increase and differentiate new

learning experiences for our candidates. Teacher preparation in the liberal arts environment has been shown as an effective way to develop highly competent teachers (Burgess, 1990; Coleman & DeBey, 2000; Liston, Whitcomb, & Borko, 2009; Morley, Bezuk, & Chiero, 1997; Travers & Sacks, 1989). Even initiatives to move teacher preparation to the graduate level and/or to decrease the amount of professional education coursework, like the Holmes Group movement, recognize the importance of exposing prospective teachers to liberal arts coursework (Holmes Group, 1986). Program adjustment is sometimes mandated through changes in state credentialing or in Specialized Professional Association (SPA) requirements, but other changes—brought about as new research on teacher education is disseminated—are not mandatory but vital, especially if we are to hold true to our commitment of modeling best practice and providing access to the knowledge needed to teach in our nation's schools.

Not only is it often difficult to add to or change teacher education curricula, but the sequence and duration of teacher preparation programming is a sensitive subject. More than four contiguous years of college tends to be a non-option for candidates and their families. Because of tuition costs, the strong social interconnectedness developed at liberal arts colleges, and the predictable hiring schedule for teachers, completing teacher preparation in four years, with a spring graduation, seems to be imperative. This narrative describes a three-year journey, and shares the lessons learned, of a project intended to add knowledge and experiences to teacher candidates' preparation at an independent liberal arts university.

The Context

The context for this project was a four-year independent liberal arts university located in a small city in the Midwestern part of the United States. This university is considered competitive and "education" is one of the largest majors (in both credit hours and student enrollment) on campus. The university is organized by departments and most courses are offered as 4-semester hour experiences. A full-time load for students is 16 semester hours; more

than 19 semester hours is considered an overload and requires increased tuition. Majors and minors are housed and administered within individual departments. The licensing agent and most of the teacher education coursework at the university is generated from the Education Department. The university operates on a semester system, with 130 semester credit hours required for graduation. Over 40% of these semester credit hours, generally 55, are required as part of a strong general education program. In addition, the individual teacher preparation licensure programs average 70 credit hours. Field experiences and clinical practice are a major emphasis of each licensure program, and candidates spend hundreds of clock hours in P-12 schools prior to graduation. Clinical practice requires at a minimum 75% of the total credit hours during the candidates' final semester. Additionally, every candidate is encouraged to spend a semester studying abroad and very little professional education coursework is offered during the summer due to low student population and limited field experience opportunities. Barring significant issues, candidates can complete the education major and teacher licensure in eight semesters, but little flexibility for exploring other disciplines is available.

An enduring strength of the teacher education program at this select university is its commitment to and preparation of teachers for the urban environment. This strength stems from the geographic location in a quasi-urban environment, connections to large urban school districts, a programmatic commitment to sociological foundations of education, and a conceptual framework built around integrating highly competent teachers with strong character into our nation's most at-risk communities. The project described in this article sought to capitalize on these programmatic attributes and existing good practices.

Along with these philosophical underpinnings, the Teacher Education unit's largest and most intimate partner is an urban school district that surrounds the university's campus. This partner school district has an enrollment of more than 7,000 pupils, with more than three-quarters being economically disadvantaged (Ohio Department of Education, 2011). Like many urban school districts,

this partner school district continuously shows low achievement on state standardized test scores (Payne, 2010; Ohio Department of Education, 2011). In 2010-2011, of the 24 areas tested in grades 3-10, not one tested area met the state threshold for proficiency (Ohio Department of Education, 2011). In 2009-2010, only one tested area met the threshold (Ohio Department of Education, 2011). When evaluating district success through value-added growth measures, the partner school district has shown more than expected growth for four straight academic years (Ohio Department of Education, 2011). These data indicate that students in this school district are considerably underprepared to meet the state expectations and that even after multiple years of academic growth within the district, achieving state testing expectations is not a reality. It can be inferred that out-of-school factors in the local community and school district are playing powerful roles in students' preparation for and performance in school (Berliner, 2009). These realities have remained consistent over the past six years and served as the rationale for developing learning experiences for teacher candidates to better understand urban schooling.

The Foundation for Urban Studies

In 2007 the lead researcher wrote a white paper imagining an urban teaching academy where students in the traditional teacher preparation program could select a track that would provide additional learning experiences focused on teaching in urban schools. The goal for this urban teaching academy was to improve the quality of preparation for future urban teachers. The inspiration for this work came from Yale University's master's level intensive program, UCLA's Urban Teacher Residency in its Center X, and the Urban Teacher Academies at the University of Dayton and Montclair State University. This white paper outlined a program to achieve the success of urban teacher preparation at liberal arts colleges similar to what was described by Sconzert, Iazzetto, and Purkey (2000). Specifically, the initial conception focused on a support network and cultural diversity experiences for the preservice teacher through intensive supervision and support by experts

in the field of urban schooling (Sconzert, et al., 2000).

Following the dissemination of the original white paper to key stakeholders, a focus group, led by the lead researcher, was formed with the goal of uncovering the knowledge base to achieve the aforementioned goal. This focus group was made up of seven in-service urban teachers and one in-service non-urban teacher. The non-urban teacher elected to be part of the focus group because of her interest in urban education, even though she was not teaching in an urban environment at the time. The focus group met eight times over the course of two years and engaged in two separate book studies, focusing on *Partnering to Prepare Urban Teachers*, edited by Francine Peterman, and *Urban Teaching: The Essentials*, by Lois Weiner. In addition to running these focus groups, the lead researcher taught a graduate-level course that focused on engaging students in research on what teachers of urban children and adolescents need to know and be able to do.

The major outcome of the focus group, book studies, and the graduate course was an extensive document outlining knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed by urban teachers. This document was compiled, edited, and categorized by the lead researcher but was primarily developed through the wisdom of practice and research from the eight members of the focus group/book studies and the students enrolled in the graduate course. In all, 21 items were identified and defined as part of what an urban teacher should know and be able to do. The 21 items fit within one or more of the following broad categories: 1) knowledge of students, their backgrounds and communities; 2) instructional knowledge and skills; and 3) teacher dispositions and attitudes. Once items were organized into these three areas, the document was shared with a larger group of practicing teachers, members of the university's Teaching Associates group, the university's Education faculty, and with the partner school district's superintendent for final analysis. In addition, these items were examined in light of current research on teaching in urban schools. Items such as understanding culture (Weiner, 2006), being mindful of students' context when teaching (Gay, 2010), addressing student motivation (Adams & Adams,

2003), and teaching with inspiration (Ladson-Billings, 2009; Payne, 2010) are supported by existing research. In addition, items such as understanding nutrition, making decisions about textbooks and resources, and an understanding of crisis prevention were uncovered and are relatively new to the urban teaching literature. The final iteration of these items is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Ideas of What an Effective Urban Teacher Needs to Know and Be Able to Do

KNOWLEDGE OF STUDENTS, THEIR BACKGROUND, AND COMMUNITIES
• An understanding of working with parents/CASA (Court Appointed Special Advocate)/guardians (or working with students who lack parental support or presence) specifically during parent-teacher conferences and outside of the classroom • An understanding of the role nutrition plays in the ability for students to learn • An understanding of the students' family culture and the role it plays in student learning • An understanding of students' motivation (or lack of) and effective instructional techniques to address this *(repeated in "instructional knowledge/skills" section)* • An understanding of the local social service and faith-based network • An understanding of the local community (tour and experience in the neighborhoods) • An understanding of generational poverty • An understanding of the difference between culture and class

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INSTRUCTIONAL KNOWLEDGE/SKILLS

- An understanding of students' motivation (or lack of) and effective instructional techniques to address this *(repeated in "instructional knowledge/skills" section)*

- An understanding of what children can do after school, on their own without parental guidance *(repeated in "teacher dispositions/attitudes" section)*

- An ability to work with students with special needs and an understanding of a diversity of intervention strategies

- The ability to be creative and resourceful *(repeated in "teacher dispositions/ attitudes" section)*

- The ability to effectively assess student learning

- The ability to make educationally sound decisions on textbook selection and curriculum

- An understanding of crisis prevention and intensive behavior interventions

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TEACHER DISPOSITIONS/ATTITUDES

- A kind and loving heart

- The ability to be flexible

- The ability to help students understand that through education, they have the opportunity to change their future for the better (and to get them to value their future and want to improve it)

- An understanding of what children can do after school, on their own without parental guidance *(repeated in "instructional knowledge/skills" section)*

- The ability to be creative and resourceful *(repeated in "instructional knowledge/skills" section)*

- The ability to self-examine own cultural assumptions

- The ability to be an independent thinker and self-reflective (on teaching practices)

- An understanding of (and practice with) mentoring relationships

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**Theoretical Framework and the Initial Design of the
Urban Teacher Track**

With this document serving as the conceptual summary, a team of Teacher Education faculty proposed three new urban education courses, a mentoring framework, specifically tailored field experiences, and a requirement for students to complete one additional preexisting relevant course outside of the Education Department as the first iteration of an urban teaching track. This track had the following learning goals: 1) to gain an understanding of the urban environment and out-of-school factors that affect learning; 2) to gain a commitment to urban children and families; 3) to gain the ability to be creative, efficacious, and self-examining. To ground these structures and goals, the faculty framed its theoretical underpinnings around an active socio-cultural perspective of urban teacher education. Programmatic learning goals and experiences were designed so candidates examined their own beliefs about social and cultural differences in the urban environment and how they affect teaching and learning (Durodoye & Hildreth, 1995). More specifically, these new learning experiences sought to provide candidates with additional knowledge of city institutions and characteristics. The faculty believed "that without a knowledge base that enables conceptualization of the social and political contexts surrounding the schools, beginning teachers will be unlikely to empower their own students to make sense of the impinging world" (Greene, 1989, p. 143). The structure of the proposed program was also grounded in a socio-cultural perspective. As suggested by Howey (2008), urban teacher preparation should begin with general studies, followed by a seamless extension into professional education coursework and induction processes. Howey (2008) suggested, "diversity as value-added is a cornerstone upon which these programs can be built and this core value permeates a socio-cultural framework for teaching and learning" (p. 2). The first iteration of the urban teacher track sought experiences in areas such as urban politics, urban economics, and urban geography, with a transition into coursework and experiences on urban teaching, urban mentoring by a professional in the field, and urban clinical practice.

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The proposed elective track was 14 semester credit hours, with ten of the semester hours also meeting general education requirements. The target population for this track was teacher education candidates who had the desire to improve their preparation to teach in the urban environment. This track was to be completed as a complement to their licensure program but no "minor" designation or credential was attached to this track. No additional tracks existed within the Teacher Education program. This first proposed iteration seemed promising as it addressed many of the items outlined by the focus group/book studies. The designed track exposed candidates to at least one course in other departments and was designed to attach some general education credits to relevant experiences. Unlike the Urban Education Program described by Sconzert, Iazzetto, and Purkey (2000), this first iteration of the urban teaching track was not designed to be a residence program but rather a complement to the existing teacher preparation program and to the geographic positioning and connection to a partner urban school district.

When the first iteration of the urban teaching track was presented, both formally and informally, to the university curriculum-approval committee, some significant concerns were raised. Specifically, non-Teacher Education faculty on this committee believed that this track, even though it was an elective, encouraged students to complete additional hours in the education discipline and could take away from other learning experiences. In addition, questions were raised about the prescription of general education coursework. Though this track was designed so candidates could double-dip track coursework and general education credits, many arts and sciences faculty members believed that the prescribed credits limited choice for coursework with a more global perspective. In addition, the concern was raised that the mentoring framework that was embedded in the track was an uncredited expectation that did not provide equity to students. Finally, there was a concern that without a credential attached to the track, students would not pursue this track to its completion and that could impact students selecting other minors or even other licensure programs.

Each of these concerns raised by the members of the campus community were legitimate and were done with a spirit of concern with the proposed program fitting with the current structure of teacher preparation at this independent liberal arts university.

The Reality: Partnering with Urban Studies

Following the rejection of the proposed first iteration of the urban teaching track, the primary researcher decided to informally talk with key stakeholders at the university for additional ideas. At this time, the university was undergoing a national search for the position of University Provost and the Interim Provost was a member of the university's Urban Studies program faculty. The Urban Studies minor is a 21 semester-hour program that requires an introductory course titled Introduction to the City, 3 other basic urban courses from differing academic disciplines (from a selection of courses with titles such as Urban Politics, Urban and Regional Economics, Urban Geography, Urban History, Urban Sociology, and Urban Life and Social Ethics), a 4-semester hour internship, and a capstone paper. Along with these learning experiences, the Urban Studies minor has the following description:

> The Urban Studies Program fosters student understanding of urban systems and problems, and encourages and emphasizes integrated interdisciplinary approaches to urban studies. The Urban Studies student, in consultation with an Urban Studies adviser, may design the minor to focus upon a particular interest such as public policy, urban planning, or city administration.

During a discussion with the Interim Provost, a decision was made to explore congruency between the existing Urban Studies program (currently an interdisciplinary minor program at the university) and the conceptualized urban teaching track. After further exploration and discussions with Education faculty and Urban Studies faculty, it was evident that the inclusion of urban education study into the existing Urban Studies program was a critical

missing piece of the program. Likewise, the Urban Studies minor would certainly aid in meeting the first learning goal (to gain an understanding of the urban environment and out-of-school factors that affect learning) of the first iteration of the urban teaching track. With this connection there was promise that the aim to better prepare teachers for the urban environment could become a reality through an existing university program. Even with this momentum, all involved realized the existing Urban Studies program did not fully address the other learning goals: a commitment to urban children and families, and the ability to be creative, efficacious, and self-examining. To be truly symbiotic and to achieve all of the learning goals of the first iteration of the urban teaching track, the existing Urban Studies program needed to be adapted.

Luckily, the Urban Studies faculty and the Education Department faculty were committed to exploring change in the Urban Studies minor to gauge a fit with all learning goals of the urban teaching track. The first step was to evaluate the three new urban education courses that were designed for the first iteration of the urban teaching track. It was decided that the missing goals of the urban teaching track could be met through two separate 2-semester hour courses, adapted from the original three proposed courses, and through a specifically designed urban internship. At this point, variations of the proposed courses had been taught within the Education Department as Topics courses. Topics courses at this university are considered non-permanent courses that can be taught for a limited time, without approval from the curriculum approval committee. Every Topics offering of the newly designed urban education courses was considered successful due to positive student evaluations, full enrollment in all three offerings, and a high percentage of students enrolled meeting the specific learning goals from each course. The median class grades in the three offerings of the Topics courses were B+, B, and B, an indication that students had above average achievement in meeting the course learning goals.

From these experiences, two 2-semester courses, titled Survey of Urban Education and Schooling and Exemplary Practices of

Urban Schooling, were proposed to become permanent courses and to fulfill one of the four-semester-hour basic urban courses of the Urban Studies minor. In addition, the Education Department faculty and Urban Studies program faculty agreed to adapt the existing student teaching experience so it could serve not only as the capstone clinical practice for teacher licensure, but would also meet the goals of the Urban Studies program's internship. Specifically, special care in the placement was made so candidates would work in a longitudinal relationship with an urban teacher and would experience before- and after-school urban education programming. Likewise, the Urban Studies capstone paper was redesigned so students who matriculate through the program with the emphasis of urban education would research urban schooling and education and reflect on their identity as a prospective urban teacher. With these adaptations to the Urban Studies minor the goals of the initial urban teaching track were met and the proposed changes were sent to the curriculum approval committee and eventually to the full faculty for approval. After three years of research, curricular proposals, and program adaptations, the full faculty of the university approved the new urban education courses and the changes to the Urban Studies minor to include a pathway through the existing minor for students (including teacher candidates) who want to focus their urban studies on urban education and teaching.

Students interested in the Urban Studies minor with an emphasis in urban education receive an Urban Studies minor, with no further designation other than courses listed on the transcript, that indicates they focused their studies on urban education. This decision was purposefully made to highlight a well-rounded minor, to communicate to potential employing school districts that knowledge and experience were gained outside the traditional urban education knowledge base. In addition, this decision was made to keep fidelity to the theoretical framework of urban teacher preparation, beginning with general studies and following with a seamless extension into professional education coursework (Howey, 2008). It was also decided to encourage non-teacher licensure Urban Studies minor students to pursue the urban education emphasis to hopefully

impact those students pursuing Teach for America or other alternative licensure routes with professional education coursework. Table 2 outlines differences between the approved Urban Studies minor and the Urban Studies minor with an emphasis in urban education.

Table 2: Differences between the Urban Studies Minor and the Urban Studies Minor with an Emphasis in Urban Education

EXISTING URBAN STUDIES MINOR	URBAN STUDIES MINOR WITH AN EMPHASIS IN URBAN EDUCATION
• URBN 171—*Introduction to the City* (4 semester hours) • Basic Urban Course Elective (4 semester hours) • Basic Urban Course Elective (4 semester hours) • Basic Urban Course Elective (4 semester hours) • Urban Internship (4 semester hours) • Capstone Paper (1 semester hour) TOTAL—21 semester hours	• URBN 171—*Introduction to the City* (4 semester hours) • EDUC 206—*Survey of Urban Education and Schooling* (2 semester hours) • EDUC 207—*Exemplary Practices of Urban Schooling* (2 semester hours) • Basic Urban Course Elective (4 semester hours) • Basic Urban Course Elective (4 semester hours) • Urban Internship as part of Student Teaching Experience (4 semester hours) • Capstone Paper focused on Urban Schooling and Teaching (1 semester hour) TOTAL—21 semester hours

Accomplishments and Lessons Learned

Partnering with the Urban Studies faculty and designing supplemental learning experiences allowed the goals of the original white paper to be met. The original white paper called for these experiences to be housed in the Education Department and to be a supplemental pathway to the existing teacher licensure programs. By meeting the urban education learning goals through the existing Urban Studies program, we satisfied many of the concerns raised about the original design of the urban teaching track and accomplished the following:

- Uncredited expectations such as mentoring and field experiences are now embedded in courses.
- Those preparing to be urban teachers are being taught by not only urban educators but also by urban geographers, urban economists, urban sociologists, urban political scientists, and urban ethicists. This interdisciplinary approach of urban study has the potential to positively impact teacher preparation (Grant, 1994).
- A credential—a minor—is now attached to those students pursuing further studies in urban education.
- By developing and requiring the two urban education courses, it limits the amount of general education credit double-dipping.
- The two 2-semester credit courses provide ease in registration (i.e. it is easier for a student to add a 2-semester credit course to a "full" load than it is a 4-semester hour course.)
- The urban internship (approximately 25% of the program) is now embedded in an existing requirement (student teaching).
- Future teachers who are not pursuing the traditional teacher education route have the potential to be positively impacted through professional teacher education coursework.

Outside of these accomplishments, many lessons were learned through this process. First, programmatic design processes are important. This program was designed by a healthy group of practitioners and researchers. The design was not driven by an external accrediting body, and great time and thoughtfulness was used to develop a pathway, one congruent to the original goals developed by personnel most closely connected to the university and Teacher Education program. Fidelity to the original goals was important to the design team, even if the original program design needed to be changed. Likewise, the program design and university approval required perseverance, and campus-wide networking was critical. Secondly, it should be noted that teacher education can and should contribute to the academic programming outside of teacher licensure of our independent liberal arts colleges. The two new urban

education courses are open to the entire student body as general education courses and have the potential to impact future citizens' thinking towards city schools. Third, having a credential at the end is significant. More than one large urban school superintendent has advised this program that a minor in "Urban Studies" along with full teacher licensure would be very desirable for employment. Finally, teacher preparation at independent liberal arts colleges is often a jam-packed program but the essence of these types of colleges and universities is what makes opportunities like this program possible. This program's strength is the great academic diversity and interconnected learning paradigm. It is not an isolated additional program for teacher candidates. In Jonah Lehrer's new book, *Imagine: How Creativity Works*, he describes how "urban friction" is often the genesis of inspiration because in densely populated settings, ideas, discussions, and relationships "keep bumping into each other." Though the term "urban friction" was probably used in multiple contexts during this program design, I can't help but think that successful design of this program and continued success should be attributed to the interconnectedness of the liberal arts.

Next Steps

As of this writing, three teacher candidates have declared an Urban Studies minor with an emphasis on urban education. Those candidates make up less than five percent of the entire teacher candidate population, but make up more than twenty percent of all Urban Studies students. The program faculty has not yet set a target goal for enrollment, but is committed to the identification of promising teacher candidates in foundational education coursework and is primed to sustain a growing program. In addition, the program will be strongly encouraged for non-teacher candidates wishing to pursue Teach for America and other alternative licensure pathways. Recently, the field experience portion of the program was endowed by an emeritus faculty and, with this support; an intensive field experience in a major urban school district will be integrated into the program. The real measure of success for this program will be the placement of teacher candidates in urban

settings displaying the learning goals set forth by these learning experiences. Though the full minor with urban education emphasis has not been in existence long enough to have the first cohort of program completers, two recent teacher education graduates did take the urban education Topics courses and are currently teaching in the Chicago Public Schools and the Cleveland Metropolitan School district, respectively. The lead researcher has visited each teacher's classroom for conversations on preparation for teaching in an urban environment. To measure success with future graduates, the faculty will administer a specially designed post-graduate survey, and make site visits when possible. These data collection opportunities will focus on how completers' understanding of the urban environment, commitment to urban children and families, and ability to be creative, efficacious, and self-examining have positively impacted their students' learning and development.

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Infusing Arts-Integrated Learning into Preservice Teacher Education

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Abstract

Although strong arguments espousing the accolades of arts involvement are evident, the visual and performing arts continue to be underfunded and underused in K-12 schooling and teacher preparation. Valiant efforts from arts advocates have made inroads to reverse this negative trend, yet policies and practices that reflect a commitment to "arts for all" are minimal. To ensure that the intrinsic and extrinsic values of the arts are placed at the forefront of development of our future citizens, it is time to shift the current paradigm by positioning arts-integrated learning within all teacher education programs. Therefore, this review of the literature will address the role of arts-integrated learning in teacher education and the impact arts-integrated learning will have on teacher education policy and practice.

Keywords: **arts-integrated learning, teacher preparation**

The Reverend Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. (1968) once said, "The time is always right to do what is right" (http://www.gphistorical.org/mlk/mlkspeech/index.htm). In teacher education, now more than ever, arts-integrated learning is essential. Preparing 21st century educators who are tasked with a myriad of responsibilities for developing future citizens requires a rich and comprehensive

curriculum. Moreover, creative and critical thinking are essential attributes of highly effective educators and must be incorporated into each and every course through teacher training (Darling-Hammond, 2010). As such, the visual and performing arts are natural vehicles for developing these skills.

Despite the fact that scholars and educators have presented strong arguments espousing the accolades of arts involvement, the visual and performing arts continue to be underfunded and lack attention in K-12 schooling and teacher education. Although valiant efforts from arts organizations and advocates have made inroads to reverse this negative trend, institutional policies and practices that truly reflect a commitment to "arts for all" are minimal. To ensure that the intrinsic and extrinsic values of the arts are placed at the forefront of development of our future citizens, it is time to rethink teacher education by positioning arts-integrated learning directly within all teacher education programs. As such, this review of literature poses the following questions:

- Why should arts-integrated learning play a critical role in preservice teacher education?
- What types of art-integrated learning are implemented into preservice teacher education programs?
- What impact will arts-integrated learning have on teacher education policy and practice?

Fostering Creative and Critical Thinking

The ever present social, economic, and environmental challenges our world faces today place a strong demand on the need for critical, analytical, and disciplined problem solvers (Cornett, 1999; Longley, 1999). In what has been labeled as the post-Industrial (or Information) Age, small businesses, large corporations, governmental agencies, and nonprofit organizations rely upon people who can "see the big picture," "think outside the box," and bring varied perspectives together to solve a problem (Driscoll, 2003). More directly, Harvard Business School professor John Kao (1996) states, "This is the age of creativity because the subtext of global competitions is increasingly about a nation's ability to mobilize its ideas,

talents, and creative organizations." (p. 16). Noted author, Daniel Pink (2005), envisions our society in transition and labels this as the "Conceptual Age." With an emphasis on the ability to synthesize information holistically and solve problems creatively, Pink argues that the future is dependent upon those who can use the right-brain (or as Pink identifies, "R-directed" thinking) effectively. Stated another way, daily living requires creativity and empathy.

According to noted scholars and advocates, educational programs emphasizing the visual and performing arts provide powerful learning experiences (Burnaford, Aprill, & Weiss, 2000; Consortium of National Arts Education Associations, 2002; Wolf & Balick, 1999). Similarly, arts education studies have shown that involvement in the visual and performing arts benefits youth in a variety of ways. Critical and creative thinking, collaboration and problem solving, along with attention to detail and persistence are some of the areas positively affected by arts involvement (Eisner & Day, 2004; Housen, 2002; Longley, 1999).

When examining the impact of arts learning for students living in poverty, several arts-based studies amply illustrate positive educational outcomes for marginalized youth (Catterall, Chapleau, & Iwanga, 1999; Stevenson & Deasy, 2005). Through her theoretical framework designed to enhance learning for underserved students, Lee (2007) advocates for using music as part of a cultural data set to draw upon background knowledge and experience, while Ladson-Billings (2001) and Gay (2010) share explicit examples of teachers using drama, music, and art to foster rich connections between students and the curriculum. Likewise, when examining the influence of arts integration on student achievement, Ingram and Seashore (2003) uncovered examples where the "relationship between arts integration and student achievement was more powerful for disadvantaged learners" (pp. 3-4).

Although the evidence from arts education research presents a compelling rationale for arts-integrated learning, arts education experiences in most cases are relegated to privileged learners from affluent communities who excel at school. A National Center for Educational Statistics (2002) study illustrates this point. When

comparing high-poverty schools to low-poverty schools, vast discrepancies in arts education funding, curriculum, and staffing related to minority enrollment and poverty concentration are evident. With the implementation of No Child Left Behind along with other state and district benchmark mandates, arts access for students who struggle academically is further exacerbated. Learners who do not pass state-mandated exams are often excluded from arts electives in favor of remedial courses in reading and math (Woodworth, et al., 2007). These disparities contribute to an inequitable educational experience for many youth.

Uncovering the Arts in Liberal Arts

The goals of many liberal arts programs include providing opportunities to develop creativity, challenge ideology, and engage in cultural expression as critical elements for all students. As such, the visual and performing arts are cited as the perfect vehicle for promoting these ideals as well as the development of visual literacy, aural literacy, and self confidence (Little, D., Felton, P., & Berry, C., 2010; Oxtoby, 2012; Vendler, 2010). Unfortunately, creative expression and arts-based learning in higher education is often limited to specialized arts majors. To advocate another perspective David Oxtoby (2012), president of Pomona College, believes that the visual and performing arts have lifelong benefits for every college student and should be effectively integrated into the 21st century liberal arts core curriculum. Like Oxtoby, Vendler (2010) advocates for placing the arts in a central position, rather than a marginalized fringe, of humanistic study. Her argument stems from an understanding that all learning is directly linked to the visual and performing arts. Because teacher candidates must confront a variety of tasks necessitating creative and adaptive thinking in an era focused on standards and high-stakes testing, learning about, engaging with, and infusing arts-integrated learning into teacher preparation aligns directly with the ideals of a liberal arts education.

Teacher Education and the Arts

Like young learners, future teachers must also receive rigorous and multi-faceted preparation. Linda Darling-Hammond (2010) believes that the complex task of teacher preparation must include several critical components. Coupled with a strong knowledge of human development in social contexts, subject matter and curriculum goals, and most importantly learners, "habits of mind" tools such as creative thinking, problem-solving, and reflective practice are imbedded in her conceptual framework. Additionally, effective programs ensure a wide range of strategies in every teacher's toolkit combined with the knowledge of when and how to use each technique. Arts-integrated approaches to learning should be an explicit part of this repertoire.

Most teacher preparation programs include some type of arts requirement designed to foster knowledge in arts pedagogy. However, a one-unit course or one-day seminar is likely to provide only a brief overview and few strategies for effective implementation. In California, for example, prospective elementary school teachers working toward a multiple subject credential receive introductory coursework in visual and performing arts instruction (Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2009). Non-arts candidates who plan to teach middle and high school have no arts requirements to complete for credentialing. Sadly, this legislation was in place when the current cadre of educators received their certification. As a result, young learners today have teachers who have little or no exposure to arts education. The impact of this may be far-reaching.

In liberal arts colleges, the creative and performing arts are evident. However, the lack of communication between content instructors and methods instructors may create a gap in learning for teacher candidates (Brantley-Diaz, Calandra, Harmon, and Shoffner, 2006). For example, the skills and knowledge obtained in an art or music class and those needed for application in a K-12 setting are not always easily transferred. To ameliorate this disparity, teacher education programs must use creative approaches to ensure that candidates have access to both theory and practice in all content areas.

Arts-Integrated Learning for Preservice Teachers

Through an examination of the literature related to arts-integrated learning, four studies designed to specifically infuse the visual and performing arts into a teacher preparation program were uncovered. Exploring the impact and outcomes emanating from a specialized short-term program designed for preservice teacher candidates, the Higher Education Arts and School (HEARTS) project (Davies, 2009) and the Cycles of Inquiry project (Berghoff, Borgmann, and Parr, 2003) used an intensive workshop model to promote arts-integrated learning. Taking a different approach, Mello (2004) and Donahue and Stuart (2006) embedded arts-integrated curriculum into their existing teacher preparation coursework and conducted studies to discover the influence of arts-integrated learning on teacher candidate preparation.

The Higher Education Arts and School (HEARTS) project (Davies, 2009) was designed to increase arts experiences for student teachers working with primary pupils in England. To determine the impact of the project on student teacher confidence, understanding, and advocacy of arts in primary education, this case study examined qualitative and quantitative data collected from 210 student teachers. During a week-long arts workshop experience, student teachers participated in creative and critical thinking experiences through activities presented by university tutors, a children's theatre group, and nine museums. The interdisciplinary experience promoted connections between culture, history, dance, drama, music, and visual art. Survey, interview, and observation data were collected throughout the project. Davies (2009) concluded that the collaborative partnership experience contributed to positive outcomes. As a result of this experience, teacher confidence with integrated arts learning and understanding of its value was strengthened.

Similarly, Berghoff, Borgmann, and Parr (2003) developed and implemented a two-week interdisciplinary arts institute for preservice teachers over a five-year period. A literacy educator, visual arts educator, and music educator collaborated as a trio to demonstrate the power of an arts-infused curriculum to their teacher

candidates. Drawing upon semiotic theory, these scholars contend that meaning derived from signs (e.g. visual, auditory, kinesthetic) fosters multiple possibilities for interpretation rather than a fixed one-to-one correspondence. In this way, meaningful learning is situated through multiple possibilities of interpretation of a sign. Because signs are evident in language/literature, music, and visual art the team created a "cycles of inquiry" approach to various units of learning. Using collegial collaboration and arts integration (including music, painting, and literature) during a cross-disciplinary unit on slavery in the U.S. as a pedagogical model, teacher candidates were guided through dialogue, reflection, and critique to examine prior knowledge, create new meaning, and deepen understanding. As a result of this experience, Berghoff, Beorgmann, and Parr believe that arts-integrated learning can positively transform teacher thinking and practice.

To examine the impact of arts-infused learning on preservice teacher candidates, Mello (2004) infused a variety of theatre, music, dance, and visual arts experiences into credential coursework. Her goal was to strengthen understanding, build knowledge, and increase skills. Findings from collected data (including surveys, interviews, student work, reflections, and other analyses) during a three-year period indicate that the anxiety and stress her undergraduate teacher education candidates exhibited at the beginning of the credential program were dramatically decreased when storytelling, painting, dance, and puppetry were embedded in the learning process. As confidence increased, candidates felt better prepared to enter the next phase of their teacher preparation program. Mello, an artist herself, believes that teacher education programs should infuse the visual and performing arts into credential coursework early on to foster candidate "creativity and flexibility in more substantive ways" (p. 158).

Likewise, Donahue and Stuart (2008) examined the outcomes of an arts-integrated curriculum embedded within a secondary English and social studies methods course. As teacher educators, Donahue (English and social studies) and Stuart (arts education) are dedicated to using arts-integrated learning as an essential com-

ponent of secondary school teacher preparation. In their curriculum and instruction course, they model explicit behaviors and instructional strategies for arts-integrated learning. Their hope is that teacher candidates will replicate a balanced approach (i.e. making and analyzing art) in their field placements with middle school and high school students. Through a detailed lesson plan analysis, they sought to explore the thinking teacher candidates use to develop integrated arts lessons. Findings from their study indicate that personal beliefs and prior experiences contribute to a candidate's ability to integrate arts learning into another content area. Moreover, these educators recommend continued professional development and strategic field placements to foster authentic and effective arts-integrated learning. Conclusions suggest that this program reflects a snapshot of possibilities for specific arts-integrated learning within teacher education coursework.

With the realities of standardized testing, literacy and mathematics emphasis and economic challenges pressing upon all educators these teacher educators took a decidedly creative approach to address a clearly identified gap in arts education. Although challenges associated with time, resources, and beliefs were evident their commitment to arts-integration in teacher preparation coursework remains steadfast. As dedicated scholars, they examined current practices and developed strategies for infusing arts-integrated learning into the specific context of their preservice teacher education.

Arts-Integrated Learning in Middle Level Schools
Elementary and secondary teachers believe the arts are a powerful vehicle for learning and will benefit all students (Rabkin, 2004; Stevenson & Deasy, 2005). More specifically, middle school teachers (language arts, math, science, and history/social science) from a recent study on interdisciplinary arts education demonstrated that they embrace arts-integrated learning (Lorimer, 2007). Although many demands permeate their work, many expressed a willingness to take risks or to try something new. Some worked diligently to marshal resources and others (although pressured by district bench-

marks and test scores) continue to infuse an arts project into each learning unit. The strategies they used came from their own investigation. It is important to note, none of the participants received explicit arts education instruction during their teacher preparation program. More importantly, many suggested that additional training would be helpful.

Arts-Integrated Learning in Teacher Preparation Coursework

Although accountability standards may prevent some teacher preparation programs from even considering arts-integrated learning, infusing the visual and performing arts into preservice teacher education coursework offers valuable rewards. Confidence, creativity, critical thinking, and pedagogical skill development are just a few examples of the positive outcomes emanating from arts-integrated learning during teacher preparation (Berghoff, Borgmann, & Parr, 2003; Davies, 2009; Donohue & Stuart, 2008; Mello, 2004). However, to foster effective implementation of arts learning in the classroom, several factors linking teacher efficacy and arts learning have been identified. Creating positive learning experiences with the arts, decreasing anxiety through confidence building opportunities, and providing a plethora of new ideas for arts learning are essential precursors to effective arts education (Garvis, 2009). Moreover, specific guidance for curriculum integration and the development of rich units of learning inclusive of the arts will enhance the success of arts-integrated learning in the classroom (Davies, 2009; Donohue & Stuart, 2008).

Visual thinking skills (Housen, 2002), reader's theatre (Martinez, Roser, & Strecker, 1998/1999) and dance are examples of arts-infused learning that have been effectively embedded in the teacher education courses at one liberal arts university. Teacher candidates engage in a structured viewing of art prints, illustrations, or photographs related to themes presented in the course. For example, students in foundations courses examine photographs by Dorothea Lange to activate critical thinking about the historical, social, and cultural factors influencing education. Through guided inquiry, students describe what they see and pose critical questions

which segue to grand conversation and thoughtful reflection. To foster and reinforce the importance of using varied approaches to literacy development, reader's theatre is modeled and practiced using prepared scripts followed by the collaborative creation of an original script. In methods coursework, dances from other cultures are presented and practiced to uncover the interconnectedness of a global society. Through these experiences, candidates deepen their understanding of key concepts and acquire valuable instructional strategies. In every case, transparent modeling is designed to reflect effective arts-infused pedagogy that can be replicated in any classroom.

Candidates are reminded that maintaining the integrity of each discipline during an arts-integrated learning experience is essential. The vocabulary, tools, and processes of each discipline are critical attributes of effective arts-infused learning (Mishook & Kornhaber, 2006). Without this aim and understanding, an interdisciplinary learning experience becomes a superficial occurrence (e.g. a bit of art and a bit of science) also known as "subservient integration" (Bresler, 1995). As such, each arts-integrated lesson attends to the arts elements embedded within visual art, theatre, music, and dance.

Following arts-infused lessons, teacher candidates have shared positive feedback about these experiences. They appreciated learning how to integrate the visual and performing arts with history/social studies, science, literacy, or math. Many stated that they felt engaged, enjoyed collaborating with classmates, and gained new appreciation for and understanding of the visual and performing arts. One student summarized the feelings of her classmates when she said that she was able to learn by doing.

The evidence from a literature review of preservice teacher credential programs with explicit use of arts-integrated learning suggests that regardless of grade level (primary or secondary), location (national or international), or approach (intensive workshop or imbedded curriculum) arts-integrated practices evoke positive outcomes.

Taking Action

For teacher education programs within a liberal arts context, including arts-integrated learning into credential coursework is quite feasible. As recommended by Brantley-Diaz, Calandra, Harmon, and Shoffner (2006), beginning with a conversation between content specialists and teacher education faculty is an excellent first step. This collegial dialogue could uncover powerful links between course objectives and arts-integrated pedagogy. For example, candidates in foundations coursework often take a course in the history of education. Faculty from the theatre department could offer suggestions for dramatization of key events or educational philosophies. Likewise, art faculty can collaborate with methods faculty to design lessons and assignments that enable candidates to provide a visual representation of a learning theory. Music and dance faculty can also recommend valuable arts-integrated lesson ideas that effectively enhance learning about literacy, science, math, and history/social science standards. Through cross-disciplinary discourse, training, and resources teacher education faculty and content faculty can create an effective arts-integrated program while building collegial partnerships. In the end, teacher candidates gain a repertoire of instructional strategies that effectively blend theory and practice through the visual and performing arts.

Implications

Noted management philosopher Peter F. Drucker stated, "We now accept the fact that learning is a lifelong process of keeping abreast of change. And the most pressing task is to teach people how to learn" (Drucker, 2009, cover). For teacher education the development of creative thinking, problem solving, and reflective practice skills in preservice teachers is situated at the core of Drucker's goal for twenty-first century learners. With an increasingly diverse student population requiring instruction that includes complex concepts and higher order thinking, placing the visual and performing arts in full view during teacher preparation exemplifies using research-based practices to improve education and impact society. However, the implementation of this philosophy is

contingent upon the support of many educational stakeholders. As president of a liberal arts college, Oxtoby (2012) argues for the inclusion of the arts in a liberal education by stating "their angularity helps challenge our campuses and push boundaries" (p. 39). In a liberal arts education, teacher education, or K-12 education the arts offer a multitude of pathways beyond traditional school measures for all learners to show what they know (Cornett, 1999).

Preparing highly qualified teachers requires a plethora of resources. Considering the multitude of requirements and expectations facing every teacher educator, exploring arts-integrated learning as a vehicle for enhancing pedagogy and pedagogical tools that go beyond delivery and recall may spark new thinking about teaching future educators how to learn. In essence, preparing future citizens living in an interdependent global society with the ability to effectively address local, national, and world issues requires creative problem solving. Arts-integrated learning in teacher preparation within a liberal arts program offers an excellent opportunity to provide explicit tools for teaching that build creative and critical thinking "habits of mind," and imbue the joy of learning. With multiple benefits to teacher preparation, future teachers, and ultimately 21st century learners, it's time to shift the current paradigm.

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