

Partnerships in Tension:
An Activity Theory Analysis of the University-School Relationship in Three Teacher Education
Programs

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Abstract

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Programs

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The relationship between teacher education programs and the K-12 school system seems naturally interdependent: schools benefit from quality teachers and teacher education programs are designed to prepare teachers for schools. This relationship also impacts the learning to teach process as schools provide opportunities for preservice teachers to enact theories presented in preparation programs and engage in clinical practice. The benefits of a collaborative relationship between teacher preparation programs and schools are well documented in the literature. A report by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education Blue Ribbon Panel (2010) calls for clinical practice to reside at the center of all teacher preparation efforts and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education Clinical Practice Commission (2018) highlights the value of embedding teacher preparation in the PK-12 setting, noting that “clinical

practice is central to high-quality teacher preparation” (p. 13). However, extensive research points to a gap between the university and the K-12 school system. Indeed, the university-school divide continues to be a perennial problem faced by college- and university-based teacher education programs (Cochran-Smith, 2008; Feiman-Nemser & Buchman, 1985; Fullan et al., 1998; Smagorinsky, Cook, & Johnson, 2003). The nature of this problem is particularly puzzling, as ostensibly teacher education programs and K-12 schools have common goals, shared understandings and joint interests, nonetheless, scholarship demonstrates that the tensions between the two systems are historically rooted, multifaceted, and persistent (Martin, Snow, & Franklin-Torrez, 2011; Murrell, 1998; Zeichner, 2007, 2010). Building on this body of literature, this qualitative multicase dissertation investigates the university-school relationship in three teacher education programs, each representing a positive exemplar of a class of similar programs offered across the country: a Master’s in Teaching program, an early entry “alternative route” program, and a teacher residency program. The purpose of this research is to analyze the university-school relationship culturally, historically and institutionally and examine the impact organizational structures have on the university-school relationship. Cultural-historical activity theory in general and the third generation of activity theory in particular provide a comprehensive framework for generating and interpreting data. Data for this study include documents pertaining to the university-school relationship in each program, observational field notes and interviews from 43 participants involved in the university-school partnerships. The cross-case analysis on the university-school relationship in teacher education revealed three major findings: first, the problem of competing motives, priorities and objects was found across all cases of partnerships; second, differences in organizational structures afforded and constrained how the partnerships engaged the commonly found problem; and third, opportunities

for collaboration and program learning varied across the cases and were shaped by the organization of the decision making processes. The value of this research is twofold. On the one hand, the findings may be used to inform programmatic decisions in teacher education. On the other hand, this study provides several implications for teacher education policy.

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Acknowledgements

When I completed the first grade, my grandmother gifted me a large candy bar and proudly exclaimed, “учиться, учиться и учиться!”, quoting a well-known phrase by Vladimir Lenin which loosely translates to “learn, learn, and keep learning!”. She bought me a candy bar and repeated this phrase at the end of every school year, even after I graduated college. My grandmother was not a Leninist. Far from it, she was a Tolstoyan and a Doukhobor (Духобор). In fact, my family fled the former Soviet Union, escaping political and religious persecution, and arrived in the United States as refugees. Still, my grandmother’s belief in the value and power of education - a principle shared across generations – instilled in me a responsibility to pursue knowledge and led me to today and this dissertation.

I am indebted to many people whose support, ideas, and encouragement made this dissertation possible. I am grateful to my dissertation committee members. To my academic advisor Cap Peck, who has shaped my identity as a scholar, guided my academic journey with patience and grace, and whose steadfast and unrelenting belief in the importance of my work afforded me the support to see this project through – thank you. To Ken Zeichner, who provided unparalleled expertise in teacher education and has led the field toward social justice – thank you. To Jane West, who made an exception by joining a dissertation committee and offered invaluable feedback on education policy – thank you. And to Kirsten Foot, who expanded my understanding of cultural-historical activity theory and whose work in collaboration scholarship has been my model for the kind of researcher I should become – thank you.

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My grandmother died before I finished this dissertation. She was unable to present me with a large candy bar for this final stage of my education. However, in her memory and in honor of my family, I will continue to teach and to learn.

Dedication

Для Лили и ее сына.

For Lilya and her son

Chapter 1: Introduction

“The necessary joining of K-12 and university cultures brings with it virtually every problem documented in the literature of educational change. Yet it is a long-overdue effort that is here to stay. There is likely to be no turning back as what is now more talk than action becomes a common feature of the teacher education enterprise.”

(John I. Goodlad, *School-University Partnerships and Partner Schools*, 1993)

The prognostication for the teacher education enterprise offered by John Goodlad nearly three-decades ago rings true today: the joining of K-12 and university organizations has become a common feature in teacher preparation programs across the country. However, the problems, old and new, brought forth by university-school partnerships continue to disturb the field of teacher education. In this dissertation, I draw on the historical relationship between schools and teacher preparation and investigate the resonant phenomenon of the highly complex and profoundly necessary relationship between K-12 schools and teacher education programs.

This dissertation is about the collective activity of preparing teachers. More precisely, this is a multicase qualitative inquiry that seeks to examine the university-school relationship in teacher education from an organizational perspective. This study builds on the university-school partnership research and draws on theories of organization to understand the multifaceted and evolving actions oriented toward the work of teacher preparation within and between organizations. Additionally, this inquiry is informed by the shifting priorities in teacher education policy and the varied landscape of teacher preparation programs. To this end, I examine three differently structured teacher education programs, partner schools, and relevant organizations and develop three cases of university-school partnerships. In this research my unit

of analysis is the joint activity or practice of teacher preparation and my investigation focuses on how organizational policies, structures and ideas afford and constrain systemic development. In subsequent chapters I present a literature review, my theoretical framework and methodology, three case analyses, a cross case analysis and discuss the implications of my findings. In this chapter I will outline the context for the study, state the formal research focus and provide a dissertation outline.

This qualitative, multicase study examines the evolving university-school relationship institutionally, historically and culturally and investigates the affordances and constraints that organizational structures and policies have on the university-school relationship. In this dissertation, I investigate the university-school relationship in three teacher education programs, each representing a positive exemplar of a class of similar programs offered across the country: a Masters in Teaching program, an early entry “alternative route” program, and a Teacher Residency program. This study generates hypotheses on how the organization of teacher education programs affects partnerships and the learning to teach process. The study is not intended to be a program evaluation. Rather, the purpose is to better understand the ways in which organizational characteristics of teacher education programs and school systems affect the collaborative work of preparing teachers.

Research Questions

The following two research questions guided my investigation.

- How is the university-school relationship conceptualized and enacted in differently organized models for teacher education?
- How do organizational policies, practices and characteristics afford or constrain opportunities to develop the university-school relationship in teacher education?

Outline of Dissertation

This dissertation is organized into eight chapters. In Chapter Two, I review the extant literature on the university-school relationship in teacher education and provide an overview of the policy trends affecting teacher education programs. In Chapter Three, I share my theoretical framework and research methodology and describe my data collection and analysis strategies. In Chapters Four, Five, and Six I present the three cases of this study. Each of these case chapters is organized similarly. First, I provide an overview of the teacher preparation program, partner school and relevant organizations that make up the case. Next I draw on activity theory to analyze the involved systems. Finally, I present an activity systems analysis of the relationship between the organizations. In Chapter Seven I conduct a cross-case analysis to “deepen understanding and explanation” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 173) of the university-school phenomenon and describe themes as they emerged in the data. Finally, in Chapter Eight, I note the limitations of the study, consider what the findings indicate for organizational learning and expansion, and conclude with a discussion about the dissertation’s implications for teacher education programs, researchers, policy makers and practitioners.

Chapter 2: Review of The Literature

In this chapter I provide a critical review of the literature on the relationship between teacher preparation programs and K-12 schools. The chapter is divided into two main sections. The first section highlights research on the university-school divide in teacher preparation, identifies the problems motivating this study, and examines the existing scholarship around addressing the university-school divide by focusing on two examples germane to this study: “Centers of Pedagogy” and “Professional Development Schools”. The second section of the literature review provides historical context for the varied landscape of teacher education programs and considers the policy-driven evolution of the teacher preparation field.

The University-School Divide

The university and P-12 school systems are interconnected and interdependent (Goodlad, 1988, 1990a; Hathaway, 1985) and share the challenge of developing quality teachers (Goodlad, 1991; Holmes Group, 1995). Collaboration between teacher educators, mentor and cooperating teachers, teacher coaches, and other members of the teacher preparation community as they jointly guide the development of pre-service teachers is generally accepted to be valuable - at least conceptually - by the field of teacher education (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Zeichner, 2010). However, effective collaboration across organizations requires bridging several divides, for example, between professional knowledge and skilled practice, between universities and P-12 schools, and between the settings in which prospective teachers learn and the contexts of their early years of teaching (Grossman, 2010). Misalignments and disconnects between the content of teaching-and-learning, as provided by the teacher preparation programs, and the practice or enactment of teaching, as it takes place in the K-12 schools, typically result in pre-service

teachers struggling to connect their theory and practice experiences (Goodlad, 1990b; Korthagen & Kessels, 1999; Shulman, 1998).

For example, research indicates that university professors in teacher education programs tend to focus on deepening content knowledge and helping teacher candidates develop their underlying philosophical approach to teaching while the school-based participants in programs, such as mentor teachers, often emphasize immediate and practical applications oriented toward improving K-12 student outcomes (Marlow & Nass-Fukal 2000; Peters 2002). In a different study, focusing on the relationships between teacher education program faculty, preservice teachers and mentor teachers, Johnston et al. (2002) found that while all participants shared a “unanimous agreement in their general perspectives and orientation to students” (p. 28), many of the ideologies and professional standards that were being promoted at the university level were inconsistent with what preservice teachers experienced in practice. Overall, research indicates that mismatches in the sets of goals and priorities between organizations and participants can harm the university-school relationship and jeopardize the quality of teacher preparation (e.g. Ballantyne & Packer, 2004; Grundy, Robison, & Tomazos, 2001; Shinnars 2001; Teitel, 1997; Zeichner & Conklin, 2005; Zeichner, 2012).

Clearly, the university-school relationship is consequential for the preparation of teachers. As such, the field of teacher education has undertaken numerous development efforts aimed at examining and improving this relationship. Lines of research include investigating student teaching with an ecological approach (Valencia, Martin, Place, & Grossman, 2009), studying the process of student teaching placement and mentor teacher matching (St. John et al., 2018), and developing practice-based models for teacher preparation (Darling-Hammond, 2006;

Zeichner, 2010, 2012). Several of the prominent undertakings are discussed in the following sections.

Centers of Pedagogy. The National Network for Educational Renewal (NNER), established in 1987 by John Goodlad and his colleagues, was created to support school-university partnerships as part of a strategy to stimulate the simultaneous renewal of schools and the education of educators (R. Soder, personal communication, February 17, 2018). At inception, NNER consisted of school-university partnerships bound together to facilitate conversations about a common agenda of school and teacher education renewal (Smith, 1999). NNER also provided the opportunity for the creation of Centers of Pedagogy, a prototype for embracing the renewal of both schools and university programs for the education of educators (Goodlad, 1994). According to Goodlad (1994), the intent of a Center of Pedagogy is to:

Bring together into a single faculty a sufficient number of the three groups of actors requisite to developing coherent preparation programs. A center of pedagogy, whether located organizationally inside or outside of a [school, college or department of education] SCDE, is characterized by all the conditions necessary to its healthy functioning – conditions comparable to those in professional schools or institutes. (p. 113)

Centers of Pedagogy were places designed for faculty from arts and sciences, education and the public schools to have equal parts in collaborating on the work of building curriculum, field experiences and the structures that produce good teachers. Simply put, a center of pedagogy is “a place where the three primary groups of teacher educators collaborate in the work of building curriculum, field experiences, and the structures that produce good teachers” (S. Goodlad, Mantle-Bromley, & J. Goodlad, 2004, p.116).

Presently, Centers of Pedagogy exist in several teacher education programs including Montclair State University and Brigham Young University (Patterson, Michelli, & Pacheco, 1999). Yet, the literature on the efficacy of Centers of Pedagogy in improving the university-school partnership has yet to reach a consensus. For example, researchers at Brigham Young University conducted a qualitative study on the efficacy and sustainability of BYU's Center of Pedagogy four-years after its inception. The purpose of the year-long study was to evaluate BYU's Centers of Pedagogy elementary partnership program. Data sources included interviews with university elementary faculty, field supervisors, and cooperating teachers. In addition to interviews, the research team distributed a survey to faculty seeking more information about sources of pleasure in their work, conceptions of teacher education, and program concerns and issues. The study found that soon after the phase of "initial euphoria", the partnership's complexities and cost became apparent. The data also demonstrate that, while BYU faculty were willing, even eager, to undertake serious program revision; however, they grew increasingly frustrated with "role ambiguity and growing expectations of faculty" (Bullough et al., 1999, p. 388). Zeichner (2010) raises the additional concerns that while the Centers create a "more neutral space" for members of the teacher education community to collaborate, boundaries between the involved organizations remain rigid, "it appears to me as an observer from the outside that the universities and schools in these partnerships have maintained their separate cultures and unique forms of discourse and that the institutional aspect of the renewal process has been limited" (p. 92). Other researchers advocate for the expansion of Centers of Pedagogy and suggest this might ensure prospective and veteran teachers and school leaders have what they need to best serve students (Zimpher & Howey, 2013).

The literature demonstrates that the Centers of Pedagogy concept is grounded in bringing participants of the teacher preparation process together to engage in mutually beneficial collaborative work. However, research shows that Centers of Pedagogy are not immune to significant challenges, such as implementing the Centers of Pedagogy model and sustaining it over time. Taken together, the Centers of Pedagogy concept seems to fall short of solving the university-school problem.

Professional Development Schools. The Professional Development School (PDS) movement was another major effort to address the university-school divide (Sandholtz & Finan, 1998), and bring practicing teachers and administrators together with university faculty in partnerships that improve teacher education (Mantle-Bromley, 2008; Darling-Hammond, 1994). A consortium of research universities, known as the Holmes Group, was instrumental in designing PDS. In the Executive Summary of the Holmes Group Report, Murray (1986) explains that one of goals for the reform of teacher education is to connect teacher education programs with K-12 schools, and the PDS model allows for such connection,

These professional development schools, analogous to teaching hospitals in the medical profession, will bring practicing teachers and administrators together with university faculty members in partnerships based on the principles of reciprocity (the mutual exchange and benefit between research and practice), experimentation (a willingness to try and carefully evaluate new forms of practice and structure), and diversity (commitment to the development of teaching strategies for a broad range of children with different backgrounds, abilities, and learning styles). (p. 31)

PDS reform attempted to create new spaces for colleges of education and P-12 schools to work together on developing teaching practice (Winitzky, Stoddart & O'Keefe, 1992). The PDS model

envisioned “integrating the work of teachers and teacher educators, of schools and universities, of teachers as researchers and researchers as teachers... building entirely new ways of knowing and kinds of knowledge for the profession as a whole” (Darling-Hammond, 1994, p. 10).

The literature on the implementation of the PDS movement is extensive (e.g. Allen, 2003; Breault & Lack, 2009; Darling-Hammond, 1994; Fullan et al., 1998; Knight, Wiseman, & Smith, 1992; Kruger et al., 2009; Lefever-Davis, Johnson, & Pearman, 2007). The recurring themes emerging from this line of inquiry include the importance of development of trust and relationships between colleges of education and P-12 schools, joint commitment of resources, and sharing power between organizations. Each of these themes suggest potential for building effective partnerships in teacher education.

Trust and relationships. Advocates of PDS teacher education reform describe the model as a type of institutional organization “founded on the basic university-school bilateral cooperative relationship for teacher preparation” (Murrell, 1998, p. 23). An underlying assumption is that as trusting relationships are built, and mutuality is ensured, teachers’ attitudes toward university faculty improve (Burton & Greher, 2007; Calabrese, 2006) and partnership becomes more robust (Teitel, 2001; Yendol-Silva & Dana, 2004). In reviewing PDS research, Rice (2002) analyzed 20 case studies and identified 12 themes about the collaboration process in PDSs. Among the robust themes in the report highlights the importance of trust in individual relationships: “the majority of the issues in the collaboration process in PDSs relate to how well, or how poorly, individuals within a PDS interact with one another” (p. 65). However, research also suggests that issues of attrition complicate the development of trust and interpersonal dynamics. When key members of a PDS partnership leave, continuity and relationships are

challenged, while new participants and changing leadership make it hard to sustain the collaborative goals established by previous members (Johnston-Parsons, 2000).

Resources. Complex partnerships must have resources for implementing the work (Clark, 1999). PDS partnerships are no exception as they take time to establish and can be costly to sustain (Fullan et al., 1998; Mantle-Bromley, 2002). Teitel (1999) explains that if PDSs are to be institutionalized they must include a budget and a schedule that permits staffs from the respective institutions to do work pertaining to the PDS during their regular work day. Yet, research suggests that often neither universities nor P-12 schools have contributed enough resources in terms of budget and time to sustain their PDS partnerships (Abdal-Haqq, 1998; Su, 2002).

Power. Researchers have long expressed concern over the potential pitfall of PDS's due to the power imbalance within the partnerships (Robinson & Darling-Hammond, 1994; Schlechty & Whitford, 1988). Universities in school-university partnerships - including PDS - tend to present themselves as the authoritative sources of knowledge for learning about teaching (Zeichner, 2010). For example, a study by Cramer and Johnston (2000) found that the principal's voice is often missing from the literature on school-university collaboration: "principals are not necessarily appreciated by the university either. Many university people don't understand the critical role of the principal and what he or she has to do to make a PDS work" (p. 56). Principal input is not the only missing component in the literature on PDS. Murrell (1998) writes about the absence of local communities in PDS's; an issue that becomes particularly problematic when it is situated in the context of urban school development:

In particular, there appears to be no systematic examination in the PDS literature of critical perspectives on racism and white privilege and how these are implicated in the sort-and-select practices of standardized testing and tracking. Further, there is no

evidence in the PDS research literature regarding the issues of exclusion, educational inequality, or community development. These are essential considerations for work in diverse urban schools and communities and ought to be the leading edge of PDS work. (p. 23)

Murrell (1998) adds that the PDS “fails to disrupt the underlying political and socio-cultural dynamics that produce inequities in urban schools” (p. 27). These finding suggests PDS may be able to build effective partnerships only within certain kinds of political and socio-cultural contexts.

Efficacy of the PDS movement. The literature on the effectiveness and sustainability of PDSs is varied. In their reflection of working in a large PDS partnership for seven-years, Eldredge et al. (2000) are enthusiastic about the gradual increase in integration throughout the partnerships:

Before PDS, teachers supervised student teachers for the university, went to workshops and university courses to get "professionally developed," and considered research as the job of university professors. In the PDS, everything is collaborative and these once separate activities feed our growth as we actively work to influence the future of education and its future teachers. (p. 107)

Castle, Fox, and Souder (2006) conducted a study which assessed the impact of the PDS model on preservice teachers, comparing PDS and non-PDS candidates at the point of licensure. The study, which included 60 PDS teacher candidates and 31 non-PDS teacher candidates, considered multiple sources of data for each teacher candidate. The two primary data sources included (a) student teaching evaluation forms and (b) tapes of student teaching portfolio presentations. Secondary data sources for triangulation purposes included student teaching portfolios and notes

from portfolio interviews. The authors found that the PDS and non-PDS programs both produced competent, professional, licensable teachers who met the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium standards. However, the data also suggest PDS-based teacher preparation produced beginning teachers who were: “more competent in some aspects of instruction, management, and assessment and were more integrated and student centered in their thinking about planning, assessment, instruction, management, and reflection” (p. 78).

Yet, an additional challenge to the PDS model is the added burden and workload experienced by members of the partnership, particularly pre-service teachers. Hopkins, Hoffman, and Moss (1997) compared the changes in stress scores of preservice teachers involved in a pilot PDS with the changes in stress scores of preservice teachers in a traditional teacher preparation program. The study found a statistically significant increase in stress during the culminating field experience for those preservice teachers in the pilot PDS program. The authors suggest that the immersion of the preservice teachers in the PDS school culture and environment could have caused preservice teachers to recognize that they were not as well prepared for the realities of teaching as they had hoped, thereby increasing their sense of stress.

The PDS movement was driven by an underlying spirit of collaborative egalitarianism. The literature on PDS suggests that the intention of the PDS movement was to bring universities and schools closer together and empower schools and teachers. However, the PDS movement seemed to struggle with enacting this idea early on:

In our eagerness to establish professional development schools, we may be inadvertently creating a caste system, in which professors are the gurus and teachers are followers. In doing so, teachers come to feel disempowered, professors are anything but egalitarian, and we doom reform to failure. (Duffy, 1994, p. 596)

Applying these concerns to teacher preparation reveals some shortcomings of the PDS model. For example, professional development schools are designed to bring together university supervisors, mentor teachers and preservice teachers to collaborate integrate theory with practice. However, when complex ideological issues arise or disagreements on policies, pedagogy or practice are encountered between the university supervisor and mentor teacher, they are often left unaddressed. This is problematic according to Murrell (1998),

The goal of successful collaboration is to dramatically amplify the possibilities of the [collaboration] as an activity setting that provides the authentic context for struggling through a resolution to difficult issues. The activity setting on this account has to be worked on, so that rather than a temporary solution, the larger issue is brought to the entire school community of the collaborative. (p. 44)

To this end, it appears the PDS model had difficulty recognizing the larger socio-cultural contexts within which partnerships are produced and ultimately falls short of resolving the university-school divide.

In summary, the field of teacher education has undertaken numerous promising initiatives aimed at examining and improving the university-school relationship (e.g. Centers of Pedagogy and Professional Development Schools). Yet, such efforts tend to rely heavily on resources making them difficult to sustain. In addition, these initiatives are often university centric. Such concerns have led some scholars to suggest the approaches replicate if not reify the power-knowledge hegemony of traditional TEP and fail to disrupt an imbalance in the university-school relationship (Murrell, 1998; Zeichner, 2009, 2016).

Historical Overview of Policy Changes in Teacher Education

As the scholarship in the previous section suggests, the core issues faced by university-school partnerships are not only ideological and resource-based, but also about conflicting practices, priorities and goals among organizations. Additionally, the relationship between teacher education and schools is complicated by the ongoing trend of policy makers placing much of the blame for the university-school divide on preparation programs and deeming traditional teacher preparation as failing and ineffective (Zeichner, Payne, & Brayko, 2015). Policy attention continues to shift toward supporting alternative teacher preparation models as these programs promise to streamline the process of teacher preparation and transfer the center of control from the university to the K-12 schools (Grossman & McDonald, 2008; Murnane & Steele, 2007)¹. This trend has had important programmatic implications over time. To better understand the contemporary landscape of teacher education, I trace the recent history of changes in policy priorities around teacher education and consider the implications of these changes for the university-school relationship.

Although most new teachers are still prepared in university-based teacher preparation programs (National Research Council, 2010), national trends are shifting toward alternative or “non-traditional” preparation of teachers (), with cultural institutions, school districts, private foundations, industry, and philanthropists all placing their mark in teacher education (Wilson, 2014). According to a survey by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES)² covering the 2015-2016 school year, about 18 percent of public school teachers earned their teaching license through an alternative certification program (McFarland et al., 2018). Initially, programs

¹ Non-university and independent teacher preparation programs often serve the expansion of an alternative K-12 charter system rather than improving alignment and partnerships with current public schools, thereby functionally avoiding the relationship between TEP and public K-12 school systems.

² Taken from: National Center for Education Statistics, Characteristics of Public School Teachers Who Completed Alternative Route to Certification Programs: https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_tlc.asp

providing alternative routes to teacher certification emerged to address teacher shortages in certain subject areas - particularly special education - by allowing teachers “early entry” into the teaching force soon after they were accepted into the program (Boe, Shin, & Cook, 2007; Zeichner & Schulte, 2001). Broadly speaking, alternative certification programs are designed to rapidly prepare teachers (Roth & Lutz, 1986; Rosenberg & Sindelar, 2005) by circumventing the traditional preservice preparation process (Hawley, 1992; Scribner & Heinen, 2009; Suell & Piotrowski, 2007). In 1984, New Jersey became the first state to offer what it called emergency certificates, which allowed individuals to begin teaching while concurrently completing university coursework and passing required tests (Klagholz, 2000).

However, as policy makers remained dissatisfied with traditional teacher education programs, they continued to turn to alternative models for solutions. For example, the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) federal legislation included a provision - strongly advocated for by former Secretary of Education Arne Duncan - encouraging the development of alternative teacher credentialing programs. Secretary Duncan continued to work with Congress to promote alternative routes into teaching that bypass university-based teacher preparation with the stated rationale that such programs will attract into teaching individuals with strong-matter knowledge (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2006). This support has not waned and is apparent throughout the 2016 federal policy of Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) which supplanted NCLB. For instance, Title II, Part A of ESSA states: “funds may be used to support both traditional and non-traditional pathways through the development of new teacher, principal, or other school leader preparation academies, teacher and principal residencies and other alternative routes”.³ While alternative programs receive support from policy makers, the debate over what exactly

³ Taken from the program from the U.S. Department of Education Non-Regulatory Guidance Title II, Part A: <https://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/essa/essatitleiipartaguidance.pdf>

constitutes an alternative program remains somewhat unresolved. NCLB left the definition of what qualifies as an alternative certification program open-ended: “first, alternative certification programs are those that allow candidates to teach while they are meeting state certification requirements; second, states can create alternate routes to certification” (US Department of Education, *No Child Left Behind: A Toolkit for Teachers*, 2004, p. 23). Additionally, while teacher preparation programs, including alternative programs, fall under the US Department of Education’s Title II of the Higher Education Act, the definition and structure of an alternative program is determined on a state-by-state basis. This concept is detailed by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Postsecondary Education, *Higher Education Act Title II Reporting System* (2015)⁴,

Each state determines its own requirements for alternative routes to a teaching credential, allowing alternative programs to vary significantly from one state to another. For instance, California defines alternative programs as “commission-approved intern programs including participation in required support and supervision activities and employment as the teacher of record” (Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2015).

Texas, on the other hand, defines alternative programs more broadly as “a nontraditional route to certification that may allow you to teach while completing the requirements” (Texas Education Agency, 2015).

A recent policy brief by the Education Commission of the States suggests common themes exist across most alternative certification programs, as noted by Woods (2016):

⁴ Taken from Title II HEA data collection brief:
https://title2.ed.gov/Public/44110_Title_II_Issue_Brief_Altm_TPP.pdf

In general, the goal of these programs is to provide a quicker path into the teaching profession than traditional programs while still providing more preparation than might be required for an emergency credential. Alternative programs allow individuals who have already obtained a bachelor's degree to bypass the time and expense involved in attaining a teaching degree or completing a graduate program. Completion of alternative certification programs typically results in a standard teaching certificate or an alternative or provisional certificate. Providers of alternative certification can be colleges of education, nonprofit and for-profit organizations, or school districts. (p. 2)

Nonetheless, the absence of a concrete and universally accepted definition of the alternative certification model does not seem to be an impediment. New teachers can enter the profession following preparation at a college or university, private provider, districts, or state-run programs (Grossman & Loeb, 2008). Alternative routes to teacher certification represent a well-established approach to new teacher preparation (Suell & Piotrowski, 2007). Below, I outline two of the more prominent networks of non-traditional, alternative teacher preparation programs, in the order of their formation.

Teach for America. The largest and most influential network of alternative programs in teacher education is Teach for America (Grissom, 2008; Labaree, 2010; Popkewitz, 1999). Teach for America (TFA) was designed as a national teacher corps with the explicit mission of recruiting impressive recent college graduates to teach in under-resourced urban and rural public schools (Tatet, 1999). When TFA first joined the ranks of teacher preparation in 1989 it identified two missions for its corps members: 1) to excel as teachers in under-resourced schools and 2) to become lifelong leaders in the pursuit of educational excellence for all children. Potential teachers, known as corps members, receive training during a five-week summer

institute, and are placed in high needs schools as teachers-of-record once they complete the Summer Institute. Corps members are expected to continue their teacher preparation through coursework at partnering colleges, as well as professional development offered by TFA staff. The national TFA organization is comprised of over 50 communities across the country, referred to as “regions”. Every TFA region has a “distinct story and offers a unique opportunity for corps members and alumni to work alongside local partners, connect with a community, and help children achieve to their fullest potential”⁵. As stated in the national TFA Corps Member Handbook (2018), TFA neither employs corps members nor is it a teacher preparation program:

We are a leadership development organization and not the employer of corps members.

As such, we strive to provide corps members with opportunities to grow and evolve their leadership first and foremost as teachers and as lifelong advocates for children growing up in low-income communities. (p. 3)

As such, the overarching goal of TFA is to develop a “diverse network of leaders who confront educational inequity by teaching for at least two years and then working with unwavering commitment from every sector of society to create a nation free from this injustice”⁶.

The proliferation of alternative certification programs, particularly TFA, has not been immune to impassioned debate, controversy and confusion. Questions on the quality of preparation, induction year support and retention rates have been raised in the literature (Grossman & Loeb, 2008; Labaree, 2010; Zeichner & Schulte, 2001). Indeed, research suggests that alternative certification programs face similar challenges as traditional university-based programs. For example, in their comprehensive investigation of pathways to teaching in New York City, Boyd et al. (2008) observed that alternative route programs often reflected many of

⁵Taken from the TFA program description found: <https://www.teachforamerica.org/where-we-work>

⁶Taken from TFA’s mission statement, found: <https://www.teachforamerica.org/what-we-do>

the same program features - and related problems - of traditional university-based programs: “overwhelmingly, we found that at least on the surface, teacher education programs of all stripes look very similar in terms of overall structure and the kinds of courses offered” (p. 336). Other large-scale studies comparing alternative and university-based routes confirm that tremendous variation exists within and across pathways. For instance, in their examination of seven alternative-certification programs, Humphrey and Wechsler (2006) found there was more variation within a single preparation program than there was across programs, in terms of the training teacher-candidates are offered, their experiences in their programs, and their effectiveness when they become teachers.

Teacher Residencies. Among the newer non-traditional programs is the Teacher Residency model. Teacher residencies fall under the auspices of “alternate route” (Woods, 2016) and the residency model shares programmatic structures with alternative route programs as both tend to focus on meeting school district staffing needs and streamlining the process of teachers entering the classroom. However, unlike alternative route program described in the previous section, program participants teach only part-time during their first-year and receive extensive mentorship in addition to coursework (Solomon, 2009). Previously known as “urban teacher residencies” (Berry, Montgomery, & Snyder, 2008; Klein et al., 2013), teacher residencies, are often referred to as the “third space” in teacher education (Martin et al., 2011; Zeichner, Payne & Brayko, 2015; Zeichner & Bier, 2012) and are classified as alternative certification programs as they blend aspects of the traditional and alternative approaches. The residency model embraces a hybrid approach to preparing teachers which draws on both traditional and alternate models (Guha, Hyler, & Darling-Hammond, 2016; Martin, Snow, & Franklin-Torrez, 2011).

Teacher residencies experienced rapid growth spurred by the 2008 Higher Education Opportunity Act in which the federal government created the Teacher Quality Partnership Grants Program to fund innovative programs. This became the single largest source of funding for teacher residency programs between 2008 and 2014 (Guha, Hyler, & Darling-Hammond, 2016). One of the first teacher residency programs was designed and implemented in Boston (Berry et al., 2008) and over the last decade residencies have spread to cities such as Seattle, Los Angeles, Chicago, and Denver (Klein et al., 2013). Zeichner and Bier (2012) note that while specific designs of teacher residency programs across the country differ, they all provide a structure that falls in between the fast track program that places novices in classrooms as teachers of record with little preparation, and traditional college and university programs where candidates complete all of their initial preparation before assuming responsibility for classrooms.

Defining the teacher residency model is complex, as there are variations within the teacher residency camp. For example, many teacher residency programs are affiliated with a local university. Typically, these residency programs are part of the National Center for Teacher Residencies (NCTR) which launches, sustains and scales a network of residency programs nationwide⁷. However, the Relay Teaching Residency is a standalone teacher preparation program that operates in 15 cities and is not part of NCTR⁸. For the purpose of this study, my definition of a teacher residency is informed by Guha, Hyler, and Darling-Hammond's (2016) extensive report on the teacher residency model, conducted by Learning Policy Institute, which found several key common characteristics shared by high-quality residencies,

⁷ Taken from the NCTR website: <https://nctresidencies.org/about/>

⁸ Taken from the RTR website: <https://relay.edu/aspiring-teachers/relay-teaching-residency/program-overview-relay-teaching-residency>

[Teacher residency programs] are strong partnerships between school districts and universities; Recruit high-ability candidates to meet specific district hiring needs, especially in fields where there are shortages; Provide a full year of clinical practice teaching alongside an expert mentor teacher; Provide relevant coursework that is tightly integrated with clinical practice; Recruit and train expert mentor teachers who co-teach with residents; Place cohorts of residents in “teaching schools” that model good practices with diverse learners and are designed to help novices learn to teach; Offer ongoing mentoring and support for graduates; and Offer financial support for residents in exchange for committing to teach in the sponsoring district for a minimum number of years. (p. 6)

As the residency model is relatively new, research on program outcomes is still emerging. One longitudinal study by Papay et al. (2012) explores the effectiveness of Boston Teacher Residency (BTR) graduates. This study compared BTR graduates to their non-BTR peers on the measures of students’ test scores in reading and math and draws on administrative data provided by Boston Public Schools that includes student and teacher records for the 2001-2002 to 2010-2011 school years. The authors found no statistically significant difference among BTR and non-BTR graduates in students’ test scores in ELA. In math, BTR graduates underperformed in comparison to their non-BTR counterparts during their first year as teachers of record. This study also found that there is far more variation in effectiveness among BTR and non-BTR teachers separately than there is between the two groups of teachers as a whole in both math and ELA, with data “indicating that some BTR graduates are nonetheless among the district's most effective new teachers in both subjects” (p. 424). In addition, Papay et al. (2012) note the data on math test scores suggest that the performance of BTR graduates who remain in

the district through Years 4 and 5 improves more rapidly than that of other new teachers. The authors advise further investigation is needed to provide a definitive explanation for these findings.

Additional lines of research on the teacher residency model focus on the perspectives of faculty and staff. For example, Beck (2016) conducted a case study with 11 faculty and staff participants who worked in various aspects of the teacher residency program. This study found that feelings about the efficacy of the program overall were inconclusive. Faculty and staff expressed that “the teacher residency was an expensive program that had not yet proven itself to outperform their traditional teacher education program” (p. 64). The findings also suggest that the third-space structure of the teacher residency introduces new problems of coherence in teacher education because of the number of stakeholders involved in these programs who come from a variety of epistemological backgrounds.

In addition to preparing teachers, issues of recruitment, retention, and diversity are relevant to the teacher preparation work. According to the LPI report on teacher residencies, the teacher residency model holds much promise to address issues of recruitment and retention in high-needs districts and in subject area shortages. Initial research is also promising as to the impact residencies can have on increasing the diversity of the teaching force (Guha, Hyler, & Darling-Hammond, 2016). Similar to exemplary teaching hospitals and medical schools, strong teacher residency models require a thoughtful ongoing collaborative relationship between the university and partner schools (Darling-Hammond, 2009), however additional research is needed on the organizational affordances of teacher residencies for partnership work (Berry, 2005; Gatti, 2012).

When organizational systems engage in collaborative work, such as the university-school partnership in teacher education, the complexity of their work, and their shared social matrix increases (Nardi, 1996). As the policy landscape of teacher preparation continues to evolve and include non-traditional models and third-party organizations (e.g. Teach for America), the need to better understand organizational interactions intensifies. In the following chapter I present the theoretical framework and methods I used to study the university-school partnerships for preparing teachers.

Chapter 3: Theoretical Framework and Methodology

In this chapter I discuss my chosen theoretical framework and describe the research design I employed. The primary purpose of this study was to better understand the university-school relationship institutionally, historically and culturally, as it unfolds in three different types of teacher education programs. At first glance, the relationship between teacher education programs and the P-12 school system seems naturally interdependent: schools need well-prepared teachers, teacher education programs are designed to prepare teachers, and schools provide opportunities for preservice teachers to practice teaching. However, as seen in Chapter Two, the tensions between teacher education programs and K-12 schools are complex, multifaceted, and historically rooted.

A review of the relevant literature, along with my past experiences as a preservice teacher, mentor teacher, and teacher educator, led me to consider several general questions on this topic: 1) what are the shared goals between university and school organizations?; 2) what are the disagreements or tensions?; and 3) how, if at all, might these conflicts be resolved? As these questions deal with organizations and entire systems, I drew on third generation activity theory -- a useful conceptual tool for analyzing the interaction between two or more activity systems that share, or partially share, an object (Engeström, 2001). My research agenda included exploring the interactions and relationships between multiple organizations, analyzing moments of tension, and identifying shared goals and problem spaces. In the following sections, I discuss my chosen theoretical framework and provide a description of my methodology.

Cultural-Historical Activity Theory

Cultural-historical activity theory is rooted in the work of Vygotsky [Выготский] (1978) and the Russian cultural-historical school (Leontiev [Леонтьев], 1978; Luria [Лурия], 1979).

Vygotsky suggested that there is an essential relationship between the minds' processes and how the mind interacts with cultural, historical and institutional settings (Rogoff, 1990; Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). For Vygotsky (1978), this relationship explained human activity and learning, which consisted of individuals engaging in meaning-making through interactions with others, while concurrently drawing on and creating activities which transform artifacts, tools and other individuals (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). Vygotsky claimed that every human activity has a goal, which he referred to as the object. Vygotsky understood objects as cultural entities (Engeström, 2001), meaning they can be influenced by the subject. The process of the subject creating and working toward the object is facilitated with mediating artifacts or tools, which include physical items, other individuals, and prior knowledge of the subject. This approach to human activity allowed Vygotsky to shift away from viewing human development as a dualistic stimulus-response model and capture the dialectical nature of learning situations (Yamagata-Lynch & Haudenschild, 2008). This approach to human activity is typically represented as Vygotsky's basic triangle (Cole, 1996; Cole & Engeström, 1993), which depicts the structure for mediated action. Figure 3.1 provides an illustration of the mediated triangle, which attempts to explain human consciousness development by capturing the dialectic interaction between individuals and the world through mediated action (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010).

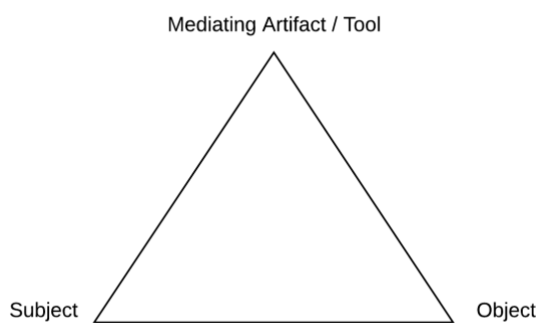


Figure 3.1. Vygotsky's basic mediated action triangle adapted from Cole and Engeström (1993)

Vygotsky was primarily concerned with the meaning making process of the individual, and the basic mediated action triangle is typically referred to as the framework for first generation Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT). Leontiev (1978) expanded the focus of activity theory from the individual to collective activity, identifying object-oriented activity as the unit of analysis to be examined. Leontiev (1978) defined object-oriented activity as:

...A unit of life, mediated by psychic reflection, the real function of which is that it orients the subject in the objective world. In other words, activity is not a reaction and not a totality of reactions but a system that has structure, its own internal transitions and transformations, its own development... In all of its distinctness, the activity of the human individual represents a system included in the system of relationships of society. Outside these relationships human activity simply does not exist. (p. 85)

The work of Leontiev and his colleagues examined the endlessly multifaceted and varied nature of human activity and sought to analyze the development of consciousness within practical social activity settings (Daniels, 2004).

Engeström (1987) refers to this framework as the second generation of cultural-historical activity theory. By emphasizing the collective nature of human activity, second generation CHAT enables activity theorists to take a collective object-oriented activity system as its prime unit of analysis (Engeström, Miettinen, & Punamäki, 1999), and examine activity as it is realized in goal-oriented individual and group actions (Jahreie & Ottesen, 2010; Y. Engeström, R. Engeström, & Vähäaho, 1999). CHAT draws on the Vygotskian idea that human consciousness and practical activity are interconnected, “where human activity is mediated by physical or psychological tools” (Ellis, Edwards, & Smagorinsky, 2010, p.2). As a conceptual tool, CHAT is helpful for understanding relationships between the subjectivity of people trying to act on an

object, by providing a framework for representing the interrelated and co-produced elements of activity systems. In examining the significance of mediation within activity theory Cole (1996) notes, “the Russian cultural-historical school considered the structure and development of human psychological processes to emerge through culturally mediated, historically developing, practical activity” (p. 108). The structure of second-generation CHAT is often represented by Engeström’s (1999) Sierpinski-type triangle. As figure 3.2 illustrates below, second-generation CHAT explicitly articulates the dialectical relationship between the individual subject and the collective (Bakhurst, 2009; Roth, 2007) and highlights the fact that researchers cannot understand the action of a subject on the object of activity outside of “all the relations to other aspects of the activity, which mediate every other moment and relation” (Roth, 2012, p. 88).

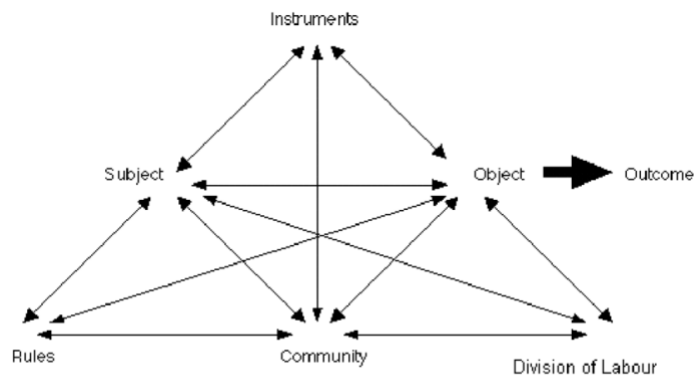


Figure 3.2. Activity system model adapted from Engeström (1987)

The second-generation CHAT framework consists of six such interrelated aspects, elements or nodes: subject; object; tools; rules; community; and division of labor. Konkola et al. (2007) describe these elements, interpreted in the context of teacher education:

The word *subject* refers to the ‘individual’, e.g. an instructor, whose point of view is adopted in the analysis. The *object* refers to the ‘problem area’ to which the activity is directed. The object of the activity is oriented toward a particular goal and is transformed to produce outcomes. *Tools* or mediating instruments, which are either found or created,

shape the activity and help achieve results. Tools are understood here as mental or material, e.g. learning strategies, syllabi, or assessments. *Rules* refer to the explicit or implicit regulations that constrain actions. For instance, rules could be the degree regulations that govern the actions of the instructors. *Community* denotes all the participants, e.g. program directors, program instructors, teacher coaches, and cooperating or mentor teachers who share the same object in an effort to produce change in the object. *Division of labor* refers to the distribution of tasks, authority and benefits among these participants. (p. 214)

Additionally, activity theory captures the dynamic relations between the elements. For example, as Foot (2001) explains, the *Subject* and the *Community* can evolve and interchange during the activity,

In activity theory terms, one or more members of a group engaged in collective activity at any given moment may be viewed as a subject engaging the object of the activity through a particular action. Those who are part of the group oriented toward the same object, but are not engaging in that specific action, are referred to as members of the “community of significant others.” Throughout the course of an activity, the actual persons constituting the subject(s) and members of the community may thus interchange their “roles” frequently. (p. 61).

To summarize, the CHAT framework asks to what extent actors who are working together in an organization understand what they are working toward, how the actors are developing a shared subjectivity of the objective, and how the elements of the activity systems interact.

Third-Generation Activity Theory

As Engeström, Miettinen, and Punamäki (1999) explain, activities are purposeful interactions of the subject with the world, a process which involves mutual transformations of the subject and object. However, in divided multi-activity fields where multiple organizations interact (e.g., healthcare, education, social services), learning takes shape as renegotiation and reorganization of collaborative relations and practices, and as creation and implementation of corresponding concepts, tools, rules, and sometimes entire infrastructures. These processes occur within and between agencies. In order to study more than one activity system, specifically the interaction of two or more activity systems, Engeström (1999a, 2001) developed third-generation activity theory. Third-generation activity theory aims to represent the multivoicedness of actions and ideas by recognizing the joint activity or practice as the unit of analysis (Daniels, 2004; Ellis, Edwards, Smagorinsky, 2010). Activities within third-generation CHAT are considered social practices, oriented at objects (Engeström, 1999a). This allows the researcher to capture the evolving identities of members and their interactional relationships, and analyze multiple networks of interacting systems (Engeström, 2001). This theoretical framework attempts to dialectically link the individual and the social structure by examining the influences within and across activity systems (Engeström, 1999b), and allows for analysis of human activity based on inquiries into new concepts and models for human activity (Yamazumi, 2006). Figure 3.3 below depicts two activity systems seen through the third-generation CHAT framework.

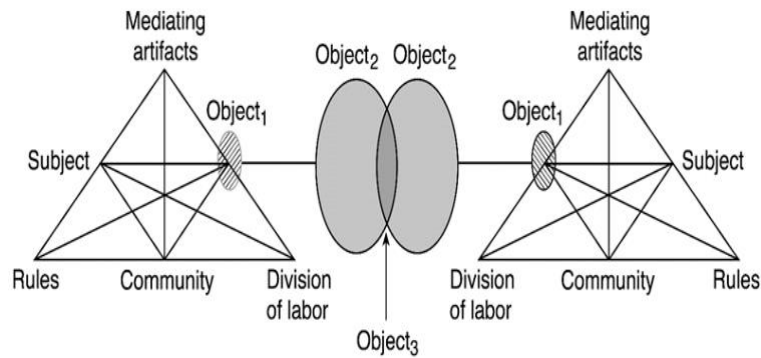


Figure 3.3. Two interacting activity systems with a partially shared object adapted from Engeström (2001)
As shown in fig. 3.3, the two activity systems are bound by the shared object (object₃).

Yamagata-Lynch and Haudenschild (2008) expand on this concept, “the relationship between the two activities can trigger a chain reaction of mediated actions within the individual activities. These chain reactions from the joint activities can lead to inner contradictions for the individual activity and the joint activity” (p. 509).

The concept of “object” is a complex notion in the context of activity theory and deserves elaboration, as having a precise understanding of the terminology is germane to this study. The notion of *object* is a central, but frequently misunderstood, element of activity theory (Foot, 2002). In activity theory, the object is the ‘problem area’ to which the activity is directed. Kaptelinin (2005) elaborates on the key concepts of the object:

The object of activity can be considered the “ultimate reason” behind various behaviors of individuals, groups, or organizations. In other words, the object of activity can be defined as “the sense-maker,” which gives meaning to and determines values of various entities and phenomena. Identifying the object of activity and its development over time can serve as a basis for reaching a deeper and more structured understanding of otherwise fragmented pieces of evidence. (p. 5)

The object of activity is ever-evolving, and the process of object-formation is neither linear nor universally experienced by those in a given activity system. Rather, as Foot (2002) writes, “at any point in time, participants in an activity may be at different stages in the contingent processes of need-consciousness and object-formation, thus shaping their ability to perceive and articulate the object of the activity in which they are engaged” (p. 8). When two or more activity systems interact, the object-formation process can become more complicated. And, the difference in the respective objects of each activity system can increase tension between the interacting organizations (Engeström & Sannino, 2010).

Tensions and Contradictions. Activity theory is a dialectical theory (Engeström and Sannino, 2010). As Roth and Lee (2007) explain, all dialectical units, including activity systems, “harbor inner contradictions” (p. 203). Contradictions emerge and evolve within any human activity, and are the driving force of transformation (Engeström, 1987). Engeström and Sannino (2010) elaborate on the role of contradictions in human activity, noting that “the object of an activity is always internally contradictory. It is these internal contradictions that make the object a moving, motivating and future-generating target” (p. 5). As Ilyenkov (1977) writes, “any concrete developing system includes contradictions as the principle of its self-movement and as the form in which the development is cast” (p. 330). Thus, contradictions are not only inescapable; they are necessary for development and transformation of activity. When activity members encounter contradictions and engage in a process of resolution, the activity has the potential to expand. Foot (2001) expands on the benefits of contradictions, and describes how they foster growth,

Contradictions are a sign of richness in the activity system, not weakness, and of mobility and the capacity of an activity to develop rather than function in a fixed and static mode.

Contradictions reveal the growing edges of the activity system—the places where “growth buds” are able to form and where expansive development takes place. (p. 63)

Foot adds that contradictions are not “points of failure or deficits” and warns against viewing contradictions as problems waiting to be fixed, noting that easy-fix attempts might result in the “aggravation of existing contradictions or the emergence of new ones”. To this end, solving contradictions is neither linear nor permanent, rather contradictions exist latently throughout the learning cycle (Toiviainen, 2007) and allow the researcher to study the “development of the individuals in the context of their activities as well as the development of collective activities” (Jóhannsdóttir, 2010, p. 169).

Engeström (1987) presents four layers or levels of contradiction which relate to one another as activity systems develop and evolve. The four levels are summarized as follows,

level 1: primary inner contradiction within each constituent component of the central activity; level 2: secondary contradictions between the constituents of the central activity; level 3: tertiary contradiction between the object/motive of the dominant form of the central activity and the object/motive of a culturally more advanced form of the central activity; and level 4: quarternary contradictions between the central activity and its neighbor activities. (p. 71)

Engeström (1987) formulates the basic internal contradiction of human activity as its “dual existence as the total societal production and as one specific production among many” (p. 66).

Engeström (2001) further situates the concept of contradictions in activity theory as follows, “the primary contradiction of activities within capitalism is that between the use and exchange value of commodities. This primary contradiction pervades all elements of our activity systems” (p. 137). As Foot and Groleau (2011) put forth, the primary contradiction is manifested in “tensions

that arise from the dual construction of everything and everyone as both having inherent worth and being a commodity within market-based socioeconomic relations” (p. 5). While the primary contradiction is the foundational, ubiquitous driver of activity development, the generative force of contradictions is best understood when the four layers of contradictions are engaged. This is because the four different layers of contradictions are not isolated events, but rather, “precipitate one another, provoke distinct epistemic actions from different sets of organizational actors, and catalyze the development of organizing processes” (Foot & Groleau, 2011, p. 1). As such, the understanding that tensions and contradictions within and across activity system elements are the motivating forces for change and innovation in practice is central to activity theory (Engeström, 2005, 2014; Engeström & Miettinen, 1999; Foot, 2001; Jóhannsdóttir, 2010).

Yet, while terms such as tensions, problems or conflicts are related to contradictions, in activity theory terms, the notion of “contradictions” is unique. Engeström (2001) explains the distinction, “contradictions are not the same as problems or conflicts. Contradictions are historically accumulating structural tensions within and between activity systems” (p. 137). Moreover, contradictions are not the same as experiential tensions. Contradictions can be better understood with a threefold explanation offered by Engeström and Sannino (2011) summarized here,

First, contradiction is a foundational philosophical concept that should not be equated with paradox, tension, inconsistency, conflict, [or] dilemma... Second, contradictions are historical and must be traced in their real historical development... Third, developmentally significant contradictions cannot be effectively dealt with merely by combining and balancing competing priorities. (p. 371)

However, while contradictions are inevitable to occur, Engeström (1999c) notes that they are not inevitable to be seen, “contradictions do not manifest themselves directly. They manifest themselves through disturbances, ruptures and small unremarkable innovations in practitioners’ everyday work actions. The challenge is to make these disturbances and innovations visible and analyzable to practitioners and researchers” (p. 68). If tensions and disturbances are ignored or not recognized as opportunities for learning, expansion is stymied. Sannino and Engeström (2018) return to this notion when they write about contradictions as a foundational philosophical concept,

Inner contradictions need to be creatively and often painfully resolved by working out a new “thirdness,” something qualitatively different from a mere combination or compromise between two competing forces. As contradictions are historically emergent and systemic phenomena, in empirical studies we have no direct access to them.

Contradictions must therefore be approached through their manifestations. We may also treat manifestations as constructions or articulations of contradictions. In other words, contradictions do not speak for themselves, they become recognized when practitioners articulate and construct them in words and actions. (p. 49)

Thus, the theoretical construct of contradiction is complex and cannot be elided with perceived tensions. Rather, contradictions are systemic. They shift the tectonic plates of activity and induce change. As Kuutti (1996) writes, “contradictions manifest themselves as problems, ruptures, breakdowns, clashes” and disturbances, and provide opportunities for attempts to innovatively change the activity (p. 16). Whereas throughout this dissertation there are a lot of references to tensions in the colloquial discourse of the participants as well as in aspects of my analysis, hereafter I reserve the term contradictions to refer to these strongly change inducing dialectic

dynamics. The cross-case analysis presented in Chapter Seven draws in part on the contradictions philosophy for examining the role contradictions play toward programmatic learning and object expansion.

Operationalizing Activity Theory

This study conceptualized the university and P-12 school system as separate yet interacting and collaborating activity systems with potentially shared goals. Table 3.1 provides a generic representation of activity theory applied to the current study, with a description of the elements involved.

Table 3.1: Description of Activity System (AS) Elements in a Teacher Education Program and P-12 school

Activity System element	Definition of element	Activity system 1: Teacher education Program (TEP)	Activity system 2: P-12 School
Subject	Individual or individuals involved in the central activity (Engeström, 1987). Acts as an analytical anchor to design the entire activity system (Núñez, 2009)	TEP members who act on teacher candidates	School members who act on teacher candidates
Object⁹	Raw material or problem space at which the activity is directed	Preparation of competent and effective teachers	Educating P-12 students and supporting the preparation of competent and effective teachers
Tools	Anything used in the transformation process, including both material tools and tools for thinking (Kuutti, 1996)	Program meetings; course syllabi and curriculum; program assessments; field placement process; observation framework; instructional coach	School curriculum; syllabi; assignments; staff meetings; instructional coaches; site supervisor

⁹ Object is a highly complex notion and plays a key role in research based on activity theory. Settings (e.g. teacher education program and P-12 school) share the object while maintaining competing objects. Additionally, the object might be presumed or collaboratively developed within the activity systems and is ever-evolving. As indicated in fig. 3.3, the object and motive overlap to some degree, however, this overlap varies, and needs investigation.

Rules	Norms, conventions, or social traditions that are established by the community to govern its members (Engeström, 1999a)	University compensation policies and reward structures; AS participant status; framework for teacher education; credit and field hours; course meeting times and locations; course structure; job/role descriptions; program meetings	Field hours; teaching hours; observing hours; autonomy in teaching; school placement requirements; school policies
Community¹⁰	Comprised of “the individuals and subgroups who share the same general object” (Sannino & Engeström, 2018, p. 45).	TEP members such as: program director; faculty; clinical directors; instructors; teaching assistants; instructional coaches, and teacher candidates	School members such as: principal; mentor/cooperating teachers; site supervisor; support staff; K-12 students; teacher candidates
Division of Labor	Horizontal division of tasks between the members of the community and the vertical division of power and status (Engeström, 1987)	Tasks: Administrative duties; coursework instruction; field supervision; field coaching. Status: Program decision making; compensation	Tasks: Building administration; classroom teaching; site supervision; mentorship. Status: Building decision making; compensation.

Research Methods

Given the focus of my research questions, systematic qualitative methodology (Creswell, 1998; Merriam, 2009) was most useful for this study. Maxwell (2012) notes that qualitative methodology allows the researcher to gather rich and in-depth data about respondents’ experiences which leads to a meaningful “understanding [of] the particular context within which the participants act, and the influence that this context has on their actions” (p. 22). Smith (2006) elaborates on the key features of qualitative research,

¹⁰ “One or more members of a group engaged in collective activity at any given moment may be viewed as a subject engaging the object of the activity through a particular action. Those who are part of the group oriented toward the same object, but are not engaging in that specific action, are referred to as members of the community... (Foot, 2001, p. 61)

A fuller idea of qualitative research does not stop with the form of data or method collection: Researchers focus on particular cases and the social processes that go on in a particular context; they collect data in natural settings; they recognize the central purpose of understanding the meanings and actions of the persons they study; that context matters in shaping social actions; that personal characteristics of the researcher and the relationships he or she forms influence the conduct and outcomes of the study that inferences are not mechanized but are made by the researcher – at least in part through exploration and discovery – in interaction with the data as a whole; that validity of inferences cannot be reduced to technical considerations. (p. 459)

This qualitative study presents three case studies, each focusing on a differently organized teacher education program. Ragin and Amoroso (2010) consider methods for conducting social research, and note that qualitative methods enhance data, making it possible to see key aspects of cases more clearly and “bring in-depth knowledge to light” (p. 124). To this end, the general first step in this study consisted of gaining an in-depth understanding of each case, noting themes related to how the university-school relationship is conceptualized and enacted in organizationally different environments. The second step consisted of examining the differences and similarities across cases and conducting a cross-case analysis. To meet the research demands of this study, I drew on multiple case study design, where a collection of individual cases each share a common concern (Stake, 2006; Yin, 2008). Multicase design situates each case within a collection of cases that share a common condition or objective (Stake, 2013). This larger collection of cases can be considered the collective target, or object to be studied, and is called a “quintain” (Stake, 2006). Stake (2006) notes that to better understand the quintain, multicase research investigates some of the quintain’s single cases or manifestations and considers what is

similar and different about the cases. Understanding the quintain is the driving principle of multicase design. This method complemented my theoretical framework, as both CHAT and multi-case study situate activity within settings.

Three cases. A case is defined as a clear and bounded system (Creswell, 1998; Merriam, 1988). Cases can be an instructional program, an activity, an institution, or an individual. Additionally, CHAT research takes place in activity settings. Activity settings are an inseparable component of human cognitive action (Rogoff, 1990), and the relationship between human actions and the cultural, institutional, and historical settings in which they occur is co-evolving and co-influencing. This suggests that activity settings and activity are sublated, intertwined, fluid and changing from moment to moment. This research took place across three cases made up of three teacher education programs housed within the University of Washington, College of Education: (1) the Elementary Teacher Education Program (ELTEP); (2) the University Accelerated Certification for Teachers Program (UACT); and (3) the Seattle Teacher Residency (STR). ELTEP and STR are solely elementary teacher education program, and while UACT has both an elementary and a middle and secondary program, this study focused exclusively on the elementary UACT program.

These three programs were selected for two reasons. First, all three teacher education programs are based in the same city, at the same university, and share resources, ideas and people. This shared ecology is useful for cross-case analysis as it helps comparative researchers bind the set of cases that are thought to be comparable with each other (Ragin & Amoroso, 2010). Second, the three programs in this study were selected as case studies because they represent examples of the leading models for teacher preparation in the US. It is important to note that these three programs are not meant to portray definitive archetypes, as research

demonstrates that there is great variation in program features and outcomes both within a given type of preparation program *and* across program models (Boyd et al., 2006; Gansle, Noell, & Burns, 2012; Zeichner & Conklin, 2005). Rather, the programs serve as instances of three dominant models for teacher preparation: traditional masters in teaching; alternative route to certification; and a teacher residency.

Partner organizations. Once the three teacher education programs were identified, partner schools, also referred to as field placements, were selected using purposeful sampling (Creswell, 1998), with the following criteria: 1) the partner school was a public elementary school in a large urban district; and 2) the partnership between the school and teacher education program was well established and functioning, for the most part, in the ways implied by the program model. Selecting university-school relationships that showed promise allowed me to consider the top partnerships each program model has to offer and focus on their complex innerworkings. These criteria - and the partner school selection process - were driven by my research agenda and questions. This investigation could have focused on the genesis or dissolution process of partnerships or could have examined defective partnerships. While those lines of inquiry are worthy of exploration, they were outside of the research scope for this study. At its core, this is an organizational study. My focus was to understand how differently structured university-school partnerships engaged in teacher preparation through object-bound collaboration. To help determine promising partnerships I drew on research on effective school-university partnerships. For example, in their work on the historical relationships between the university and the P-12 school, Lefever-Davis, Johnson, and Pearman (2007) suggest that aspects of well-developed partnerships include mutual trust and respect between the partners and an early established purpose or goal that is relevant for the school and the university.

With these traits in mind, I contacted the program directors and instructors in each of the three programs and asked for suggestions on which school partnerships to include. Each program shared a list of several recommendations for school partnerships. I then contacted the principals of the first school partnership from each programs' list of recommendations and asked their permission to participate in the study. Drawing on my experience as a former teacher, member of school leadership, and general knowledge of school administration as a form of trust building, I intentionally acknowledged the principals' busy schedule and communicated my flexibility in working around their calendar. I also explained that the purpose of my study was to learn from their school, that I would make my findings available to them, and offered to be a resource for their partnership work after the completion of my study. After navigating scheduling conflicts, the site selection process concluded with each of the first three public elementary schools I contacted agreeing to participate.

Participants. With the consent of the program directors and partner school principals, I contacted all of the teacher candidates conducting their student teaching in each selected partner school, along with their mentor teachers, and asked for volunteers to participate in my study. The ELTEP and UACT cases each had three teacher candidate and mentor teacher participants, the STR case had two teacher candidate and one mentor teacher participants. The second mentor teacher in the STR case agreed to participate, however scheduling conflicts due to family emergencies precluded their participation. The third and final phase of my participant selection process drew on snowball sampling (Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981; Browne, 2005; Noy, 2008). In each case, teacher candidate participants were asked to identify their methods course instructors, field supervisors, instructional coaches, mentor teachers, and other program staff candidates deemed relevant to their learning. Additional informants germane to this study, such as

representatives of partner organizations directly involved in the teacher preparation process, behind-the-scene decision-makers, and school district leaders were also asked to participate.

Below, I provide the pseudonyms for each of the 43 (n=43) study participants, their organizations, and their roles or titles, organized by case (See Tables 3.2 - 3.5).

Table 3.2: Cross-program Participants, Organizations and Roles or Titles

Participant	Organization	Role/Title
Peter Hughes	UW College of Education	Assistant Dean
Larry Kirschbaum	UW College of Education	Professor
Sebastian Kristoff-Paterson	UW College of Education	Professor of teacher education & co-founder of UACT
Jessica Hill ¹¹	UW College of Education & ELTEP	UW EdTPA Coordinator

Table 3.3 ELTEP Participants, Organizations and Roles or Titles

Participant	Organization	Role/Title
Tracee Butler	ELTEP	Program director
Julia Charun	ELTEP	Math methods instructor
Sandra Morgan	ELTEP	Literacy methods instructor
Yasmine Myers	ELTEP	Classroom management instructor
Elizabeth Brown	ELTEP	Field Director
Caleb Richardson	ELTEP	Instructional Coach for: Lori Battaglia; Erica Choi; Susan Mintz
Jessica Hill	ELTEP	EdTPA Coordinator & Instructional Coach
Lori Battaglia	ELTEP	Teacher candidate
Erica Choi	ELTEP	Teacher candidate
Susan Mintz	ELTEP	Teacher candidate
Deborah Olivier	Lincoln Elementary School	Principal
Jacqueline Burkett	Lincoln Elementary School	Site coordinator & mentor teacher for Lori Battaglia
Michelle Washington	Lincoln Elementary School	Mentor teacher for Susan Mintz
Bailey Thompson	Lincoln Elementary School	Mentor teacher for Erica Choi
Ava Jackson	Bellevue School District	Director of Employee Relations

¹¹ Jessica Hill is the Teacher Performance Assessment (EdTPA) coordinator for all three programs in this study. She is also an instructional coach for ELTEP, so her name appears twice.

Table 3.4 UACT Participants, Organizations and Roles or Titles

Participant	Organization	Role/Title
Liliana Montalvo ¹²	UW College of Education	Founding director
Laura Jade Cancio	UACT	Program director
Jenny Stewart	UACT	Literacy methods instructor
Isadora Hamilton	UACT	Math methods instructor
Yael Anderson	UACT	Teacher candidate
Kristin Castillo	UACT	Teacher candidate
Natasha Perry	UACT	Teacher candidate
Maddie Douglas	Spring Harbor Elementary School	School Principal
Dr. Lynne Cole	Federal Way Public School District	Superintendent of Federal Way Public Schools
Dr. Paige Patel	Federal Way Public School District	Deputy Superintendent of Federal Way Public Schools
Taylor Brown	Teach for America	Executive Director
Alexis Clark	Teach for America	Director of programming & Corps Continuum
Sam Doan	Teach for America	Manager of Teacher Leadership Development
Bianca Lewis	Teach for America	Manager of Teacher Leadership Development

Table 3.5 STR Participants, Organizations and Roles or Titles

Participant	Organization	Role/Title
Dr. Mallory Hershlag	The Alliance for Education & STR	Program Director, Seattle Teacher Residency
Monica Reed	The Alliance for Education & STR	Director of Clinical Practice & Instructional Coach
Corey Leibowitz	STR	Seattle Teacher Residency Program Manager
Emmanuelle Sarfati	STR	Math methods instructor & Instructional Coach
Maya Sigler	STR	Literacy methods instructor & Instructional Coach for Sarah Feldman
Sarah Feldman	STR	Teacher Resident
Vera Kim	STR	Teacher Resident under Shay Hu

¹² Dr. Montalvo no longer works at UW, but she was a faculty member during the founding and formative years of UACT.

Brooke Curran	James Madison Elementary School	School principal
Shay Hu	James Madison Elementary School	Mentor Teacher for Vera Kim
Caroline Levy	Seattle Public School District	Assistant Superintendent of Human Resources
Mandy Rodríguez	Seattle Education Association	Vice President

Data collection. To ensure case study validity, I sought multiple sources of evidence (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2008). In total, the data included the following: audio recordings and transcriptions of participant interviews; artifacts and documents from the involved organizations; and informal observations of program meetings. Data from interviews, artifacts, and observations were triangulated through repetitious data gathering and critical review (Stake, 2006). The collection of multiple sources of data increased the validity of each case study (Yin, 2008) and resulted in a rich evidentiary database to conduct data analysis to answer my research questions. Table 3.6 summarizes these data collection methodologies.

Interviews. During the autumn and winter quarters of 2018, I conducted one in-depth interview with each participant over the duration of my study, for a total of 43 interviews. Interviews were conducted using semi-structured interview protocols (Merriam, 2009; Patton, 1990, 2002) with the research goal of learning how organizational factors influence the relationship between P-12 schools and teacher education programs. Seidman (2006) suggests that the in-depth interview is characterized by open-ended questions within a semi-structured framework; semi-structured interviews give space for participants to introduce new concepts, while also keeping uniformed themes across subjects (Brenner, 2006). Spradley (2016) describes the purpose of the interview as twofold – (a) to develop rapport between the researcher and participant and (b) to elicit and collect information. As such, interviews lasted between one and

two hours on average, began with open-ended questions designed to understand the role of the participant in the organization, and concluded with detailed questions on the university-school relationship. Additionally, the interview protocols were slightly modified across participants, to respond to their area of expertise in this topic (see Appendices A-D for interview protocols).

Artifacts and documents. I collected program handbooks for the 2018-2019 academic year from ELTEP, UACT, and STR in order to gain an understanding of the overall programmatic structure and organizational culture of each program model. I also collected the syllabi from the math and literacy methods courses in each program, to look for areas that might impact the university-school relationship. In addition, I collected rubrics used to observe and assess teacher candidates during the field placement component of their program. Finally, I collected documents describing each partner school, including the school district commitments and partner school mission statements.

Observations. The third data source in this study was observations (Creswell, 2009; Gold, 1958). Gold (1958) suggests the observer is used in “community studies,” where the researcher “observes formally, as in scheduled interview situations: and at other times he observes informally” (p. 220). I conducted informal observations of program meetings in each case with the intention of learning how each program makes sense of the relationship between the P-12 school and university. I acted in the role of observer as participant, where my research activities were known, while my participation in the group was secondary (Merriam, 2009). During the observations, I paid attention to who was in attendance and whose ideas were taken up. These data were collected through participant observation and consisted primarily of field notes (Creswell, 2009).

Table 3.6 Data Collection Procedure Summary

Methodology	Sources	Procedure
Interviews	Study participants	Digitally recorded semi-structured interviews, then transcribed the interviews via a transcription service; cleaned transcripts, correcting misspelled words or phrases; read through each transcript to develop a sense of its overall meaning
Artifacts and documents	TEP course syllabi and curriculum; TEP assessments; observation frameworks; program handbooks; program meeting minutes; September Ethnography document; description of roles and responsibilities; district and school reports; mission statements from partner organizations; local newspaper articles	Read all materials and documented any descriptive content related to conceptual framework and research questions
Observations	Observed formal meetings of participants interacting within and across the partnerships	Took field notes during the observations

Data analysis. The three cases served as portraits of partnership work as it is enacted in three programs. In determining the unit of analysis, I drew on Sannino and Engeström (2018) who write, “the formation of minimally two activity systems connected by a partially shared object may be regarded as the prime unit of analysis for 3rd generation activity theory” (p. 46). To this end, the unit of analysis in each case was the partnership between organizations. My data analysis was informed by Miles and Huberman (1994), who suggest that analyzing data becomes an iterative process whereby the researcher uses analysis of initial data to inform a second round of data collection. Miles and Huberman (1994) continue in advising that “coding is analysis” where codes are used to “retrieve and organize words, phrases, sentences, or whole paragraphs, connected to unconnected to a specific setting” (p. 57). Interviews served as the initial foundation for data interpretation. After each interview, I completed a Contact Summary Form (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This form (see Appendix E) allowed me to reflect on the interview

process, make notes about my interview protocols and procedure, and identify salient issues and themes. Specifically, some of the information in the contact summary sheet included questions such as “What were the main issues or themes raised by this fieldwork? Do you have any particular impressions or observations?” and “What hypotheses, speculations, or unresolved questions were raised for you?”.

My interview transcriptions, field notes on observations, and artifacts from organizations were entered into a web-based platform for qualitative methods data analysis, Dedoose™. As I coded individual teacher interview data, I employed two approaches. First, I engaged in descriptive, open-ended coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994), labeling low-inference interpretations of the data. I also called on etic coding and used prior literature and my conceptual framework to create codes. Etic coding (Lett, 1990) relies on the researcher using theories developed outside of the interview for data analysis. For example, one of the central elements of activity theory are tools or mediating instruments, which are either found or created, and include social others and artifacts that can act as resources (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). In activity theory, tools shape the activity and help achieve results. As such, an example of a question my etic codes relied on analyzing was, how do participants in each partnership identify and use conceptual and material tools as they navigate the relationship? I used a similar approach to organize my analysis of the other elements of activity theory, drawing on the extensive activity theory study on K-12 school and university partnerships by Yamagata-Lynch and Smaldino (2007) for support. Table 3.7 below demonstrates questions related to each component of the activity system model.

Table 3.7 Guiding analytical questions

Tools	How do participants in each partnership identify and use conceptual and material tools as they navigate the relationship?
--------------	---

	What resources are currently available in each activity system? What assessment tools and data are collected? What resources seem to be absent?
Rules	What informal rules guide the activity? What formal rules guide the activity?
Community	Who is involved in the activity? Do the roles of those involved change and shift over time?
Division of Labor	What is being done and by whom toward the object? This includes both the horizontal division of tasks and the vertical division of power, positions, access to resources, and rewards.
Object	What is the goal of the activity system? What is the purpose, and motivation, of the partnership(s)?

Throughout my analysis, data from interviews, field notes and artifacts were cross referenced to generate interpretations (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2008). For example, if an instructor described their lack of connection to the field placement site, I considered how other evidence (e.g. artifacts on program policies) was reflective of those descriptions. Next, I generated categories or themes in my data. This was an iterative process, during which I went back to my data, considered provisional categories, and revised my emergent themes to best represent the data. Throughout the investigation I wrote analytic memos, to help make sense of my data, in personal, methodological, and substantive aspects. Miles and Huberman (1994) explain that memos do not just report data, rather “they tie together different pieces of data into a recognizable cluster, often to show that those data are instance of a general concept” (p. 72). The memos assisted me in further analyzing the data and noting and revising my codes. Ultimately, I used these analytic categories to identify data-represented themes.

Researcher role. Drawing on ethnographic practices, which recognize that the researcher is never separate from the knowledge that they produce (Glesne 2011; Haraway 1988; Peshkin, 1988), it is crucial to state where the knowledge we choose to construct comes from. As a former secondary school teacher and current teacher educator, I am aware that my analytical framework,

interactions with respondents, and analysis were influenced by my own experiences in schools and teacher education programs. When interviewing partner school participants, I drew on my experiences as a teacher to establish a relationship and build trust. I believe this allowed many participants to speak freely and openly about the successes and challenges they experienced in their schools. In introducing myself to participants, I noted that I was a former teacher. As such, participants may have assumed that I could understand their experiences. Similarly, my experiences as a teacher educator positioned me as an insider when interviewing participants in the teacher education programs and partner organizations. One added benefit of this was being able to have a shared understanding of the teacher preparation process, which I believe allowed me to have more meaningful conversations with my participants.

The principle concern I had to guard myself against during my data collection was influencing the UACT case study participants, as I was a teaching assistant in UACT at the time of this study. In particular, I acknowledged that teacher candidates in the UACT program might be hesitant to share critical feedback with me or be less forthcoming during the interviews, due to my positionality in the program. I took several steps to address this issue. First, I reiterated the purpose of this study to my UACT participants, noting that my goal was to learn about the partnership from them. Second, I outlined the anonymizing process, ensuring the identities of my participants would be protected. The third step, which applied to all my participants, consisted of respecting a participant's request to withdraw a statement from the interview. For example, when a participant qualified a response by saying, "this part is totally off the record...", or followed a response with saying, "you shouldn't quote me on that, you probably shouldn't add that at all", I honored their request, and did not include their response in my data. Lastly, being a teaching assistant in one of the three teacher education programs in this study presented an opportunity to

uniquely engage in my conceptual framework. In the UACT and partner school activity systems, I simultaneously was a member of the community, interacting with the other nodes of the systems while orienting my activity toward the object and a researcher studying the partnership. Overall, my familiarity with the programs was invaluable in understanding and interpreting the data.

Ethical considerations. All the participants, instructors, and schools were given pseudonyms in order to protect the identities of individuals. I openly communicated the purpose of my study to my participants. Continued participation in this study was voluntary. In the following three chapters I present data and analyses on three cases of university-school partnerships. In the following chapter, I present the first case of this study.

Chapter 4: The ELTEP Case

In this chapter, I present the Elementary Teacher Education Program (ELTEP) case. Chapter Four examines the university-school relationship in a year-long masters-level university-based teacher preparation program and is structured in four parts. In the first section, I present an overview of the Elementary Teacher Education Program and depict the program as a partnership between the university and the school system. In the next two sections, I present data describing the university and the partner school of focus activities, in the context of the ELTEP partnership, and provide an activity theory analysis of both systems. In the fourth section, I identify findings relevant to my research question on how the university-school relationship is conceptualized and enacted in teacher education and use an activity system analysis to depict the ELTEP partnership.

The ELTEP Overview

The ELTEP conceptualization of teacher preparation is driven by and organized around the goal of “collaboratively transforming inequitable institutional practices” (Program Handbook, 2018, p. 9). Additionally, as stated in the Program Handbook (2018), the ELTEP vision for teacher education situates the process of learning to teach in the “school, community and greater socio-political environment” and focuses on “generous, deliberative, participatory on-going conversations that acknowledge and honor the multiplicity of expertise across boundaries” (p. 9). Taken together, the program can be defined as a partnership between two organizations, the university and the school system, collectively acting toward the shared object of developing elementary teachers. Followingly, a program analysis of the ELTEP collective might depict the activity as one whole activity system, as seen in figure 4.1.

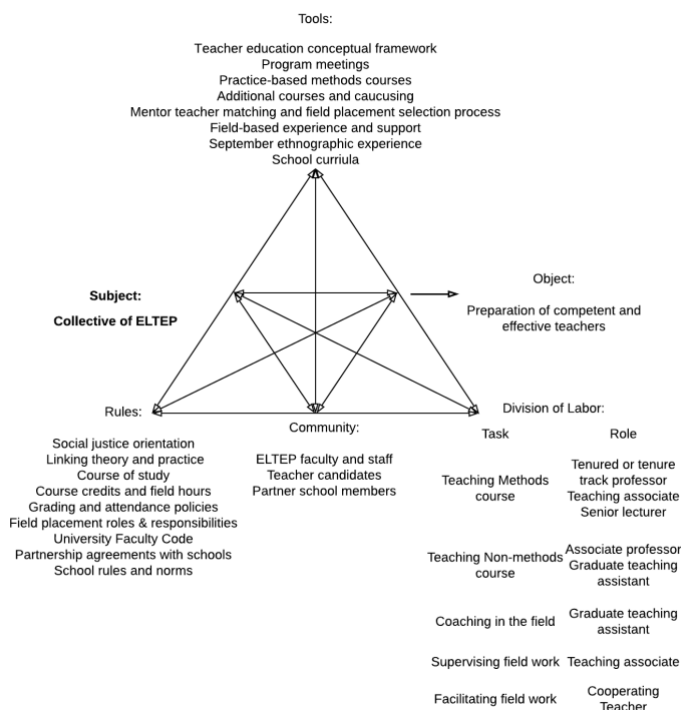


Figure 4.1. Program level ELTEP activity system

Figure 4.1 conceives the Elementary Teacher Education Program as a collective partnership, primarily between the university and partner schools. In activity theory terms, the collective of ELTEP is the *subject* in the activity system. As seen in fig. 4.1, the subject is engaging in the process of preparing teachers, considered the *object* of the activity. The object-oriented activity of preparing teachers is mediated by *tools*, such as coursework and field-based experience, which help in the process of learning to teach. The program level analysis also shows various norms and regulations, or *rules*, give structure to the activity. For example, the program-wide rule on social justice teacher education regulates actions such as partner school selection and coursework foci. The *community of significant others* oriented toward the same object includes members from the university and the partner school. Finally, the *division of labor* in fig. 4.1 visualizes how the tasks involved in the activity of preparing teachers are divided among the community

members of the ELTEP partnership, for instance coursework taught by university instructors and field-work facilitated by partner school cooperating teachers.

The program analysis shown in fig. 4.1 provides a snapshot of the collective ELTEP activity system oriented toward the shared object of preparing teachers. However, as Ellis et al. (2011) explain, “one of the insights that a CHAT perspective affords is the analysis of multiple motives working on the same object and distinguishing a diversity of motives among those (collectively) in the subject position” (p. 18). To this end, while the object of preparing teachers is shared by the ELTEP collective, additional analyses on the individual organizations that comprise the partnership are needed to better understand the university-school relationship in the ELTEP context.

The University Activity System In ELTEP

In activity theory terms, the subject represents the chosen position and point of view for the perspective of the analysis (Sannino & Engeström, 2018). The *subject* for the university activity system analysis, in the context of participating in the ELTEP partnership, is the collective of teacher educators, including university faculty, instructors, staff, and administrators. The collective of university teacher educators is driven by the shared motive of preparing teachers. This motive is embedded in the object of the activity. In other words, the *object* directing the university activity is the teacher candidate and their ongoing preparation. The teacher candidate can be understood as a project under construction, “moving from potential ‘raw material’ to a meaningful shape and to a result or an outcome” (Engeström, 1999c, p. 65). The object guides activity goals and actions, yet the object itself ever evolving. For example, during the September start of the K-12 school year, the specific goals set for teacher candidates - as determined by the object of learning to teach - are focused on establishing relationships with

cooperating teachers and students and experiencing the daily work in a partner school. Once the university fall quarter begins, the intermediate goal of working in a partner school is met for the time being and the object escapes, only to be reconstructed as new intermediate goals and actions that emphasize methods coursework.

Activity theory highlights the collective aspect of human activity. As Sannino and Engeström (2018) note, “an activity system is more than a mechanical sum of its components. An activity weaves together its own dynamic context” (p. 46). To this end, the object gives meaning to the teacher education activity and motivates all of the activity system’s elements. For example, the individuals and subgroups involved in the activity and who share the same general object are considered members of the university *community*. The ELTEP community includes those directly involved in the teacher preparation process, like professors, teaching assistants, and instructional coaches, and others who share an orientation to and engagement with the object, like faculty and deans.

In acting toward the object, members draw on mediating artifacts, individuals, and instruments, known as *tools*, which help achieve the object-oriented activity of preparing teachers. For instance, to help reach the early-on goal of establishing relationships with cooperating teachers and experiencing daily work of teaching, members draw on a month-long immersion project, called the September Ethnographic Experience [See Appendix G for September Ethnographic Experience description], that guides the candidates’ activity in partner schools. The field-based experience is also considered a tool, mediating the object-oriented activity. Coursework serves as another important tool for aiding the general process of preparing teachers. Throughout the year, program participants, referred to as teacher candidates or interns, engage in graduate level courses, such as: EDTEP 531: Teaching & Learning in Literacy;

EDTEP 521: Teaching & Learning in Numeracy; and EDSPE 503: Culturally Responsive Classroom Management (See Appendix F for the 2018-19 Course-of-Study), intended to prepare teachers with deep content knowledge in the entire elementary curriculum (Program Handbook, 2018). Within the coursework program feature, methods instructors, teaching assistants and candidates locate specific tools, such as syllabi, readings, and assignments to mediate the coursework activity.

The interconnectedness between the elements of the university activity system is further illustrated by the role of formal and informal regulations and norms, or *rules*, that constrain actions within the activity. For example, university courses are regulated by the rule of practice-based instruction, in which “instructors strategically attempt to connect academic and school-based expertise” (Zeichner, Payne, & Brayko, 2015, p. 126). The convention of structuring coursework around a practice-based model for teacher education (Windschitl, Thompson & Braaten, 2011) is influenced by the shared community value of linking theory with practice. Similarly, the value of teaching for social justice held by the university community informs the rules of increasing cohorts of diverse teachers and partnering with social justice-oriented schools. Rules also influence the tools in the activity as seen in the structure of the coursework and field work, which are constrained by policies on course credits and hours in the field.

Lastly, the *division of labor* element captures how tasks and power are shared in the activity. For example, the literacy and numeracy methods courses are typically taught by tenure line faculty and tenured professors while foundations courses are typically taught by clinical (non-tenure line) faculty, staff, and teaching associates. Additionally, members of the university community in the ELTEP context include teaching assistants, often university doctoral students, who are charged with supporting teacher candidates in methods courses and in the field-based

experience as instructional coaches. The structure of task and power distribution in the program is informed by the university rules and has implications for the ELTEP partnership. For example, the Faculty Code and Governance (Section 21-32) organizes members of the university and determines who has the authority and the responsibility to participate in the stewardship of the university¹³. The Faculty Code lists members of the university in order for purposes of determining voting eligibility based on superior rank, with professors near the top of the rank ladder, teaching associates at the bottom, and teaching assistants restricted from the list. In the ELTEP context, tenured faculty, such as methods course professors, are placed at the locus of decision-making for the program.

Figure 4.2 illustrates a full graphic summary of Engeström's (1987) model, showing the object-oriented activity of teacher preparation.

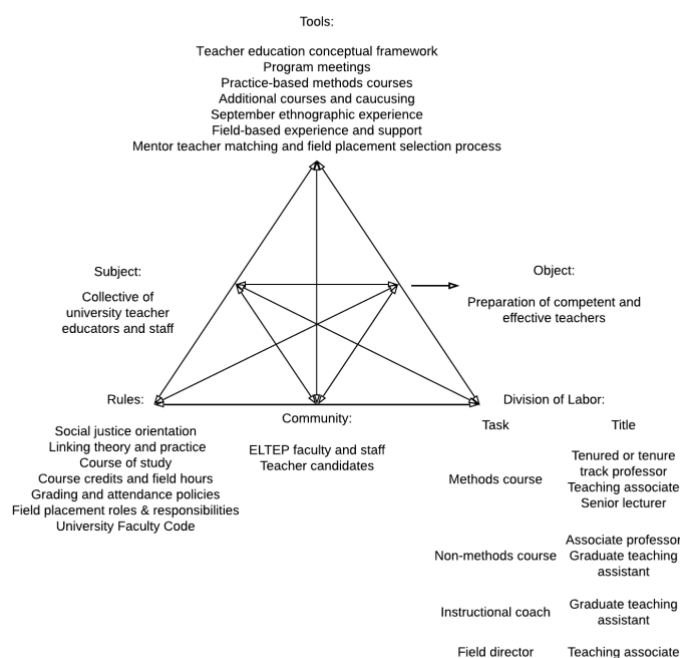


Figure 4.2. The university activity system in ELTEP

¹³ Additional information on Voting Membership in the Faculty can be found university policy directory, Faculty Code and Governance: Chapter 21, Section 21-32, Subsections A-C
<https://www.washington.edu/admin/rules/policies/FCG/FCCH21.html>

The Lincoln Elementary School Activity System

One of the partner schools that serves as a member of the ELTEP collective is Lincoln Elementary School, located in the Bellevue public school district. The stated mission of the district is to “serve each and every student academically, socially, and emotionally, through a rigorous and relevant education that is innovative and individualized... and provide courageous support for an equitable and exceptional education for all students” (District mission statement taken from: <https://bsd405.org/about/>). The growing Bellevue public school district is among the more diverse in the state, with more than 80 languages represented by the 20,000 enrolled students. Ava Jackson, the district’s Director of Employee Relations, described the evolving landscape of the district and the district’s goals for meeting the needs of the students:

I would say that our diversity is growing and changing in our district, and one of our goals and one of our commitments is to diversify our staff as well to be able to relate and to connect with our families and with our students. When we think about our newer teachers, they tend to bring more diversity with them. (A. Jackson, personal communication, November 21, 2018)

The commitment to hiring and retaining diverse staff seems to be a prominent feature throughout the district. On November 15, 2018 the Representative Council, of the district’s certificated union, passed and adopted the “Equity Resolution”, which “serves as a commitment to changing the culture of the Bellevue School District in order to attract, support and retain more educators of color”¹⁴.

Lincoln Elementary School is a kindergarten through fifth grade, Spanish Dual Language, Title I school serving approximately 400 students. It is important to note that the

¹⁴ Taken from: <https://bsd405.org/2018/11/bellevue-education-association-equity-resolution-approved/>

partner elementary school in this case, as with any elementary school, is a highly complex institution that can be examined from the perspective of students, teachers, support staff, administrators, families and so forth. While I make efforts to capture the general essence of the partner school, this study is focused on the university-school relationship and the description and analysis is generally considered in relation to the ELTEP partnership.

The school's vision includes collaborating with students, families, staff, and the community to meet the needs of every student and is guided by a commitment to teaching for social justice. In activity theory terms, this vision represents the motive for the Lincoln Elementary School activity and is embedded in the object of the activity. According to document and interview data, the main *object* directing the school's activity are the K-5 students and their ongoing learning. The individuals acting on the object, for example the teachers, specialists and school administrators are considered the *subject* for the Lincoln elementary school activity system analysis. Similar to the university object described in the preceding section, the subject is given meaning by the ever-changing school object as manifested in countless intermediate goals. For example, according to the data, the math specific goals for second-grade include, "1) extending understanding of base-ten notation; (2) building fluency with addition and subtraction; (3) using standard units of measure; and (4) describing and analyzing shapes". These goals are further broken down by the second-grade teachers and constantly reconstructed under the guidance of the object. Additionally, as a Spanish Two-Way Dual Language school, Lincoln school's approach for teaching and learning includes having classes taught using an "additive bilingualism model", in which students have the opportunity to "acquire a second language without the replacement of their home language and culture" (School Improvement Plan, 2019,

p. 3). The dual language model is also reflected in some of the school's goals, such as the growth and improvement goals as outlined by the School Improvement Plan (2018),

At least 80% of our 3rd through 5th grade dual language students will meet standards in Spanish Language Arts as measured by the Evaluación del desarrollo de la lectura (EDL2) assessment [and] at least 50% of Class of 2029 (current 3rd graders) will meet state standards in English Language Arts. (p. 3)

The *community* members of Lincoln school activity include district leadership, school administration, general and special education teachers, support staff, specialists, students and families. Members of the community use various *tools* such as curricula resources, including the district-wide math curriculum, lesson plans, and classroom materials shape the activity and mediate the subject acting on the object of meeting the needs of students. For instance, the elementary literacy curriculum draws on materials from the school-wide “Journeys” reading curriculum program and the math program in the school follows the district-wide curriculum called “Math Expressions Common Core”. The school's *division of labor* organizes the daily school activities among members such as school administrators, teachers, specialists and support staff. Finally, the Lincoln school activity is regulated by *rules*, for instance state and district benchmarks for student achievement which help guide instructional decisions. Other rules are shaped by the community element, for example, the value of linguistic diversity held by the community is reflected in the school's dual language program, a rule that guides the activity. The activity's interactive nature is additionally surfaced in the division of labor element, as the rule of Spanish dual-language instruction requires the task-distribution of teaching in Spanish and English. Figure 4.3 provides a full graphic summary of the partner school using Engeström's

(1987) model, with the school activity oriented toward the object. The activity is mediated by the interactive elements of the activity system, indicated by the two-headed arrows between nodes.

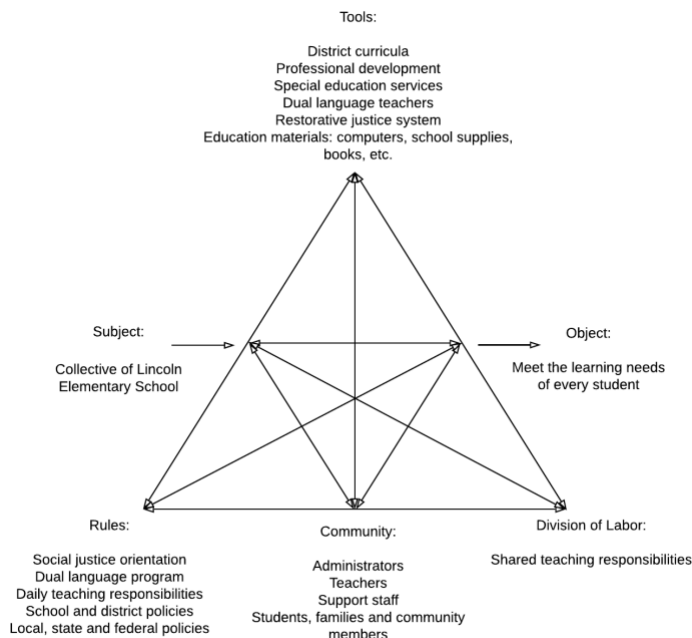


Figure 4.3. The Lincoln elementary school activity system

The University-School Relationship In ELTEP

In the previous sections I presented the two organizations involved in the collective ELTEP activity, embedded within their respective real-world contexts, and shared examples of the interrelationships between the elements within each system. The results of these analyses allowed me to identify the goals and the complex natures of both systems. Building on these analyses, I return to the unit of analysis in this case and consider the joint activity of preparing teachers that is shared across the organizations and defines the Elementary Teacher Education Program.

In the final step of analysis in this case, I shifted my analytic focus from the separate systems to the relationship between them and drew out systemic implications. In doing so, I turned to Engeström (1987) and Rogoff (1995) who explain that the unit of analysis is the human

activity itself, embedded within its social context. As Yamagata-Lynch (2010) explains, “[in activity theory], this unit of analysis embraces the belief that real-world activities cannot be isolated into variables” (p. 6). In reviewing the descriptive data from the university and partner school activity systems, I identified two central themes pertaining to the university-school relationship in the ELTEP case. First, while the university-school relationship was conceptualized as a well-aligned partnership, there appeared to be multiple and at times competing goals between the two activity systems. Second, findings revealed that opportunities for collaboration between community members significant to preparing teachers were rare within and across activity systems.

Mutual respect/multiple goals. Data from the ELTEP case demonstrated that the involved organizations shared several driving principles for the vision and process of the relationship. Members from both organizations showed appreciation for the systematic matching process between teacher candidates and cooperating teachers, suggesting a positive start to the partnership. For example, Lincoln’s site supervisor and veteran mentor teacher, Jacqueline Burkett, spoke on the benefits of being intentional when creating pairs and the “speed dating” process,

You really have time to get a sense of who the interns are, and we were able to rank, by preference who we thought we would pair well with. The interns have an opportunity to do that too, which is also valuable. (J. Burkett, personal communication, November 29, 2018)

By the same token, teacher candidates agreed that the matching process was helpful. For example, one candidate noted “great” fit,

I actually really wanted to be placed at Lincoln because it's a Title I school, it's very diverse. There are students from so many different cultures and different languages there. I wanted to be able to use my knowledge of Chinese to also help students. I also wanted to work with a teacher who was a person of color. (L. Battaglia, personal communication, November 9, 2018)

Document and interview data also indicated that values such as educational equity, teacher diversity and supporting dual-language classrooms, were clearly shared between the two organizations. Furthermore, the director of the program described the relationship with partner schools as critical for the joint activity of teacher preparation, and spoke to the value of partnering with schools,

[Field-based experience] is invaluable. We can't teach folks everything they need to know. That mentor teacher is key to their success. And, it's a way for our teacher candidates to understand when they go into the field, that they're working with real kids from real families, from real communities. (T. Butler, personal communication, November 5, 2018)

The significance of mentor teachers for the process of preparing new teachers is evident in the role description, as outlined in the Field Placement Roles & Responsibilities chart (See Appendix I). The mentor teacher position is extensive and involved throughout the year, and includes meeting with candidates, creating opportunities for candidates to work with small and large groups of students, observing candidates in the classroom and supporting them in their communication with student's families. Principal Olivier seemed to recognize the critical role Lincoln school mentor teachers play and underscored her expectations,

When you are being a cooperating teacher, this is how you're serving the profession. Our teachers look at a student teacher as another capable adult in the room that can help students... It's not seen as, "okay, I'm taking a break from the classroom", or "oh, I can get my report cards done while you teach". (D. Olivier, personal communication, November 19, 2018)

This approach was reiterated by veteran mentor teacher Ms. Burkett, as she reflected on working with new student teachers, and shared the advice she gives other mentor teachers in the school, "your student teacher is going to walk in with you on the first day [of school]. Make sure the students see both of you as partners, not as an assistant" (J. Burkett, personal communication, November 29, 2018). The value of working with mentor teachers in the partner school was not lost on teacher candidates, as seen in candidate Lori's quote,

My placement school [Lincoln] is where I learned the most. Watching my mentor teacher, she's such a great teacher. Taking in all those strategies and the tips and things that she uses throughout the day is so helpful. I have just a little notebook of all the random tips, like she has students work with whiteboards and often students like to doodle or draw. So, right before she starts the lesson, she'll be like, "Okay, you guys have a one-minute doodling on your whiteboards" to get all the doodles out. And that's so smart, and I never even thought about that. So, I wrote that down in my notebook. (L. Battaglia, personal communication, November 9, 2018)

However, as members navigated between the two activity systems, they encountered the challenge of engaging multiple objects. For instance, as depicted in fig. 4.3, members of the Lincoln school activity system, including mentor teachers, were oriented toward and organized by the object of teaching K-5 students. In fact, the primary way teachers, including cooperating

teachers, serve their profession is by acting toward the object: by being elementary school teachers to elementary school students. Taking on the role of mentor teacher neither supplanted their role of teacher nor replaced the object of teaching K-5 students. Mentor teachers were still regulated by the rules of the school and drew on tools in the school activity system for resources as they acted on the object. Yet, by partnering with teacher candidates, cooperating teachers also became active participants in the collective activity of preparing teachers. In discussing their approach for acting toward the school object while participating in the university object, mentor teachers noted the importance of “flexibility”. Ms. Washington described creating moments for teacher candidates to practice their teaching, even when it is not in line with the school curriculum,

I know that when they [teacher candidates] get further in their course work, that there might be some lessons they have to teach or something that may or may not particularly fit with our literacy curriculum or our science curriculum. And we're very flexible at our school. I'm very flexible. If the lesson, it doesn't necessarily fit in, if it's still important, let's do it. (M. Washington, personal communication, November 29, 2018)

While Ms. Washington’s generous flexibility provided some relief for engaging the two objects, it also raises some questions. For instance, how many non-curriculum lessons can be taught without causing disturbance in the Lincoln curriculum rule and do isolated opportunities for enacting coursework concepts support the object of learning to teach. Emerging answers to these questions appeared in the data and suggest constraints to the ad hoc “fit it in” approach, as seen in this candidate’s discussion on navigating the two activities,

[The] kind of math instruction [presented in math methods], I'm not always seeing it in my placement. And, in my placement, I feel like it's very much geared towards working

out of a textbook from the districts. Then, again, as I said, I wanted to try out “Quick Images”, and [the cooperating teacher] was like, “Sure, go ahead.” So, I think she's open to things, but I understand too that they're adhering to different pacing guides and trying to meet different marks, and so, yeah... So sometimes, what we're seeing in our methods courses, those are cool things I think I'm thinking about, okay, for my future class, or when I can take over a little bit more and get creative, right? It's like “Quick Images”, “mental math”, “Coral Counting”... I'm not seeing any of that in my placement. (E. Choi, personal communication, November 9, 2018)

This quote provides an example of a conflict between objects. The object of preparing teachers, assisted by tools such as specific activities for teaching math is in conflict with the Lincoln object of teaching students, assisted by tools such as district math curriculum. A similar conflict appeared in literacy instruction, “in our methods course, there's a lot of focus on taking a deep dive into non-fiction text. We're not really doing that all too much in a first grade class right now” (E. Choi, personal communication, November 9, 2018). In this moment of partnership, the focus of reading non-fiction text is incompatible with the focus of Lincoln’s first-grade classroom.

Additionally, some members grappled over the value of one object versus another, suggesting that at times the objects were understood as separate and perhaps competing concepts. For example, the primary object orienting the activity of teacher candidates writ large was learning to teach. However, during their field work, candidates were also becoming members of the Lincoln school community and gaining exposure to the school activity system. As emerging members of the Lincoln system, the activity of teacher candidates became additionally organized by the school’s object of teaching students. As candidates navigated between acting in a teacher

preparation program and acting in a partner school, they began viewing the school object as more “real”, as seen in an interview in November, 2018 with teacher candidate Erica:

BK Where do you think you've learned so far, maybe not the most, but a lot, in the various different components of the program?

EC I feel like the moments where we're having that practical hands-on experience of actually being out there and teaching students is the most valuable and the most true-to-form... because you can plan a lesson all you want, but that's only half of the planning. The other part is the student voice in that. And so, I find it very interesting to be in those real-life situations, where it's like, "how this person is responding?" or "I tried out this strategy, and it didn't quite go like how I read about it in the book." So that's been a great wealth of learning. Not to discredit the learning that goes on in our methods or our coursework in general. That is definitely supportive and getting to bounce ideas off of different instructors has been good, but, yeah, like actually getting out there, and kinda seeing what it feels like for real, is a great learning experience. (E. Choi, personal communication, November 9, 2018)

Here, Erica grappled with squaring the value of orienting her activity toward real students in the Lincoln system with value of orienting her activity toward discussing coursework as a tool for learning to teach. Teacher candidate Lori shared similar concerns about the friction between the two objects,

You can talk about concepts all you want, but you're not gonna actually understand what happens in a day-to-day classroom unless you actually experience it. We can read all the

articles we want, but that's not gonna compare to actual real-life experience. (L. Battaglia, personal communication, November 9, 2018)

While candidates stopped well short of considering the objects within the ELTEP collective activity as incompatible, they struggled in holding both objects simultaneously.

In activity theory terms, these tensions can be described as intertwined dilemmas, or “expressions or exchanges of incompatible evaluations, either between people or within the discourse of a single person” (Engeström & Sannino, 2011, p. 373). On the one hand, the placement school is an essential component in the object of preparing teachers, as it allows teacher candidates to practice their teaching; on the other hand, the placement school activity is oriented toward its own object of teaching students. Similarly, on the one hand, coursework helps drive the activity toward the object of learning to teach; on the other hand, working in the placement school partially reorients the activity to the more pressing object of teaching students. The misalignment or opposition of intermediate goals between activities, as determined by the objects, led to dilemmatic moments in the partnership.

Scant opportunities for collaboration. As evidenced by the data, two roles that were closely involved in the process of preparing new teachers were course instructors and cooperating teachers. Both members worked tirelessly to help develop teachers for the classroom, and each spent the greatest number of hours with the candidates. Teacher candidates worked with methods instructors, learning content and theory in courses, and with cooperating teachers, honing their craft and developing their practice in classrooms. However, data suggested that collaboration between methods instructors and their courses and cooperating teachers and their classrooms was restricted. This issue was exemplified in a reflection by the Lincoln school

site supervisor and cooperating teacher, prompted by my question: “have you had any conversations with methods instructors?”,

No, I've never, I've not had that. But, that would be something I think, as an option, would be nice... Wouldn't it be nice too, if a mentor teacher could shoot a line to a professor about "here's something really awesome she [teacher candidate] has done" and to be able to celebrate that together? (J. Burkett, personal communication, November 29, 2018)

Ms. Burkett continued by listing the potential benefits of having a closer her relationship with the university faculty,

Being able to maybe share or find out who the professors are, and if we have a question, being able to reach out to someone who can maybe support [teacher candidates] outside of the time that they're here, that might be good. (J. Burkett, personal communication, November 29, 2018)

Similarly, mentor teacher Ms. Washington pointed to having more information on the methods coursework as a way to improve the student teaching experience,

I know that if we got that schedule, of what the student-teacher's, kind of their timeline, I think it would be interesting. And I know maybe this changes year from year, but if we could kind of know ahead of time what are some of the lessons they [teacher candidate] know they have to teach, to kind of know some more of that content piece so we could start to plan that ahead of time... Like in the fall and it could say, "during the fall, here are some of the assignments they need to have completed", and I'd have a reference point. Or, if I know she [teacher candidate] needs to do an assignment where she works with an

ELL student, to be like, "Okay, I can start thinking about that ahead of time, like who is a good student?" (M. Washington, personal communication, November 29, 2018)

However, when asked about her connection and relationship with the mentor teachers or principals at the placement schools, professor Morgan replied, "it doesn't exist... I don't know, because I'm barely involved in placements, barely". Professor Charun also noted that she does not interact with mentor teachers and discussed this issue during a December, 2018 interview:

BK How do you think about field placements and what TCs are doing in schools?

JC I think, this is something we really need to get better at if we want to think about systems of teacher preparation or systems of teacher professional learning, of which teacher prep is something, and then in-service [teachers] is also part of that same group. Because honestly, I have no idea what's going on [in field placement].

BK And, any connection with the principals of the partner schools?

JC I haven't had any. (J. Charun, personal communication, December 10, 2018)

Literacy and numeracy methods instructors shared concerns over the missing link to the mentor teachers and noted that capacity and logistics were obstacles in creating and sustaining relationships with partner schools. For example, the rules regulating the coursework activity require a practice-based approach to methods instruction. As such, methods instructors spent much of their time commuting between home, the university, and the off-campus elementary schools where they held methods courses. Additionally, as tenure-line faculty, expectations for methods instructors extended to university-specific activities such as engaging in research and publishing in line with a top tier university. Taken together, Professors Charun and Morgan wondered whether building relationships with partner schools and mentor teachers was possible

under the current organizational structure. The impacts of restricted collaboration as discussed in this section seemed to exacerbate the dilemma of competing goals noted in the preceding section. This sub-finding was showcased by Ms. Thompson's reflection on areas for growth in her role as a mentor teacher, as she grappled with better aligning her teaching practice to the methods coursework while staying true to "real life",

Maybe I'm not connected enough to what's going on in their coursework, even just knowing what courses they're in... but this is the real world. Like really, sometimes I'm planning this little lesson five minutes before they [first grade students] come in the door, real life. Or oh, somebody puked and we're not doing this and now what are we gonna do? And so, yeah, I mean you probably can't plan for that in your methods class. (B. Thompson, personal communication, November 26, 2018)

The quote from Ms. Thompson not only echoed the problem of limited collaboration between mentor teachers and methods instructors, it also suggested a connection to the previous theme of competing goals. That is, Ms. Thompson's activity was oriented toward the object of teaching Lincoln elementary school students. This object is ever-changing and Ms. Thompson must be flexible and responsive to the evolving needs of her students. When the university object was introduced to the Lincoln activity, Ms. Thompson experienced a contradiction between the K-5 student-centered school object and the perceived student-decentered university object. This led Ms. Thompson to assume that methods courses could not account for the constantly changing setting of a first-grade classroom. Due to the constraints for collaboration, it was as unknowable to Ms. Thompson whether her assumption was accurate as the assumption itself was unknowable to the methods instructors.

Instructional coach support. The tasks pertinent to engaging and collaborating with

community members in the partner school activity system, including crossing organizational boundaries and linking the two system, were primarily divided among the instructional coaches according to the university rules. Professor Charun reflected on this structure,

I think as a program... I think we just have to keep working on it, on how do we make it so that we are a system of teacher educators who are working, and thinking, and getting smarter together? As opposed to, "you're a mentor teacher. You are responsible for what happens there. I am a coach, and I'm sort of this bridge...". I wonder how the coach is kind of torn between different things, and then the people that teach methods are over here somewhere. So, I do think that's something that we can keep working on, and hopefully learn from. (J. Charun, personal communication, December 10, 2018)

Professor Morgan also discussed the complex role of the instructional coach,

It has potential, but I think Elementary is particularly difficult. We're preparing teachers to teach all subject areas, plus attend to needs of kids, which are part of the subject area, but I mean classroom management and cultural linguistic diversity and all the things that are part and parcel of teaching. Plus, there's a responsibility for teaching across subject areas. So, I am not going to be a good coach in mathematics. I am not going to be a particularly good coach or teacher educator in social studies. I don't have the expertise. So, what you have, the bridges are generic bridges, and [research shows] generic bridges lead to conversations about classroom management. I think it's a mistake... If my first eye is on classroom management because I don't know enough about the subject matter, then you get advice about fixing the wrong problem. I think that those bridges are content weak, and I am just unyielding about content knowledge. (S. Morgan, personal communication, December 12, 2018)

Instructional coach Caleb worried that his dearth of knowledge and experience around literacy constrains his effectiveness as a coach. He explained that being the teaching assistant for numeracy methods enables him to be confident in his role as the instructional coach, but his confidence wanes on literacy content,

I haven't worked with Professor Morgan. I'm not exactly sure what they're doing, and I also don't wanna contradict what she's doing, so whenever [teacher candidates] let me know that like, "hey, I wanna try a read aloud or I wanna try this new strategy that we've been working on literacy", I always let them know, it's like, "yeah, great! Let's do it," and sort of ask them what they want me to be looking for. So, instead of just for me to provide them with all this feedback, I ask them, "Is there something in particular that you want me to focus on? Is there something that you want feedback on, specifically?", that sort of guides our conversation. (C. Richardson, personal communication, November 15, 2018)

These interview data surfaced another dimension of the friction around collaboration. In addition to minimal interaction across systems, between methods instructors, mentor teachers and their respective tasks, internal collaboration between coaches and methods instructors was inhibited. The university division of labor indicated that the instructional coach was responsible for supporting candidates across contents and disciplines in the field, yet systems for communication between instructors and coaches were absent. For instance, methods instructors did not participate in the coaching team meetings, and while instructors and coaches were present for program-wide meetings, explicit and dedicated collaboration between these two roles was not observed.

The conditions of the interaction between the two activity systems bring forth several related tensions, as depicted in figure 4.4 with a full graphic summary of Engeström's (2001) model for two interacting activity systems. The multiple and at times competing goals of the university and Lincoln school systems introduces a cross-system dilemma (a) between the objects of the two activity systems, depicted with the help of a two-headed lightning-shaped arrow between the objects of the two activity systems. The constrained collaboration between methods instructors and cooperating teachers produces a cross-system tension (b). Tension (b) is represented as a two-headed lightning-shaped arrow between the divisions of labor of the two activity systems. The limited collaboration between methods instructors and coaches creates an internal tension (c) in the university system, shown as a two-headed lightning-shaped arrow between the division of labor and rules.

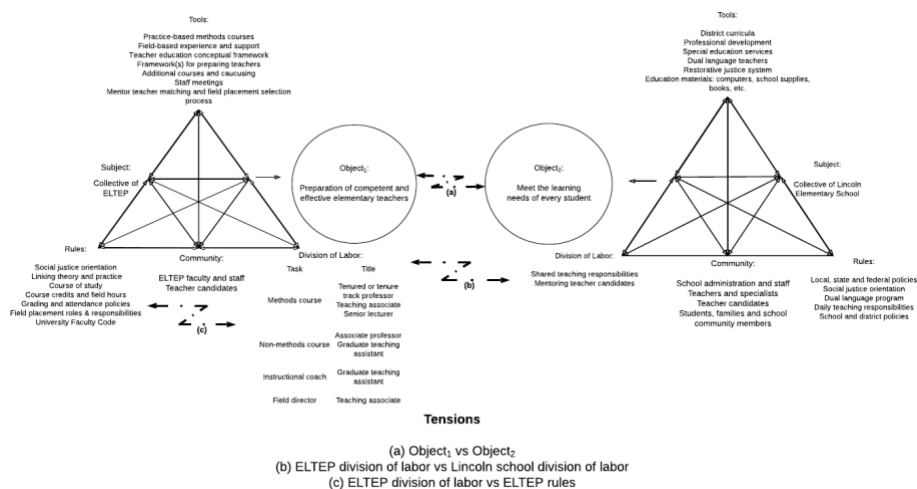


Figure 4.4. The collective of ELTEP partnerships

Chapter 5: The UACT Case

In this chapter, I present the University Accelerated Certification for Teachers program (UACT) case. Chapter Five focuses on the university-school relationship in year-long alternative teacher preparation program. The object-oriented activity of teacher education in the collective of UACT is shared between three organizations: the university; the Teach for America Washington-region organization; and the school system, as manifested by partner schools. To this end, Chapter Five is structured in four parts. In the first section, I present an overview of the UACT approach to teacher education and depict the program as a collective of partnerships. Next, I present data describing the three partners and present an activity theory analysis of each organization. Finally, I identify findings on the conceptualization and enactment of the three-pronged partnership as revealed in the data and conclude with a schematic depiction of the university-partner organization-school relationship.

The UACT Overview

As an alternative route program¹⁵, participants in the UACT work full-time as teachers of record on conditional certification while concurrently engaging with coursework to meet the standards of K-8 residency certification. This structure is further described in the Program Handbook (2019),

UACT is built for candidates pursuing their WA residency teacher certification via Alternative Routes 3 and 4¹⁶... UACT is designed to support candidates who are teachers of record in WA public schools. The program grounds learning in the context of the school community and the realities of daily teaching practice. (p. 10)

¹⁵In chapter Three I discuss the history and general aspects of alternative route teacher preparation programs.

¹⁶For additional information on types of Alternative Teaching Licenses in Washington see the website: <https://www.teachercertificationdegrees.com/certification/washington-alternative/>

The process of preparing and supporting new teachers as they engage in the work of teaching full time is shared between three organizations that make up the UACT program: the university, Teach for America: Washington (TFA/WA); and the partner schools. As such, the UACT program can be defined as a three-fold partnership, engaging in the collective object-oriented activity of teacher preparation. To this end, TFA/WA places program participants, referred to as teacher candidates or corps members, in partner schools and provides support in the field. At the same time, teacher candidates engage in methods and foundations courses designed to prepare them for the classroom and practice their emerging teaching in the partner schools. A program-wide analysis of the UACT collective might depict the activity as one whole activity system, as seen in figure 5.1.

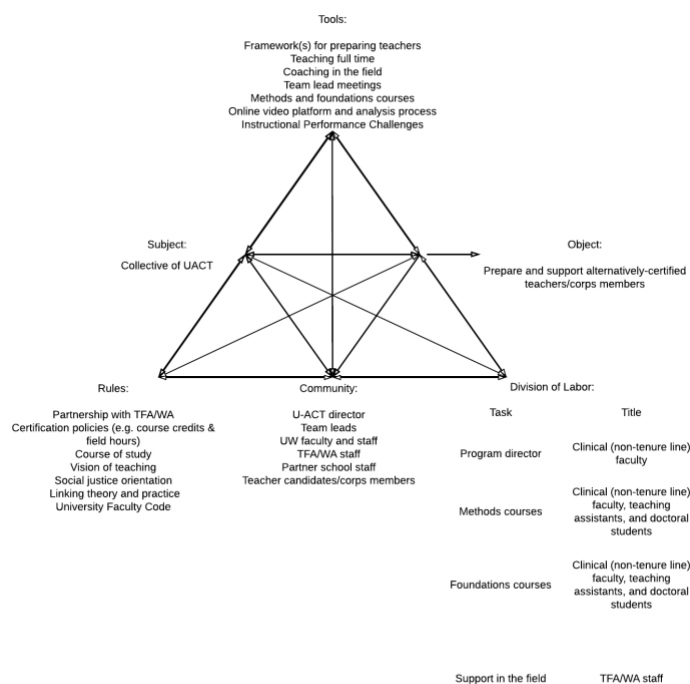


Figure 5.1. Program level UACT activity system

Figure 5.1 presents the UACT program as a partnership, with the collective of UACT, the *subject*. The subject in fig. 5.1 is acting on the *object* of preparing teachers in an alternative route

setting. As seen in fig. 5.1, the object-oriented activity of the UACT collective is mediated by *tools*, such as coursework, full time teaching, and coaching support in the field, created to help work toward the object of preparing teachers. The program level analysis also displays norms and *rules* that constrain the activity, for example policies on teacher licensure and certification which enable teacher candidates to simultaneously engage in the learning to teach and the teaching activities. The *community* of the UACT collective includes members from the university, the TFA/WA organization and the partner school. Finally, the division of labor in fig. 5.1 illustrates how the tasks involved in the collective activity of preparing teaches are divided among the UACT community members. For example, the hiring of teacher candidates is conducted by the partner school administration, course instruction is taken up by members from the university community, and coaching teachers in the field is carried out by members from the TFA/WA community.

However, as was seen after the initial program analysis of the ELTEP partnership in the previous chapter, additional analyses of the individual organizations are needed to better understand the collective UACT activity. In the sections to follow, I examine the three activity systems involved in the UACT program.

The University Activity System In UACT

The underlying structure of the UACT program rests on two complimentary notions: coursework is designed to explicitly connect theory with practice; and as full-time teachers, participants have daily opportunities to apply concepts from their coursework to their practice. Professor Montalvo expanded on these priorities,

One of the UACT design principles was that you have to be doing two things with teacher candidates: you have to be solving a Monday morning problem; and you have to

be building their capacity at the same time. Typically, in conventional Teacher Ed, it's left to the cooperating/mentor teachers to solve the Monday morning problem, and the university to solve the long-term capacity problem. What UACT tried to get at was, "I'm going try to both help you understand what it is you're going do on Monday, and then I'm also, over time, through [coursework], going to be building your intellectual capacity about the work." (L. Montalvo, personal communication, December 14, 2018)

The current director of UACT, Dr. Laura Jade Caniaso, agreed with the twofold goal of preparing candidates in both their context of teaching full time and as career-long educators, noting, "I think it's a little bit of a balancing act, because context is so necessary for us to be thinking about with our candidates. Since they are the teacher, they want to get better at teaching tomorrow" (L. Caniaso, personal communication, November 18, 2018).

As an alternative route teacher education program, the university activity is driven by the overall motive of preparing teachers who are concurrently teachers of record in the classroom. To this end, the *object* orienting the activity of the university in the context of the UACT program is ongoing preparation of new teachers. The *subject* in the UACT university system that is acting on the object is comprised of university teacher educators and staff, including the instructional team of clinical (non-tenure line) faculty, teaching assistants and advanced doctoral students. The object orienting the system's activity is continually reconstituted and manifested as various goals, directed toward preparing teachers. For example, the university instructors' approach to teacher education is grounded in the Learning Cycle model (McDonald, Kazemi, and Kavanagh, 2013), which is designed to require teachers to examine, decompose, enact, and reflect on their own - and others' - instructional practice (See Appendix K for a depiction of Learning Cycle model). The instructional practices are embedded in a series of goals or

“Instructional Performance Challenges” (IPCs) that are discussed in the methods and foundations courses and enacted in the partner school (See Appendix J for the full UACT Course of Study). One of the IPCs in the literacy methods course includes the goal of interactive reading and prediction making with students. The strategies exemplified in the literacy methods IPC are part of the learning to teach object. Once an IPC is completed, new intermediate goals are set by the object.

The university methods and foundations coursework, including the IPCs within a course, are also considered *tools* that are created and found in the activity system for the purpose of helping act toward the object. Candidates attend weekly instructor-led methods coursework sessions as well as additional courses, including: Understanding Indigenous Perspectives: Implications for Teaching & Learning; and Equity, Diversity, & Social Justice in Practice (See Appendix K for the full UACT Course of Study). Other tools include an online video platform¹⁷ which candidates use to submit video recordings of their practice and receive detailed feedback on their teaching from methods instructors.

Another consequential characteristic in the university activity system is the *rules* node, which regulates the activity and interacts with other elements of the system. For example, the alternative route program is state-wide, with some participating schools located in districts over 300-miles away from the university. Consequently, university instruction in program includes distance learning models and uses online communication platforms for instruction. Additionally, state policies for alternative route programs enable teacher candidates to teach full time on conditional certificates while in the program. This rule shapes certain features of the activity, for instance restricting courses the evenings, after the end of the school day. Other rules, such as the

¹⁷Edthena provides video tools designed to enhance professional development for teachers through classroom observation and online collaboration, from: <https://www.edthena.com/>

tradition of social justice, are influenced by the values and beliefs of the university community. The university *community* in the context of the UACT program includes the program director, team leads, university faculty and staff, and others who share an interest in and involvement with the object. The structure for how tasks, power and access to resources are shared among the members of the university community is described by the *division of labor* element of the activity system. For instance, document and interview data show that teaching tasks are distributed across the instructional team of clinical teacher educators. Lastly, unlike the methods instructors in the ELTEP case, members of the university community in the UACT program context are non-tenure line faculty, and their access to the decision-making power and reward structure of senior faculty positions is restricted.

Figure 5.2 illustrates a full graphic summary of Engeström's (1987) model, showing the university activity system in the context of the UACT program, with the collective of teacher educators and staff as the subject engaging the object of preparing teachers. The relational properties found in the structure of the activity are represented by two-headed arrows between elements.

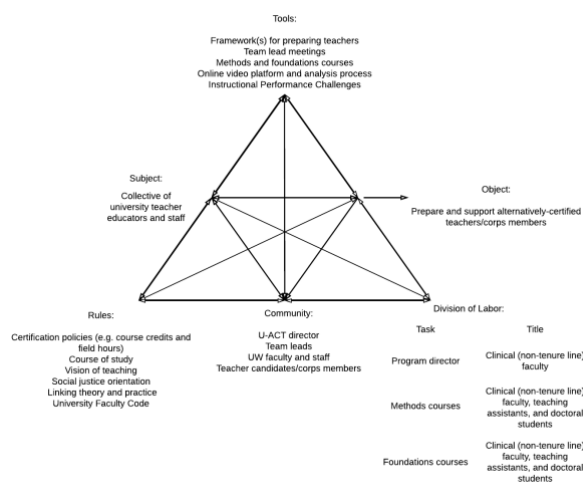


Figure 5.2. The university activity system in UACT

The TFA/Washington Activity System

The vision of the TFA/WA organization is stated in the Corps Member Handbook (2018), “our corps members and staff must see themselves as system challengers, stewards for our students, our schools, and Teach For America” (TFA Corps Member Handbook, 2018, p. 20). Sam Doan, one of the Managers of Teacher Leadership Development (MTLD) in the TFA/WA organization expanded on the vision, noting that TFA is guided by a twofold mission, “the idea is that we’re developing our teachers as leaders and not just the teachers” (S. Doan, personal communication, November 15, 2018). Thus, the *object* of the TFA/WA activity presents an added layer of complexity, in that the organization is simultaneously oriented toward supporting new teachers, also referred to as corps members, (object a) and developing leaders for systems-change (object b). This vision is led by TFA/WA executive director, Dr. Brad Erickson, a TFA alumnus and career-long educator, including nine years as a principal and nine years as a district assistant and associate superintendent. Dr. Erickson described the TFA/WA staff structure and outlined the roles involved with enacting the organization’s goals,

We have a staff of 11 and we've made a lot of changes since I came onboard. One of those is hiring a chief of staff. And her job is to oversee what we call the functional leads, for example Alexis, who oversees all our teacher leader development work, alumni work and development work... in terms of the structure, in Teacher Leader Development (TLD), the director, Alexis, has three Managers of Teacher Leadership Development (MTLDs), which is like teacher coaches. Then we have a development team and we have an alumni team. (B. Erickson, personal communication, November 4, 2018)

In activity theory terms, the TFA/WA team represents the *subject* in the object-oriented activity of supporting teachers and developing leaders.

The TFA/WA activity is mediated by conceptual and material *tools* that help work toward the object. For example, to help act toward the object of supporting teachers, TFA/WA staff use tools such as observing and coaching in the field. In acting toward the object of leadership development, the organization draws on a framework known as the “Theory of Leadership” which provides strategies and activities for developing leaders for systems-change. The TFA/WA *community* includes local and national staff who share an orientation to and engagement with the object. The values of the community help shape some of the *rules* regulating that TFA/WA activity. For example, the process for partnering with districts is influenced by the community’s belief of meeting the needs of schools, as described by Dr. Erickson, “the first driver for us is really having our folks [corps members] in schools that have 60% free and reduced lunch... have a philosophy at TFA that we need to go where we're needed” (B. Erickson, personal communication, November 4, 2018). Other rules include partnership agreements with school and districts, state policies for alternative route programs, and the two-year teaching commitment required of corps members.

Finally, the *division of labor* element is informed by the TFA national organization which provides the staffing structure for the regions. For instance, duties for the TFA/WA team include establishing and sustaining partnerships with schools and facilitating the hiring process for corps members after they conclude the TFA Summer Institute¹⁸. Additionally, the organization assigns

¹⁸Before starting the UACT program, TFA WA corps members participate in a five-week summer training institute led by TFA – held outside of Washington state – where the novice teachers begin their preparation to enter the classroom. In 2014, UW undertook a collaborative effort with the University of Michigan to redesign a regional TFA summer institute, by drawing on the vast body of scholarship on what learning is and how it happens. The redesigned regional summer institute followed the Learning Cycle framework to combine the pedagogy of teacher preparation with the curriculum of teacher education and supported corps members’ learning to teach process through “exemplar” video analysis, lesson planning, enactment, analysis of teaching video(s), and analysis of K-12 student work (McDonald, Kazemi, & Kavanagh, 2013). After the pilot, additional regional TFA summer institutes seem to have taken up some aspects of the Learning Cycle framework to varying degrees of fidelity. However, the UW and UACT have not been involved in the design or implementation of subsequent TFA Summer Institutes.

each corps members a coach or an MTL. MTLs take on several roles in the organizations, such as performing corps member evaluations, meeting with school principals and administrators, managing the matriculation process for newly accepted corps members, and facilitating ongoing professional development sessions for corps members.

Figure 5.3 illustrates a full graphic summary of Engeström's (1987) model, showing the TFA/WA activity system and its interacting elements.

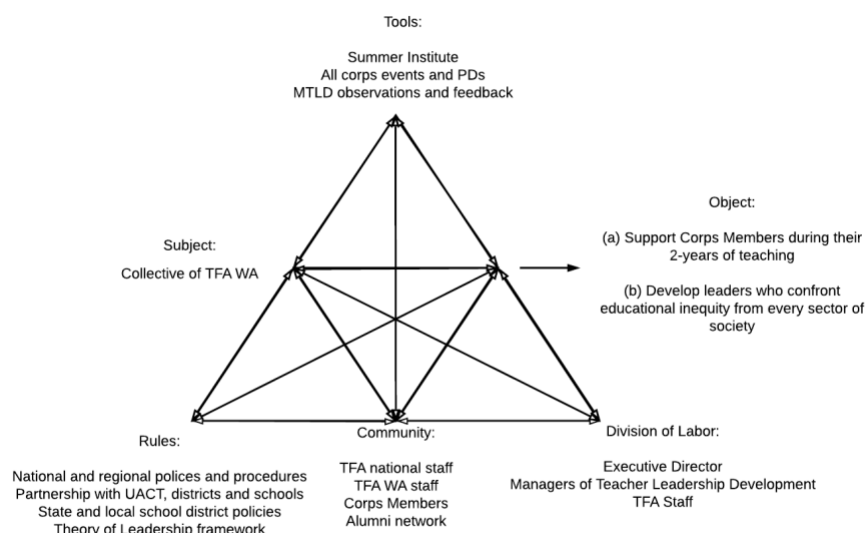


Figure 5.3. The TFA/WA Activity System

The Spring Harbor Elementary School Activity System

The partner school in this case is part of the Federal Way school district. Federal Way is comparable in size to the Bellevue school district, with about 23,000 students and nearly 60 percent of students receiving free and reduced-price meals. Dr. Paige Cole, Superintendent of Federal Way public schools, spoke on the priorities for her district,

We have five goals in our strategic plan. The goals start when the children first enter our system and go through until the scholars will leave into postsecondary opportunities and careers. Each school then has two goals from that strategic plan that drives their

improvement. And everything we do is in terms of that. (P. Cole, personal communication, December 10, 2018)

The five goals are centered around student learning and are part of the district's four-year strategic plan (See Appendix L for a full description of Federal Way's Five Goals).

Spring Harbor Elementary School is a kindergarten through fifth grade Title I school, serving approximately 468 students. According to the report on the school, 32% of the students are English Learners, and 92% are from Low Income families. The school mission statement highlights working together in creating a "caring, supportive and growth-oriented environment where individuals are valued, with recognition and respect for diversity of others". Similar to the Lincoln Elementary School activity system presented in Chapter Four, the *object* orienting the Spring Harbor Elementary School activity is meeting the academic and socio-emotional and learning needs of every student scholar. The *subject* of the Spring Harbor activity includes the individuals acting on the object, namely teachers, specialists, and school administrators.

The school *community* includes members such as, district leadership, school administration, general and special education teachers, support staff, specialists, students and families. Community members of the Spring Harbor school activity system look for mediating *tools* as they act on the object of meeting the needs of students. These tools include school-wide curricula, lesson plans, and classroom materials. The *rules* element in the Spring Harbor school activity system refers to formal or informal regulations that limit or liberate the activity and provide members with guidance for interaction. For example, the rule of continuing a formal partnership with TFA/WA allows the school principal to hire corps members as teachers. The *division of labor* in the school activity is shared among the school administration, teachers, specialists, support staff, and community member. The structure for the labor element is affected

by other system nodes, such as rules and community. For instance, the rules of daily teaching responsibilities, formally set by the school administration and informally generated by other community members such as student-needs, impact the choices and priorities teachers make as they engage in the school activity.

Figure 5.4 illustrates a full graphic summary of Engeström's (1987) model, showing the Spring Harbor elementary school activity system.

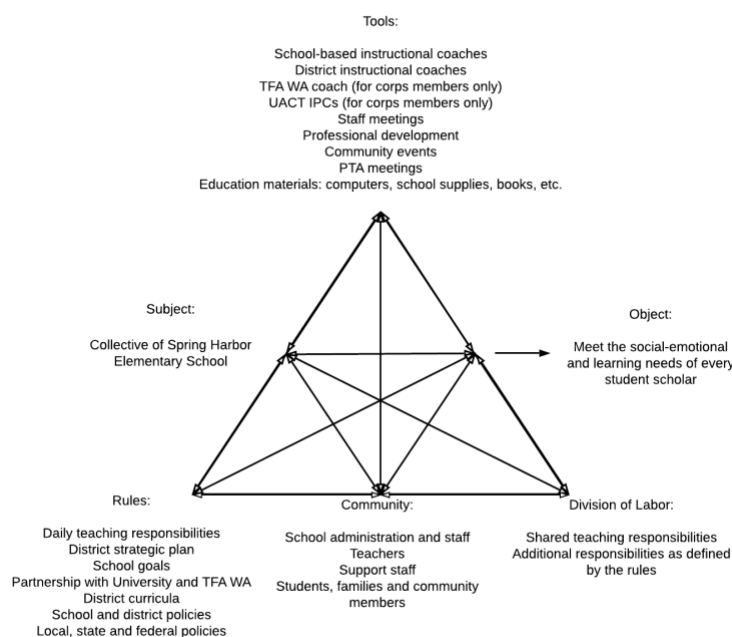


Figure 5.4. The Spring Harbor elementary school activity system.

The University-TFA/WA-School Relationship In UACT

So far in this chapter, I presented snapshots of the university, TFA/WA and Spring Harbor elementary school object-oriented activities, embedded within their collective contexts. Taken together, the three organizations described represent the collective of UACT. In the final step of analysis in this case, I shifted my analytic focus from the separate systems to the relationships between them. In reviewing the descriptive data from the university, partner organization, and partner school, I identified two central themes pertinent to the university-

school relationship in an alternative route teacher preparation program. First, while the context of learning to teach while teaching full time clearly resonated in the structures of each organization, diverging objects were found across activity systems. Second, findings showed that policies in both the university and TFA/WA organizations supported collaboration with the Spring Harbor activity system, however interaction between the university and TFA/WA activity systems was constrained.

Partnering around practice. As indicated by the document and interview data, the UACT program was organized around the fundamental ideas that teachers' daily practice should be at the center of learning to teach and instructing and assessing teachers should correspond with teachers' experience in the field. Doctoral student and UACT alumna, Jenny Stewart, is the instructor, or "team lead", for the math methods course. Jenny described how her course connects to the work in partner schools,

I think that we sort of get the opportunity to wrestle with the tensions of the theory-to-practice divide in our class because they [teacher candidates/corps members] already have those tensions coming up for them. So, we'll say "this is great activity to try with kids, it can help conceptual understandings of multiplication and division", and rather than them [teacher candidates] going six months or however long later to the classroom and finding out that the curriculum doesn't really allow for that, they'll say in the moment, "wait a minute, that's not in my curriculum. I'm on this really strict pacing guide. The administration in my building will never let me do that". So, there's pushback in the moment and we kind of get creative together about problem solving on how we can weave some of the essence of this [together]. I think there's so much nuance in teaching, there's this ideal put forth from the towers of knowledge and then there's the reality of

classroom life. And together in [the methods course], we get to figure out how to reconcile those two spaces. (J. Stewart, personal communication, December 20, 2018)

The commitment to situating methods courses in the teaching contexts of candidates is shared across UACT, as seen in Dr. Caniaso's reflection,

One thing I am proud of that, I think we do fairly well in UACT, is recognize that these are full-time working teachers. And our coursework has to be responsive to them and has to be responsive to the fact that they are teaching, taught all day today, teaching all day tomorrow, and the next day. (L. Caniaso, personal communication, November 18, 2018)

Spring Harbor elementary school had three first-year TFA/WA corps members at the time of this research, all three were participants in this study. Yael Anderson, a fourth-grade teacher, provided examples of school context overlapping with the UACT focus,

Some of the math concepts and math strategies we talk about [in math methods], especially ones that kids use, that's really helpful because it's allowed me to classify what students are doing when I'm teaching... In literacy [methods], I think the most helpful IPC was, they had us do a read-aloud. And, I'm doing a read-aloud right now of Harry Potter and the Sorcerer's Stone and it's helped me identify some areas where I can push for their [fourth-grade students] thinking and focus more on plot themes and thematic concepts. (Y. Anderson, personal communication, December 13, 2018)

The process of transferring content from methods coursework, applying it to classroom lessons and connecting it to the greater teaching practice exemplifies the UACT design principle of solving a Monday morning problem and building capacity at the same time.

Dilemmatic objects. The UACT program was designed around the assumption that members simultaneously participate in three activities: teacher candidates in UACT; corps

members in TFA/WA; and full time teachers in schools. While these activities intersect as discussed in the previous section, for instance with methods coursework translating to and conducted in virtue of the teaching context, each activity is organized by its own evolving object. According to the UACT case data, the multiple and at times diverging objects resulted in moments of conflict across systems. For example, Natasha Perry, a first-grade teacher in the UACT program, described her activity as a new teacher, in her words,

Everything is new. Before being part of TFA, I never really student-taught. We had our six week Summer Institute, and now we have so many different expectations. Like figuring out the curriculum, and on top of that, you know, we have staff meetings, and PDs, and 40 emails a day. Like there's so many obligations. (N. Perry, personal communication, December 13, 2018)

In activity theory terms, the expectations listed by Natasha are guided by the school's object of teaching students. Tools such as professional development and email, along with the other elements of the Lincoln school activity system, are organized toward the object of teaching students. The object also directs the activity of community members involved in the Lincoln school, including UACT teacher candidates who are hired by the school as full time teachers. Balancing the daily responsibilities of teaching would be challenging for all new teachers, however the challenges facing the UACT teacher candidates were complicated by their additional objects. In reflecting on encountered challenges, Yael shared an example of a divergence between coursework and her classroom, in her words,

We had to do a test with a student and identify their level of literacy development, identify something they needed to work on, and then come up with a lesson [based on the literacy needs]. And that is nothing that I ever do in class, we don't go about literacy in

that way. Probably just because of the curriculum that we have to use here. (Y. Anderson, personal communication, December 13, 2018)

In this quote, Yael was grappling with acting toward the UACT object of learning to teach, which included the tool of identifying student levels of literacy development, while also acting in the Lincoln school activity system, where she did not find a comparable tool. Debi Castillo, a second-grade teacher and fellow member of the UACT program, experienced the same issue, and noted, “when we kind of have to do it one-on-one, with one student, it's hard to find time” (D. Castillo, personal communication, December 13, 2018). Debi added that she appreciated gaining a better grasp of one specific student’s understanding but worried that the process was too time consuming to replicate with the rest of her students.

In addition to tensions caused by disconnects between the UACT and Spring Harbor goals, data revealed a systemic contradiction stemming from the TFA/WA object. In general terms, the object of preparing and supporting new teachers was shared across activities. Dr. Erickson articulated this mutual interest from the TFA WA perspective,

What's going on in UACT is obviously strong work, I believe in it. We all want to do the right thing by kids. I don't know anybody who doesn't at UW or at TFA. So, let's just start with that premise... (B. Erickson, personal communication, November 4, 2018).

However, as illustrated in fig. 5.3, the object orienting the TFA/WA activity included two layers that complicated the partnership work. First, the TFA/WA object of supporting new teachers was constrained by the organization’s policy that requires corps members to complete a two-year teaching commitment, after which they are released from the program. Second, the TFA/WA activity was concurrently organized by the objects of supporting teachers and developing leaders for systems-change. MTL D Sam discussed these two driving principles for TFA/WA,

With our mission, [corps members] may be in the classroom beyond two years, they may not, and we want to make sure that they are able to develop the skills to be a leader, in whatever setting they are, for systems change. So, our hope is that we're able to like focus on that kind of development. (S. Doan, personal communication, November 15, 2018)

The trouble with the TFA/WA objects appeared in the school interview data. Spring Harbor school principal, Maddie Douglas, is an alumna of both TFA and UACT and spoke highly of TFA/WA, describing herself as being “so pro of TFA”, noting her support of the diversity brought forth by the organization, “the mission behind TFA of really recruiting for diversity and working to meet the need of having teachers look like our students is amazing”. Yet, principal Douglas struggled to reconcile the school need for teacher retention with the TFA/WA objects,

I made it a commitment to have a conversation with every single one of [the corps members] about their 5-year or 10-year plan. Because I do think TFA attracts people who have ambitions that maybe are beyond the classroom, not necessarily in education. And so, how am I going to help grow that or encourage it as a way to keep them? (A. Douglas, personal communication, November 27, 2018)

The TFA/WA objects also appeared to be in contradiction with the university goals, which include upholding the value of preparing teacher candidates for a career in teaching and recognize the school benefits for limiting teacher attrition, a concept that is supported by research (e.g. Gallant & Riley, 2014; Hughes, 2012; Young, 2018).

To summarize, the motivation of supporting new teachers as they work full time in the classroom while pursuing certification was generally shared across the university-TFA/WA-Spring Harbor activities. However, data also showed instances of divergence between the intermediate goals of the university activity and the Spring Harbor activity. For example, the

university object of preparing teachers directed the intermediate goal in literacy methods of new teachers learning to identify the levels of literacy development of their students. This goal was well suited for the object of learning to teach, however it appeared in conflict with the Spring Harbor object of teaching students, which included intermediate goal around enacting the school-wide literacy curriculum and did not overlap with the literacy development activity.

Additionally, data showed that the TFA/WA object around developing leaders appeared be in a contradiction with the UACT and Spring Harbor objects.

Ongoing Constraints for Collaboration. Data on the collective of the UACT program revealed promising moments of local collaboration between the activity systems. However, systematic cross-system collaboration was limited. For example, the university found tool of submitting recorded videos of lessons enabled collaboration between the university and Spring Harbor activity systems. Jenny elaborated on collaborating with the school and the teacher candidates' classrooms, in her words,

I know the names of particular kids in their [teacher candidates] classrooms. I feel like we're connected to the classroom, it's a big part of how we build relationships with candidates... the video is really helpful because they [teacher candidates] turn in a lesson plan, get feedback on the lesson plan, and they enact that lesson. We [instructors] watch the video of their enactment and provide feedback, and they write a reflection about that video. So, we're dissecting the moments of practice in really intentional ways. Also, this year we started having candidates watch their video with a peer and reflect together. (J.

Stewart, personal communication, December 20, 2018)

Isadora agreed that video analysis of teaching helped connect her literacy course coursework with the field, "in terms of how we connect to the classrooms, we watch their videos" (I.

Hamilton, personal communication, December 30, 2018), and noted that methods courses meet once a week and have built-in time for learning about the teacher candidates' classrooms school activities.

Data additionally illustrated a collaborative and sustained relationship between Spring Harbor elementary school and TFA/WA, primarily through the MTLT coaches. MTLT Bianca Lewis highlighted her integration into schools, "I think personally this is probably the thing I'm most proud of, I feel like I coach very seamlessly hand-in-hand with the schools" (B. Lewis, personal communication, November 14, 2018). When discussing the partnership between her school and TFA/WA, principal Douglas identified Bianca as a "connection" and "liaison", and described the relationship as collaborative, "we talk multiple times a week on what the school is working on and how corps members need to incorporate it" (A. Douglas, personal communication, November 27, 2018). Other Spring Harbor community members, such as corps member Debi, considered Bianca to be a mentor, "Bianca is super helpful. She's here at least like once a week. Honestly, I learn best through like in the moment, like this is what you need to do, or you should have done this" (D. Castillo, personal communication, December 13, 2018).

However, the collaboration between the university and Spring Harbor was limited. Principal Douglas explained that as a graduate of the UACT program she is aware of the general program structure and vision and considers the university's approach to preparing teachers as "the thing that's the most current, research-based, right now", but wondered about ways to deepen collaboration between the school and program,

I would love to know what's happening in UACT, like just being in the loop would be helpful, so I could connect my feedback to what I know they [corps members] are focusing on. [UACT coursework] shouldn't just be isolated and live in your IPC – I

know this is what you were practicing during your [literacy methods course], how are you prepping like this for your lessons?’ (A. Douglas, personal communication, November 27, 2018)

Furthermore, data across organizations demonstrated interaction between the university and TFA/WA were also highly constrained. As one corps member explained, “I view my relationship with TFA through the lens of my relationship with Bianca, who is my coach. I see TFA more as a mentor; whereas I see UACT as [teacher] education... like, it’s where I take my classes”. The corps member’s implication in this excerpt was that the role of the TFA coach was one of support and mentorship while the university role was academic. When asked what role the university coursework and IPCs played in their work with corps members, the MTLT coaches agreed that content covered in coursework is seldom present in their coaching. This problem appeared in Sam’s reflection on the collaboration between her work as an MTLT and the university instructors, in her words,

I think UACT gives my teachers routines and methods to implement in their classrooms really effectively, regardless of their curriculum. They become stronger teachers and they’re able to bring tools that I’m not necessarily familiar with. I wasn’t an elementary teacher, so a lot of my coaching doesn’t come down to very specific methodology. (S. Doan, personal communication, November 15, 2018)

Yet, Sam concluded with saying she is generally disconnected from UACT coursework and rarely interacts with team leads. Bianca also highlighted the potential merits increasing opportunities for collaboration,

I personally love all the UACT instructors and consider most of them friends or like very close acquaintances... My ideal would be like, “Oh, this is what they talked about in

class this week. This is what the IPC was on. So, I should be watching for these things.”

And this conversation is making me realize that there's no reason why that can't happen.... But I have to be honest. I'm personally not doing that, we're not really connecting over the content they're learning in UACT. (B. Lewis, personal communication, November 14, 2018)

The process for collaborating with the MTLDs was also undefined in the university activity system, and interview data suggested that the coaching guidance provided by MTLDs was largely unknown to the instructors. When asked about her communication with the TFA/WA coaches, one university instructor replied,

I think that this year the only interaction, I've actually never even met Bianca in person, or if I did, I don't remember them. I mean, it would've been a while ago. Um, and I think that that's probably an area we need to think about more. The only communication that we've had has been around emails for teacher candidates of concern. (I. Hamilton, personal communication, December 30, 2018).

To summarize, the activity of supporting alternatively-certified teacher candidates was shared among the MTLD coaches and university team leads in their respective divisions of labor, yet structures for collaboration were limited.

The findings discussed in this chapter bring forth two themes between the university, TFA/WA, and Spring Harbor school activity systems as they engage in the joint practice of preparing teachers in an alternative certification program. The relationship between the three organizations as derived from the data is depicted in figure 5.5 with a full graphic summary of Engeström's (2001) model for two or more interacting activity systems. The limited alignment of goals and practices that surfaced in the university and Spring Harbor activities created tension (a)

depicted with the help of a two-headed lightning-shaped arrow between the objects of the two activity systems. The TFA/WA dual-object produced a cross-system contradiction (b) depicted with the help of a two-headed lightning-shaped arrow between the TFA/WA object and the objects of the university and Spring Harbor activity systems. Lastly, the constrained collaboration, primarily between the TFA/WA and the university activity systems produced a cross-system tension (c). Tension (c) is represented as a two-headed lightning-shaped arrow between the TFA/WA and university divisions of labor.

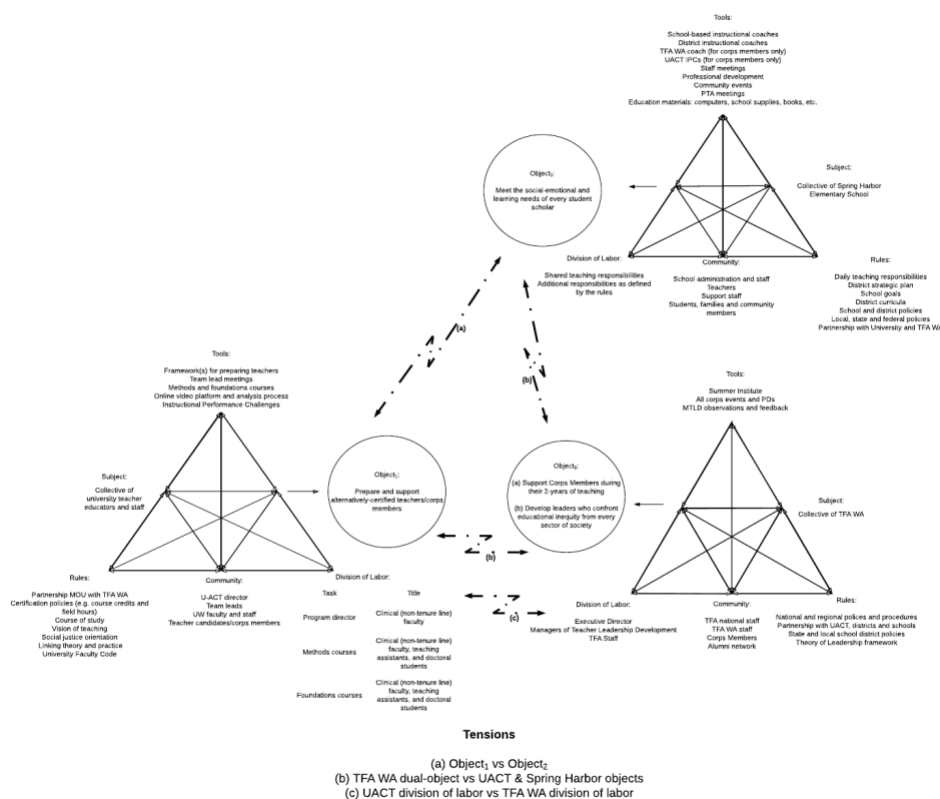


Figure 5.5. The collective of UACT partnerships

Chapter Six: The STR Case

In this chapter, I present the Seattle Teacher Residency (STR) case. Chapter Six examines the university-school relationship in a teacher residency model and is structured in four parts. In the first section, I present an overview of the STR program, defined as the collective of partnerships oriented toward the shared object of preparing teachers. Next, I present data describing the involved organizations and draw on an activity theory analysis to depict the partners, in the context of the STR program. I conclude the chapter by identifying themes germane to the conceptualization and enactment of STR collective and depict the findings using an activity system analysis lens.

The STR Overview

The Seattle Teacher Residency is part of the National Center for Teacher Residencies network¹⁹ and is the newest teacher education program in the university, established in 2012. Professor Kirschbaum was among those who provided mentorship for the design of the multi-partner program and spoke to the collaborative process,

I really feel good about that [initial design] process in terms of the expertise of schools, the community and the university coming together to create a program... I was worried that it would be another university comes in and dominates the process. But we [had] people from the central office, principals, there were teaches, it involved more people on both the university and the school sides. (L. Kirschbaum, personal communication, December 20, 2018)

The specific partnering organizations that make up the STR collective include: the Seattle Public School (SPS) district; the Seattle Education Association (SEA) labor union; the Alliance for

¹⁹ A detailed history and description of NCTR can be found in chapter three

Education; and the University. The shared goals of the STR collective of partnerships are outlined in the School Board Action Report (2018),

The STR theory of change rests on the assumption that teacher preparation is not just university endeavor, but instead requires partnership and collaboration in all aspects of the recruitment, preparation and retention of high-quality teachers. All four partners (Seattle Public Schools, Seattle Education Association, University of Washington and the Alliance for Education) have aligned goals to recruit a diverse workforce, to ensure that preparation is integrated, rigorous and context specific and ensure teacher residents commitment to teach for five years in SPS.²⁰

Dr. Shana Levy, the Chief Human Resources Officer for the SPS, the largest district in the state, discussed the overall objectives for STR from the school district's perspective, in her words,

My core interest is making sure there's a high-quality teacher in the classroom, on the very first day of school... The Seattle teacher residency program is a key strategy to diversify the educator workforce... The [teacher residents] are very well prepared, they're steeped in Seattle Public School curriculum. Then they [STR graduates] commit to five years of teaching in our Title I schools. So, for us it's a recruitment strategy, a retention strategy... these are people that stay, they're committed to our Title I schools... we invest in them and then they invest back in our students. (S. Levy, personal communication, December 21, 2018)

²⁰ Taken from the School Board Action Report:
https://www.seattleschools.org/UserFiles/Servers/Server_543/File/District/Departments/School%20Board/17-18%20agendas/20180321/I03_20180321_STR.pdf

Saul Rodríguez, Vice President of the Seattle Education Association²¹, shared a similar understanding of the STR collective work, “the union has a strong interest in recruitment, in retention of high-quality educators, and the recruitment or retention of educators of color, which are STR’s goals” (S. Rodríguez, personal communication, November 16, 2018). Lastly, the STR director of clinical practice, Sarah Reed, explained role of the Alliance for Education, also referred to as “The Alliance”²², in the context of the STR collective, “all four of us [program director, program recruiter, director of clinical practice and curriculum supervisor] are based at the Alliance. That’s where our office is, we’re considered Alliance staff” (S. Reed, personal communication, November 18, 2018).

A program-wide analysis of the STR program might depict the collective of partnerships as one whole activity system, as seen in figure 6.1.

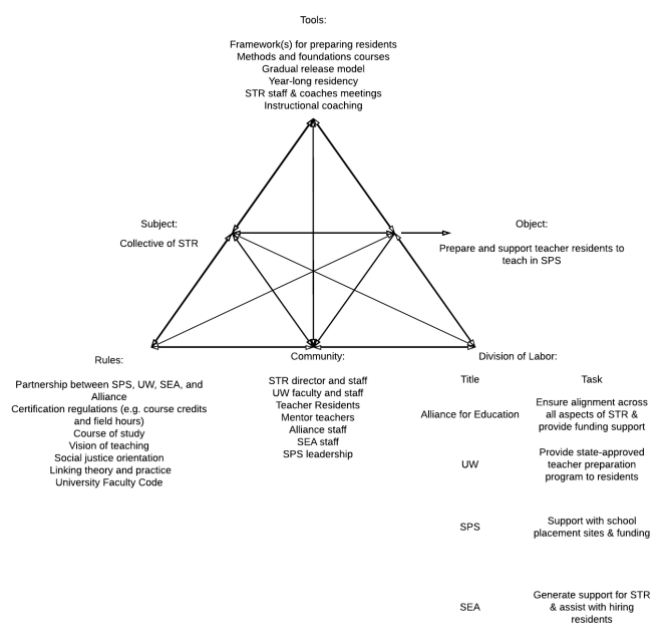


Figure 6.1. Program level STR activity system

²¹ The stated mission of SEA is to be “the voice of Seattle’s public-school educators, uniting members as powerful activists for professionalism, equity and integrity in public education” (taken from the partners page of STR’s website: <http://www.seattleteacherresidency.org/about/partners/>)

²² Taken from the home website of Alliance for Education: <http://www.alliance4ed.org/who-we-are/our-programs/>

As demonstrated by the data, the STR program can be defined as a collective of four partners jointly participating in the activity of teacher preparation. Figure 6.1 places the collective of the STR program as the *subject* in the activity system. The *community* of significant others in the STR case includes members from the SEA union, the Alliance, the SPS district, and the university. The collective activity of the STR program is oriented toward the *object* of preparing teacher residents in the context of the SPS district. This object gives meaning to the other elements of the activity system. For example, the *tools* used to help achieve results include coursework and the practicum residency. Other tools that mediate the STR object-oriented activity of preparing teachers include: funding support and office space for program leadership, as provided by the Alliance for Education; facilitation during the hiring process and induction year support, as provided by SEA; and collaboration on field placement and mentorship throughout the residency year, as provided by SPS.

The STR collective activity is regulated by the *rules* element. For instance, STR program rules constrain the activity to the SPS district and state policies for residency teacher preparation impact the university credit load and field hours requirements. Lastly, as seen in fig. 6.1, the *division of labor* follows a complex structure in the STR program. The SEA union activity includes representing members, providing teachers with professional development and leading Collective Bargaining Agreements. The Alliance tasks include broad goals such serving as a “convener of community leadership”. The SPS district is responsible for providing partner schools to host the practicum component of the program. And, the university tasks are focused on conducting courses and supporting residents in the field.

An activity theory analysis of the STR partners would likely be helpful for understanding the complex, multifaceted and evolving work taken up by each organization. However, the

overarching focus of this research is framed by the relationship between teacher education programs and partner schools as they engage in the joint practice of preparing new teachers, and the concrete focus of this chapter is on the relationship between a teacher residency program and a partner school of focus. As such, I continue my investigation of the STR program and examine the university and the partner school activity systems, in the context of the collective STR partnership.

The University Activity System In STR

The Seattle Teacher Residency is a five-quarter-long master's in teaching program that prepares participants to become teachers in Seattle Public Schools. The program mission is to “accelerate student achievement through the preparation, support, and retention of a group of exceptional teachers in Seattle Public Schools whose diversity reflects the demographics of their students.”²³ Program director Dr. Hershlag expanded on the Seattle-specific goals, “we're not preparing people that are just gonna get hired anywhere they want. They're getting hired in the schools that they were prepared in or in ones like them, and it's our responsibility to know and connect to those schools and communities” (K. Hershlag, personal communication, November 1, 2018). In activity theory terms, the *object* orienting the activity, motivating the subject, and driving the system's elements is to prepare teachers in the context of and for classrooms in Seattle Public Schools.

The *subject* for the activity system analysis is the collective of university teacher educators and staff, including the STR instructional team of clinical (non-tenure line) faculty. The program's approach to preparing teachers is largely modeled on the pioneering teacher residency programs that applied the medical residency model to teacher preparation (e.g. Boston,

²³Taken from the home website of STR: <http://www.seattleteacherresidency.org/>

Chicago, and Denver). Preservice teachers, known as teacher residents or residents, engage in a “blended experience of classroom apprenticeship with aligned, graduate-level course work”²⁴. The program begins in the summer with teacher residents participating in practice-based coursework. As was the case with the objects orienting the activity of the teacher education programs presented in Chapters Four and Five, the object of preparing teacher residents is best understood as a moving target: fluid and continually reconstituting itself. An example of the object’s evolving nature can be seen in an overview of the university coursework sequence as shared by the math methods instructor, Eileen Sarfati, “in the summer, all of my coursework is taught at a school. Most of the time it is with and around kids... And in the fall, winter, and spring [methods courses] are in the evenings” (E. Sarfati, personal communication, November 9, 2018). The object of preparing teachers, which organizes the activity system, is manifested in intermediate goals throughout the activity. For instance, during the start of the program the university activity in the context of the STR collective is oriented toward engaging with university-led summer coursework. Once the K-12 school year begins and teacher residents are placed in their partner schools full-time, the object of teacher preparation is reconstructed to include the school-based residency activity.

The object also organizes other elements in the university activity system, such as *tools*. One of the tools created to help achieve the object of preparing teachers in the residency program is the process of matching teacher residents with mentor teachers. The university draws on tools such as extensive applications, recommendations from principals, observations by STR staff, and a series of interviews between teacher residents and mentor teachers to assist with effective matches. The ensuing year-long practicum of teaching alongside assigned mentor teachers is also

²⁴ Taken from the STR program description: <https://seattleteacherresidency.org/our-program/>

considered a tool in the activity system. Coursework is another tool used to help act toward the object of preparing teacher residents. The program emphasizes math and literacy methods courses, but includes additional courses such as classroom management, science methods, social studies methods, and a seminar on equity in education (See Appendix O for the STR Course of Study).

The *community* in the STR collective is extensive and includes members from the partner organizations, program leadership, university faculty and staff, district leadership, SEA representatives, mentor teachers, and others who share an interest in and involvement with the object. The role of community members and the overall activity of the system is regulated by *rules*. For example, the rule of linking theory with practice and following the Core Practices framework [See Appendix P for Core Practices] direct the focus of university coursework. Additionally, the rule of learning to teach in and for the SPS district constrains the methods courses to “fit within the framework of Seattle Public Schools’ instructional framework” (Program Handbook, 2019, p.21).

Finally, the *division of labor* element illustrates how activity tasks are shared. For example, the work allocated to the Alliance staff, such as directing the program and supervising the clinical practice, is part the division of labor element. In addition to the distribution of tasks, the division of labor also refers to how power and access to resources are shared among the object-oriented activity. In this context, the tasks of preparing teachers and interacting with partner schools are primarily taken up by the university course instructors. Additionally, the STR program offers the unique structure of positioning the university methods instructors as instructional coaches who provide support for residents in the field. As such, university methods

instructors teach residents in courses and coach residents in the field, affording a direct connection between two of the primary program features in the STR collective activity.

Figure 6.2 illustrates a full graphic summary of Engeström's (1987) model, showing the university activity system in the context of the STR program, with the collective of teacher educators and staff as the subject engaging the object of preparing teacher residents. The relational properties found in the structure of the activity are represented by two-headed arrows between elements.

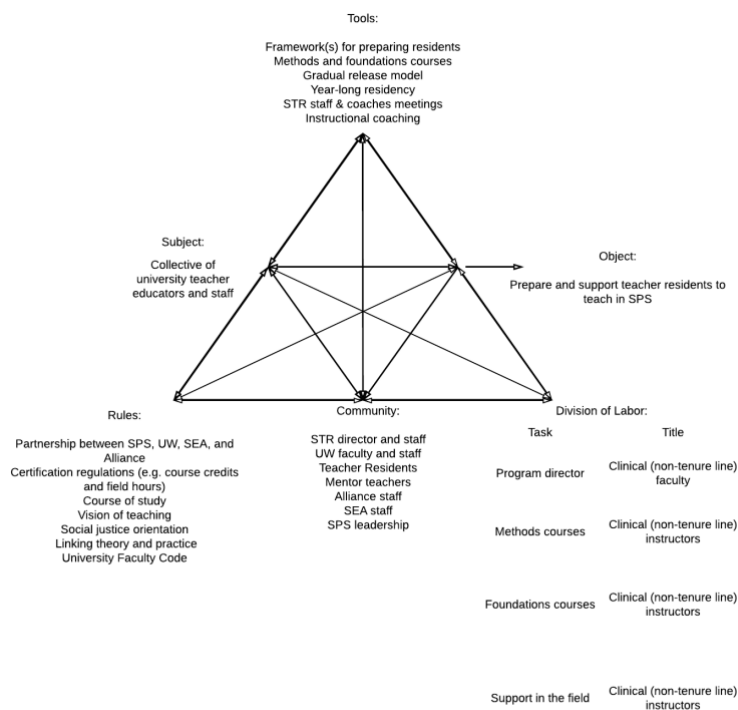


Figure 6.2. The university activity system in STR

James Madison Elementary School Activity System

The partner school selected for the STR case is James Madison Elementary School, in the Seattle Public School district. James Madison is a kindergarten through fifth-grade Title I school serving approximately 330 students. According to the report on the school, 35% of the students are English Learners, and 64% are from Low Income families. The school mission statement

identifies James Madison as a “culturally diverse community where students are nurtured, and learning is celebrated... [James Madison] provides a caring learning environment that promotes academic, social, and emotional growth for all students”. Additionally, the school is “committed to dismantling institutional bias so that all students in our community get the support they need to succeed”. James Madison’s school vision focuses on student academic success and holds that all students “will meet or exceed academic standards as we work in partnership with families and our community to close the opportunity gap in an enriched learning environment that includes arts integration, social emotional learning, environmental and technology studies”.

The *subject* in the STR partner school activity include teachers, specialists, school support staff and school administrators. The activity of the subject is oriented by and the *object*. The object in the James Madison partner school activity is providing a caring learning environment that promotes academic, social, and emotional growth for all students. This object is best understood as an evolving concept that gives meaning to the activity system. In this context, the school object includes various goals and focus areas, such as: 1) increase the reading proficiency of African American students and of ELL students; 2) increase the level of student performance on math assessment, with a focus on ELL and Black subgroups; 3) support student social emotional learning. To meet these goals, James Madison put forth a comprehensive plan that includes school-wide programs, as stated in the school’s Continuous School Improvement Plan, “in order to address disparities of subsets of students who are meeting benchmark standards in math and English Language Arts, we use curriculum, systems and supports” (2018).

The goals and the object of the school activity are resonant in every element. For instance, the activities of teachers, staff, school leaders, students and families, who make up the school *community*, are affected by the object. In working to meet the goals and achieve the

object, members of the James Madison community look for *tools* to mediate their activity. For example, the school literacy program uses the SPS district-wide literacy curriculum, developed by the Center for the Collaborative Classroom (CCC), and the school math program draws on the SPS math scope and sequence and related curriculum materials. Teachers in James Madison use the school curricula to guide their object-oriented activity. The school activity is regulated by *rules*, such as adhering to state and district benchmarks for student achievement. In the context of the STR collective, the school activity is also regulated by the rule of partnering with the university and hosting teacher residents in mentor teacher classrooms. Lastly, the *division of labor* in the school activity system is shared among the school administration, teachers, specialists, support staff, community members. Teachers who take on a teacher resident become mentor teachers and acquire additional responsibilities, such as facilitating the year-long apprenticeship of their teacher resident. Mentor teachers receive financial compensated for the additional work.

Figure 6.3 illustrates a full graphic summary of Engeström's (1987) model, showing the James Madison elementary school activity system. The object-oriented activity of the school can be better understood through an analysis of the transactional relationships between the system's elements, indicated by the two-headed arrows between nodes in fig. 6.3.

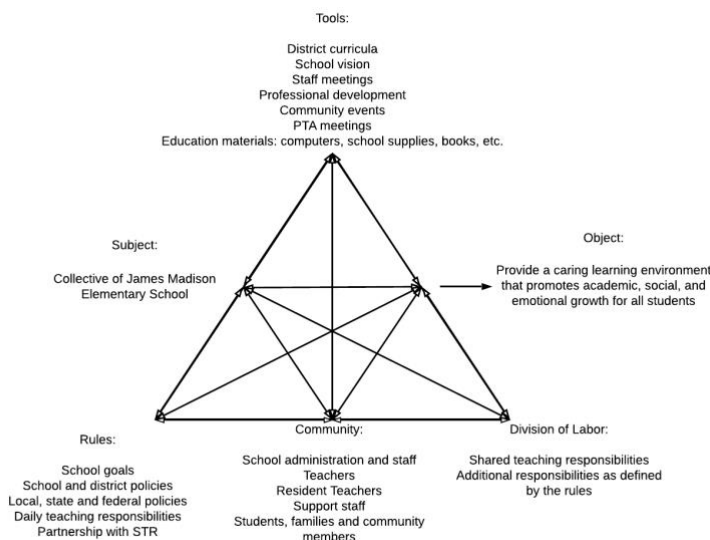


Figure 6.3. The James Madison elementary school activity system.

The University-School Relationship In STR

In the previous sections, I presented object-oriented activities of the university and James Madison elementary school systems, embedded within their collective contexts. In the final step of analysis in this case, I shifted my analytic focus from the separate systems to the relationships between them and consider systemic implications. In reviewing the descriptive data, I identified two emergent themes pertaining to the university-school relationship in the teacher residency preparation program. First, data revealed that the partnership between the university and James Madison school in the context of the STR program was supported by organizational structures that enabled cross-system cooperation. Second, data demonstrated that the objects orienting the involved organizations two differed at times, resulting in reverberating tensions across system elements.

Structures for collaboration. Data demonstrated that collaboration between the university and James Madison school was systematic and appeared primarily in the division of labor element of the activity systems. Collaboration was additionally supported by tools found in the activity systems. For example, as explained by Dr. Hershlag, the tasks assigned to the STR

methods instructors included teaching coursework and the additional role of coaching residents in the field,

We have an instructional team that has experience teaching in public schools and they are continuously like engaged with kids in multiple ways based on their area of expertise... our methods instructors, who are our coaches, are constantly out in the field hoping to make connections. (K. Hershlag, personal communication, November 1, 2018)

Coaches were responsible for monitoring resident progress and used observation tools to guide their work in the field [See Appendix N for Coach Observation Tool]. Literacy methods instructor Dr. Carrie Sigler described her additional role as an instructional coach, “as coaches we officially do two formal [observations] and two or three drop-ins each quarter. But I try to have a touch point with them [residents] every week, sometimes outside of their placement school” (C. Sigler, personal communication, November 19, 2018). This organizational characteristic afforded direct contact between the university methods instructors, the partner school mentor teachers, and the teacher residents. For example, math methods instructor and coach Eileen described how she approaches coaching,

I almost always make sure we’re there together. Yeah. So, resident, me, and the mentor teacher. And I do that because I want the mentor teacher— One, I wanna hear what the mentor teacher has to say, but I also want the mentor teacher to hear what I'm saying. So, I think of that as a little as a let’s get on the same page moment. If they're gonna disagree, they have at least heard what I am saying. (E. Sarfati, personal communication, November 9, 2018)

The STR program structures also positioned mentor teachers as significant members in the teacher preparation process. Dr. Hershlag spoke on the role mentor teachers play in the program,

The mentor teacher is the person that hosts the resident for the full year... I hope that their mentors understand that they as teacher educators are the connector [to coursework], they're chosen because they can model what is being learned in the courses. (K.

Hershlag, personal communication, November 1, 2018)

To help with the teacher education process, mentor teachers drew on tools such as “The STR Gradual Release” document which offered a schedule for weekly meetings and provided systems for collaborating (See Appendix M for The STR Gradual Release document). Finally, the division of labor among the university community members included charging the course instructors with conducting professional development sessions for mentor teachers throughout the year. These sessions, known as “mentor PDs”, provided overviews of content covered in coursework and shared mentoring resources. Jody Hu, an experienced teacher but a first-time mentor teacher, shared her thoughts on the mentor PDs,

I think as a mentor, you know, there are responsibilities of a mentor that I'm not— it's new to me because I've never been a mentor before. So, I think it's important to be aware of that role and how do I provide that mentorship for my resident, and those are some things that I'm learning from those mentor PDs and also hearing from like other mentors who've mentored for a while and how they're providing support for their resident. (J. Hu, personal communication, December 12, 2018)

These examples show that program structures, such as division of labor, enabled moments of collaboration across organizational boundaries of the collective STR program.

Clash between objects. As shown in fig. 6.1, the collective STR activity was driven by the communal motive to prepare teachers. This motive was embedded in the object of the STR activity, which is to be understood as a process rather than a single goal. As such, the process of

preparing teachers was the object organizing the STR activity and guiding the STR elements. At the same time, the James Madison school activity was driven by the communal motive to educate elementary school students, as illustrated in fig. 6.3. This motive was embedded in the object, also to be understood as a process, and guided the James Madison school activity. As discussed in the preceding section, the university and school activity systems engaged in productive collaboration, which suggests that the two objects were not necessarily in hostile opposition. However, as revealed by the data, the multiple objects appeared to be incongruous at times and led to moments of tension between the partnership. This issue was cogently represented in a December, 2018 interview with teacher resident Pamela Kim:

BK From your perspective, how do you see the course work that you're doing in STR connect to what you are experiencing in the classroom?

PK I think – or one of the things that I guess comes to mind first is like Math the way that Eileen has been teaching us. It's like, choosing between direct teaching or like giving kids that exploration of figuring out – figuring out concepts themselves. I feel like my placement is a lot more direct teaching.

BK So, say more about that. Why do you think that is?

PK We do more of the, so this is the concept you need to learn, this is the skill, this is the strategy or the method. Then we'll try it as a class and then you try it on yourself. Whereas, Eileen she has a lot more – I guess would you call it inquiry? With the kids basically giving their own strategies or more of that learning through problem-solving rather than learning to problem-solve.

Pamela added that while she is supported by her mentor teacher in trying different approaches in the classroom, after enacting a math methods practice called “number talk” her mentor teacher had to re-teach the lesson to ensure the math curriculum content was covered,

I think where I felt like it clash a little bit was that I think it’s slower sometimes. After I did a couple number talks, Jody had to like catch them up to where she wanted them to be or what she wanted them to learn. (P. Kim, personal communication, December 12, 2018)

The methods courses were guided by the Core Practices framework, which was informed by the program object of preparing teachers. In this case, the “number talk” activity was an example of the Core Practice of “positioning students as competent sense makers by placing student thinking at the center of academic work”. The partner school classroom was guided by the school curriculum, which was organized by the school object of teaching students and included a pacing guide that constrained some activities. Thus, a moment of contradiction emerged between the math methods course, as guided by the object of learning to teach in the residency program, and the partner classroom goal, as guided by the object of teaching students in the James Madison school.

A similar discord between the objects surfaced in the literacy methods course and the CCC literacy curriculum. In activity theory terms, the literacy methods course can be understood as an STR tool mediating the object-oriented of preparing teachers. The course emphasizes concepts such as “integrating students' ideas, lived experiences, cultures, languages, and diverse beliefs and understandings into planning and instruction, addressing potential biases in curriculum”. Similarly, the CCC literacy curriculum can be understood as a tool in the James Madison system, meant to help act toward the object of teaching students. As teacher resident Tina Feldman described, the meeting of these two tools resulted in friction,

We pretty much follow the CCC curriculum... I think one of the things is like that lens of, how or what's being represented – who's being represented in these books? And like sometimes CCC does a good job and then other times it's like, okay, we read about five white characters in a row... Knowing that like that's probably the curriculum I'm supposed to use next year too, I feel like I would (pause and laugh) actually, knowing me I wouldn't stick to it perfectly. But I would try to do it with fidelity and then like analyze where could I swap books out. (T. Feldman, personal communication, December 12, 2018)

Tina added that she wondered whether this experience was broader than one curriculum, “when schools are taking on or classrooms are taking on certain curriculums [sic], there is less room to try on the things in general... So, it's like, okay, I just follow the curriculum (laughs), there's a discrepancy there”. Principal Curran also expressed concern about the discrepancy,

Back to the curriculum. We may be entering into an era of divergent practices with the district's adoption of a highly structured curriculum with the district messaging being like this is what we're teaching... There may be some misalignment and that will be something we will have to figure out how to work through. And my hope is that there will be a pathway to do so. (N. Curran, personal communication, November 22, 2018)

In addition to tensions appearing in the presences of a curriculum, a cross-system contradiction stemming from diverging objects was manifested in the absence a curriculum, as presented in Pamela's recollection on a summer course,

We had a course in the summer, Indigenous Perspectives. You're seeing this whole curriculum available for teaching like native history and teaching about current natives' perspectives... The course in the summer was helpful and then all of a sudden it

disappeared in the classroom. It was just like, whoa, like there's no space for that at all.

(P. Kim, personal communication, December 12, 2018)

The Indigenous Perspectives course was another tool used to act on the object of preparing teachers. However, the priorities for the James Madison object of teaching students differed, showing a conflict between objects.

The findings discussed in this chapter bring forth two themes on the collective activity of the STR partnership oriented toward the joint practice of preparing teachers in teacher residency program. The relationship between the university and partner school as derived from the data is depicted in figure 6.4 with a full graphic summary of Engeström's (2001) model for two or more interacting activity systems. The friction (a) resulting for moments of incongruity between the university and James Madison elementary school objects is depicted with the help of a two-headed lightning-shaped arrow between the objects of the two activity systems. Additionally, the instances of conflicting objects suggest a contradiction (b) between other activity system elements, primarily between the university and James Madison elementary school tools, depicted the help of a two-headed lightning-shaped arrow between the two system nodes.

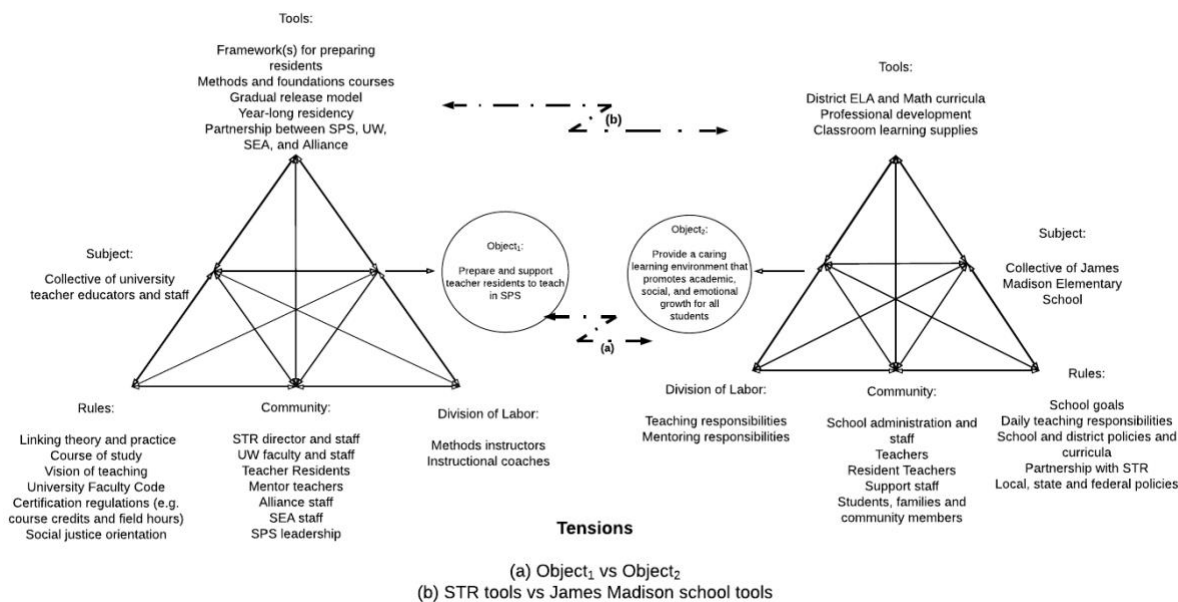


Figure 6.4. The collective of STR partnerships

Chapter 7: Cross Case Analysis

In Chapters Four, Five, and Six, I captured a moment in the history of the university-school relationship in three different cases, defined as the partnerships in the ELTEP, UACT, and STR programs. The research purpose across the cases was to contribute to the scholarship on the university-school divide in the context of teacher education by examining the partnerships from an organizational perspective and analyzing the dialectical relationship between the individual subjects and the collective systems in each program. Using activity theory as my conceptual framework in each case allowed me to shift the focus from individual activity to collective activity, an approach that has been found useful in “organization studies, where there is often an interest in studying how individuals coordinate their actions within the collective activity of a group, unit, division or organization” (Jarzabkowski, 2010, p. 129). To this end, analysis in each case followed a similar two-part structure: first, I analyzed the two or more organizations involved in the partnership; second, I analyzed the partnership as a collective activity oriented toward a shared goal and presented case themes as they emerged in the data.

In this chapter, I present an analysis across cases that addresses the question of how the organizational characteristics found in each partnership afforded or constrained opportunities to develop the university-school relationships in the context of teacher education. Chapter Seven focuses on three main tenets of activity theory, as described by Engeström (1995): the role of objects, the role of contradictions and the role of collaborative learning. This chapter is organized around three findings that emerged from the data across cases: first, the problem of competing motives, priorities and objects between organizations appeared across the cases; second, the varying organizational structures allowed the partnerships to engage the similar problem in

different ways; and three, opportunities for collaboration and organizational learning varied across the cases, and were partly shaped by the locus of decision making.

The Common Problem

In activity theory terms, the distinctive concept of the object refers to the evolving desire and problem-area at which human activity is directed (Kaptelinin & Nardi, 2006). The object is an expansive notion that orients the activity's goals and gives meaning to the members of the system, and their actions. As Toivainen (2007) writes, the object "represents and 'explains' the collective motive of activity" (p. 345). The first cross-case finding is on the shared problem, which is constituted as multiple objects of activity across cases. This finding is better understood in two parts: 1) the joint activities of the multi-system partnerships presented across the cases were organized and given meaning by the partially shared object of teacher candidates and their ongoing process of learning to teach; and 2) the organizations involved in the shared activity of preparing teachers were concurrently oriented toward additional objects which guided their activity and caused systemic contradictions.

Partially shared object. Evidence of shared purposes appeared across the three cases. For instance, Professor Tracee Butler, the director of ELTEP, described the university's approach for developing partnerships with schools,

We work with the district. The district gives us permission to go to certain schools and we talk about who we want to partner with and what our needs are. Our desire [is] to teach kids who are traditionally marginalized by the educational system. (T. Butler, personal communication, November 5, 2018)

Principal Olivier also discussed the shared commitments between her school and the university, and summarized her position, "I know that ELTEP has a clear and articulated focus on social

justice, which aligns very nicely with our beliefs about teaching in a Title I school, and teaching in general” (D. Olivier, personal communication, November 19, 2018). Partnerships comprising the collectives of the UACT and STR programs similarly noted common values and motives. For example, Principal Curran pointed to the shared STR program goal of closing the achievement gap and discussed the benefit of having teacher residents in her school,

It's a year-long residency, which creates stability in schools. It's like having another teacher in the room, it's a huge benefit to both staff and our students... they [residents] bring their own knowledge to the classroom. There are things they want to try, it's innovation. (N. Curran, personal communication, November 22, 2018)

The partially shared object was also present in the UACT collective, between the university and TFA/WA organization, as noted by the program director Dr. Caniaso,

We all want the same thing. We tend to go about it in slightly different ways. So, I'm always trying to be aware of what are the things for TFA's big mission...The alignment that we have right now is the strongest it's ever been in our 8-year partnership. (L. Caniaso, personal communication, November 18, 2018)

Additionally, the shared object was manifested in common themes across the cases, such as mutual appreciation of teaching for social justice, similar frameworks for preparing teachers, and in shared contexts like partnerships between elementary teacher preparation programs and public elementary schools. As such, the collective activity in each case was partially motivated and oriented toward the shared goal of preparing and supporting teachers.

Diverging priorities. Activity theory explains that the object gives meaning to every system element and determines values of various entities in the activity (Engeström, 2001). While the partnerships shared common contexts, as described in the preceding section, the

objects of activity for the organizations involved in the partnerships differed in each case. Across the cases, the university perceived the object of activity as the teacher candidate and the process of preparing teachers while the partner schools perceived the primary problem area or object of activity as the K-5 student and teaching. Activity theory suggests that the object, or problem area, is ever-evolving, and might be perceived and articulated differently among participants based on their place in the activity system (Foot, 2002; Kaptelinin, 2005). This finding aligns with other activity theory scholarship on partnership work in teacher education. For example, in their examination of mentoring teacher candidates in primary schools, Edwards and Protheroe (2004) describe the issue of multiple perspectives for the object,

If the community is the school or classroom with their goals of curriculum coverage and pupil performance then the object is not the student teacher, but is either, or probably both, the pupils and the curriculum task. If the community is the training partnership, then the object is the student teacher and her learning outcomes. (p. 192)

Situating this cross-case finding in activity theory terms helps bring its significance into focus.

From the perspectives of the Lincoln, Spring Harbor and James Madison schools, the behavior of the community members, the tools found and created in the school system, and the rules and norms regulating the school activity were directed by the object of teaching students.

Conversely, the activity of the university in the context of the ELTEP, UACT and STR cases, including the community members, tools, and rules was organized by the problem area or object of teacher education. Additionally, in the UACT case, the TFA/WA activity was oriented toward the object of preparing corps members as teachers and as leaders. When the activity systems interacted in partnership in the context of teacher education, their activities became at once

motivated by the collective object of preparing teachers and the initial object that they brought with them.

The divergence in purpose, as directed by the objects, within the collective activity over time are understood as accumulating tensions in the object. The accumulation of tensions can result in systemic, change inducing contradictions, primarily occurring in the object of activity. For instance, the ultimate purpose of the Lincoln activity system is teaching the K-5 students enrolled in the school. In working to achieve this goal, Lincoln teachers used tools such as the school-wide math and literacy curricula to enact lessons with their students. The ultimate purpose and the object of activity for the university partner in the ELTEP collective is preparing teachers to teach in elementary schools. Actions toward the university goal included instructors drawing on tools, such as the methods coursework, meant to develop the emerging practice of new teachers. However, data in the ELTEP case showed that teacher candidates faced tensions when they attempted to apply their university coursework tools, such as math and literacy strategies, in the Lincoln school classrooms. This challenge stemmed from moments of misalignment between the tools, as determined by the objects of the two activity systems.

Tensions from competing objects were also present in the UACT case, however appeared in unique ways due to the organizational structure of the program. While the field work component in the UACT case provided ample opportunities for enacting practice and did not require the cooperation of a mentor teacher, it also highlighted the prominent role of object in collective activities. As full-time teachers employed by the school, the UACT teacher candidates were significant members of the Spring Harbor school activity system, and part of the collective of the school acting on the object of teaching Spring Harbor students. Consequently, moments of

divergence between the university and school priorities were particularly striking in the UACT case, as seen in this teacher reflection,

[Methods courses] are helpful, like we had a “Quick Images” IPC and that's a thing we do least at least once a week at this point. And then like “read alouds”, that's also something that we do... but it is difficult to try to, like, okay, I'm a first-year teacher and like I am still staying at school until you know seven o'clock at night. It's a lot. Going to different community events or a PTA meeting. Thinking about what I have in place for tomorrow, what happened today... So ultimately, when I feel like UACT benefits me and my scholars but in a more abstract way, it kind of comes last. (N. Perry, personal communication, December 13, 2018).

In this excerpt, Natasha indicated that university tools meant for acting toward the object of learning to teach, such as “Quick Images” and “read alouds”, were particularly useful when they could also be used to act toward the Spring Harbor object of teaching students. However, university tools for learning to teach that seemed incongruent with the tasks of daily teaching, as determined by the Spring Harbor priorities, were less valuable and enacting them was difficult. The UACT case also showcased conflict caused by the dual objects orienting the TFA/WA activity. The TFA/WA rule on a two-year teaching commitment and the organization's focus on general leadership development stood in opposition to the university goal of preparing long-term teachers. This conflict also began to surface in the Spring Harbor goal of retaining teachers, as seen in the school and district interview data.

Lastly, the problem of competing priorities was also shared by the STR partnership. According to interview and document data, the school's purpose of teaching students periodically conflicted with the university's purpose of preparing teachers. For example, this

conflict manifested as a divide between the methods coursework and the residency teaching practicum, as seen in a resident teacher's reflection "I think whenever I'm teaching Math I kind of like, very loosely try to incorporate little things, I don't know... I think honestly most of what I do in Math, I mean it's not anything like what we learn from Eileen" (T. Feldman, personal communication, December 12, 2018). In this example, teacher resident Tina described her emerging practice of teaching math in her mentor teacher's classroom and explained that the James Madison school math curriculum differed from the math methods course. Once again, the school object of teaching students was present in the elements of the school system, including the curriculum used in classrooms. Relatedly, methods course instructors also grappled with the contradiction of supporting the school priorities while acting toward the goal of preparing teachers, as seen in Eileen's reflection,

In elementary in particular, the curriculum has a huge impact on what [residents] are or are not able to... it really locks them a little bit into the content that they're experiencing. There'll be some things that I teach content-wise that they won't go work with. (E. Sarfati, personal communication, November 9, 2018)

Based on the first cross-case finding, the problem of diverging priorities and goals between the organizations involved in teacher education, was shared across the ELTEP, UACT and STR collective partnerships and caused systemic contradictions in all three cases.

Organizational Structures for Addressing Tensions

Activity theory sees contradictions, manifested in everyday actions as dilemmas and conflicts, as the driving force of change and development (Engeström & Sannino, 2011). Contradictions are inevitable features of collective activity and represent the possibility for motivating transformative change and development. However, while contradictions in collective

activities are inevitable and have the power to bring forth development, contradictions cannot be presumed to make themselves known, and development is not guaranteed. If contradictions are not recognized, then the transformative power they offer will likely go unused. Wilson (2014) expands on this notion, “contradictions within activity systems may persist because they are not fully recognized. Using the CHAT framework for analysis enables researchers to identify these contradictions and to suggest possibilities for expansive learning as a result” (p. 23). In this context, the second cross-case finding shows that while contradictions, expressed as tensions, were found across cases, addressing and engaging the tensions differed across cases, and the process was afforded and constrained by the varied organizational structures.

For instance, as seen in the ELTEP case data, conflicting moments of arose between the foci of the university methods coursework and the school’s teaching practice, such as the focus on non-fiction text in a course and the absence of this focus in a first-grade classroom. The resolution to these instances of conflict found in the ELTEP case seemed to focus on stopgap measures and case-by-case solutions. For example, cooperating teachers resorted to flexibility in their teaching plans and offered to create space for teacher candidates to make connections between the methods theory and classroom practice. The instructional coach in the ELTEP partnership also attempted to ease tensions by providing general support in the field. However, the organizational structures of the ELTEP partnership restricted interaction between methods instructors and Lincoln school cooperating teachers. Due to the restrictions, members significant to the object of preparing teachers across the involved communities were unable to engage in dialogue on the tensions that were surfacing in the activity. Consequently, the contradiction remained unrecognized and the opportunity to transform and expand the object was missed.

The STR case also surfaced tensions between the goals of university courses and the priorities set by James Madison school. For example, these tensions were manifested in the CCC literacy curriculum episode, described in Chapter Six. Similar to the ELTEP case, teacher residents struggled with reconciling the goals and priorities of literacy methods course with the district-wide curriculum they encountered in the James Madison school activity. Literacy methods instructor Dr. Sigler also discussed this concern,

I'm not teaching to a curriculum, like I'm very clear about that. I don't teach the CCC, which is the curriculum that Seattle uses. I don't teach CCC, but I know that what [residents] need to know how to do, is teach CCC. So, there's a really interesting tension there around, what are the ideas on teaching and what does that look like in CCC... I feel like [residents] need to have a conceptual understanding of what teaching is and that's my job. So, from there, they also do field work and that's where they have their mentor teacher's help. (C. Sigler, personal communication, November 19, 2018).

Teacher residents and mentor teachers also noted the tension between the systems, and the principal of James Madison elementary school identified this issue as “possibly divergent practices”.

However, the university division of labor in the STR program context positioned methods instructors as coaches in the field and enabled collaboration between university instructors, teacher residents and mentor teachers. To this end, while the contradiction between the university and the school priorities - as manifested in the curriculum choices - remained an issue in the moment of partnership described, the tension was clearly identified and understood by members across the organizations. The structure created in the STR collective permitted members from across the activity systems with access to naming and describing the tension.

Considering this structure in the context of contradictions, which explains that “contradictions do not speak for themselves, they become recognized when practitioners articulate and construct them in words and actions” (Sannino & Engeström, 2018, p. 49), reveals that the process of recognition of the tension by practitioners in STR case represents a step toward expansive resolution.

The UACT case also presented moments of innovation and development, fostered by a need to respond to accumulating tensions. For instance, the iterative dialogue on teaching through the online video tool connected university instructors with teacher candidates and centered the school context. Isadora Hamilton is in her sixth year as a full-time elementary school teacher and in her second year as a UACT team lead in elementary literacy methods. Isadora said she draws on her ongoing teaching practice to inform her approach to preparing teachers, and noted that she centers the teacher candidates’ experiences when planning and implementing the literacy methods course, “I always see it through the lens of, ‘is it possible for this first-year teacher to do this?’” (I. Hamilton, personal communication, December 30, 2018). Additionally, the structure of the university instructors in the UACT context allowed a direct line of communication between the methods coursework and the partner school. Math methods instructor Jenny shared an example of this,

I see myself as both like methods instructor and coach... I think lots of coaching can happen outside of the classroom. I mean the first 20 minutes of [methods] class at least, is sort of, “hey, you just finished a day of teaching. How was it? How are you?” Like, if I try to start talking about teaching math before we debrief the day, they're going to find a way to bring up whatever happened anyway. Like that's what's on their mind. It totally makes sense to me. (J. Stewart, personal communication, December 20, 2018)

However, Isadora added that while discussing fieldwork experiences in the coursework, and engaging in mediated video analyses of teacher candidate's practice (as described in Chapter Five: The UACT Case) helped instructors stay connected with the partner school, the team leads rarely visited schools and the "relationship building piece [between instructors, teacher candidates, and the partner schools] in that is kind of what's missing".

The restricted access to working with teacher candidates in the field, imposed by an organizational constraint, was further complicated by the contradiction found in the TFA/WA object. The TFA/WA activity system had robust structures for collaborating with partner schools, as outlined by the executive director, "what I have been doing with our coaches is saying you need to be working with the [leadership] in the school and with the school principal" (B. Erickson, personal communication, November 4, 2018). MTLD coach Bianca provided an example of the collaborative work, "I'll meet with Luba and Alexandra, who are the instructional coaches and Maddie [Principal Douglas] every week. I just like pop into their offices, and we talk every week for 5 to 10 minutes" (B. Lewis, personal communication, November 14, 2018). However, reminiscent of the issue seen with the ELTEP case, structural limitations for collaboration between members of the two organizations who have the most responsibility for preparing the teacher candidates, the university instructors and TFA/WA coaches, appeared in the data. This problem was crystalized in the following quote from a TFA/WA coach,

I think the vision is that we have an idea of what they [corps members] are learning in [UACT] class each week and we're reinforcing that in our coaching... I know I'm aligned with what UACT is teaching, like their philosophy of education. So, I know I'm reinforcing it. I'm reinforcing it, but not intentionally... It's just happening, but it's not planned reinforcing. (B. Lewis, personal communication, November 14, 2018)

As suggested in this quote, the unique manifestation of the shared university-school problem seen in the UACT case remains unaddressed under the current organizational structures.

In activity theory, movement, development and expansion of collective activity rests on the principle of contradictions. Kuutti (1996) expands on this notion,

Activity theory considers activities not as given or static but as dynamic. Activities are always changing and developing... Activity theory uses the term contradiction to indicate a misfit within elements, between them, between different activities, or between different developmental phases of a single activity... [and] sees contradictions as sources of development; activities are virtually always in the process of working through contradictions. (p. 34)

In this context, the varying organizational structures led to instances of movement and development across cases. However, data also demonstrated that organizational structures tended to obscure the ability to view contradictions as springboards for transformative expansion. Foot (2001) describes the role of contradictions and offers the analogy of “illuminative hinges” for development,

Contradictions are present in every collective activity and indicate emergent opportunities for the activity’s development. I envision them as “illuminative hinges”... The kind of hinge known as a “concealed hinge” is affixed in such a way that on a closed door its two metal planes lie parallel to one another—at first glance, nearly indistinguishable from each other. When set in motion the planes of a concealed hinge move in divergent directions, revealing their distinction from one another. The space between them increases, exposing not only their inner surfaces, but also whatever lies beyond the hinge plane in the now-expanded frame of sight. Similarly, a contradiction in an activity system

consists of two figurative planes or forces that coexist, unnoticed most of the time, linked together in a single entity. Like hinges, when the “planes” of a contradiction are pressed into motion, they will move in diverging directions, exposing new facets and dynamics of the activity and revealing possible directions for the future development and transformation of the activity. (p. 63)

Based on the second cross-case findings, it appears that the presence of contradictions is not necessarily enough for development. While contradictions are hinges waiting to be pressed into motion to reveal the possibility of development and expansion, they are not equipped with automatic door sensors. Someone must do the pressing. As demonstrated in the second cross-case finding of this study, organizational structures often constrained access to locating and pressing the development revealing hinge.

Learning Opportunities Across Cases

The issue at stake in this study is organizational, not resolvable by a sum total of separate individuals. In the final cross-case finding of this chapter, I put forth the argument that teacher education is a collaborative achievement between the university, school and relevant organizations and draw on empirical data to highlight the affordance collaboration provides for resolving contradictions and expanding the activity. Taken together, the first and second cross-case findings demonstrate that similar tensions between organizations involved in the activity of preparing teachers are found across three cases comprising this study and that organizational structures shaped how the partnerships engaged the tensions. The third finding is closely related to the first two but shifts the focus toward opportunities for organizational learning and decision making.

Data across cases showed that the varying relational connections between the rules and division of labor elements across activity systems, which describe “how participants are expected to behave and who is expected to do what in the achievement of the object of an activity system” (Tsui and Law, 2007, p. 1291), impacted opportunities to learn and collaborate. For example, document data show that the rules and division of labor elements between the university and partner school activities in the ELTEP collective determined that methods instructors and cooperating teachers spent the most amount of time with teacher candidates throughout the program, with the instructional coaches as a close second. Yet, observation and interview data demonstrated that communication and collaboration between members of the ELTEP collective greatly significant to the object was neither expected nor supported by the program policies. Literacy methods instructor Professor Morgan addressed this issue head-on and related it to the university-school divide,

[The divide] has always existed, and it still exists. I don't think we've solved this problem with the current program. No, not at all. I think part of the reason is faculty are not involved very much in placements... faculty and cooperating teachers are not in close communication. (S. Morgan, personal communication, December 12, 2018)

The UACT case presented innovative approaches to address the issue around cross-system collaboration, however revealed a similar problem in terms of structures for collaborative learning. The university methods instructors were closely connected to the field and regularly interacted with the teacher candidates, who were full time teachers at Spring Harbor school. Likewise, the TFA/WA coaches were expected and supported in closely working with the teachers and schools. However, communication between the members who were among the most

significant for acting toward the object of preparing teachers in the UACT collective was limited, and collaborative program learning was infrequent.

The lack of collaboration between the key members involved in the activity of preparing teachers was not for lack of desire. In the ELTEP case, Professor Morgan explicitly called for more collaboration, “the [university-school] divide for me is about how to develop a shared understanding between mentor teachers, coaches and instructors about the content and pedagogy that we can support” (S. Morgan, personal communication, December 12, 2018). And, in the UACT case, a TFA/WA coach shared a similar aspiration,

I think it'd be neat if there was like a check-in, maybe at some point, like some kind of regular check in, maybe it's quarterly, um, between UACT and TFA MTLDs, for the purpose of checking in around our people and, how is the support going? What do they need? I think it'd be helpful, 'cause we don't necessarily know what's happening with UACT along the way. At some point we got the syllabi, but I don't know what that looks like in a class session. (S. Doan, personal communication, November 15, 2018)

These excerpts show that the challenges to effectively communicating and collaborating across organizational boundaries between the activity systems were not due to individual obstinance or obstruction. Rather, collaboration was limited by organizational structures, such as rules and division of labor. Notably, the STR case offered opportunities for learning by leveraging a collaboratively designed program and systematically enabling interaction between university instructors, mentor teachers and teacher residents. While the STR collective was not a panacea to the shared problem across cases, the systems for collaboration found in the STR partnership suggested a promising approach toward contradiction resolution and collaborative learning.

Locus of decision making. Related to the third cross-case finding on organizational learning, an analysis on the allocation of power and the processes for decision making illuminated a common constraint that impacted partnership development across cases. The university as a partner organization in the contexts of the ELTEP, UACT and STR collectives was also part of the larger university system and was governed by the rules and policies of the university outside of the three programs. For instance, the university rules enabled access to program-wide decisions for some members across cases, such as tenured faculty and professors and restricted access for other members, such as teaching associates and teaching assistants. Placing this structure next to the collective of the teacher education programs revealed moments of expansion and constraint. For example, the decision-making power from the university side in the ELTEP case was largely allocated to the tenured methods course professors, while the teaching assistants and instructional coaches were given the least amount of decision-making power in program. The troublesome nature of this structure appears when placed in the context of the joint activity of preparing teachers, as it appears that those with the most power to make decisions about the partnership are also the most removed from the partnership work. Put another way, members of the ELTEP collective who continually collaborate across the partnership, such as coaches and cooperating teachers, are closest to the center of the shared activity. Yet, these members are also the farthest from the locus of decision making.

The university structure and tenure requirement for program-wide changes was the same in the UACT and STR cases, limiting non-tenured instructors in their global decision making ability. However, while non-tenured instructors are limited in their power to influence transformative, program-wide expansion, they do have power to enact local changes and decisions about their courses. Due to the varying structures the three programs the local changes

have differing opportunities for involving the center. For instance, the university instructors in the UACT and the STR partnerships are directly connected to the partner school, the UACT instructors work with full time teachers and the STR instructors coach residents and work with mentor teachers. This structure allows the decision-making process at the micro-decision level to involve instructors and teachers and speak to their knowledge of the joint activity.

Another common theme relevant to decision making and learning that appeared across cases is the role of program meetings. Data on observations and documents indicated that program meetings differ across the cases, facilitating and inhibiting learning. For example, in all three cases, program meetings involving the university partner were open to all members of the activity system, including the program leadership, methods faculty, teaching associates, and instructional coaches. The specific activity and agenda for the meetings was differed throughout the year, however the content germane to facilitating learning tended to include sharing course updates and discussing the progress of candidates. However, members from the school activity system were not represented in the university-led program meetings in any of the cases. Additionally, members of the university and TFA/WA organizations in the UACT case did not attend each other's program meetings. These latter two points provide examples of inhibited partnership learning. Additionally, the power structures and the processes for decision making in the partner school and district activity systems also shaped partnership development across cases. Districtwide decisions such as adopting curricula had direct impacts on how and what mentor teachers taught and how teacher candidates experienced the classroom in partner schools. These decisions created connections and disruptions in the collective teacher preparation activity, as demonstrated in the data across cases. However, curricula decisions were made at the district

level with limited input from any members of the collective teacher education partnerships, moving the locus of decision making even farther from the center.

Lastly, data suggested that opportunities for organizational learning and decision making were impacted by external forces across the cases. For instance, the activity of teachers across the cases was directed by the external pressure of mandatory curricula, set by the district. Moments when a curriculum was mismatched or conflicted with the teacher education program's process for teaching resulted in contradictions for student teachers, teacher candidates and at times the program faculty. Additionally, those impacted by this external pressure had limited agency to resolve the contradiction, with teacher candidates and mentor teachers having the least amount of power to address the concerns. Put another way, data across cases indicate that access to recognizing the rules or policies which impact the activity of preparing teachers, such as curricula, is limited. Consequently, community members significant to the collective activity of preparing teachers are often unaware of the constraints under which they are acting. This issue is also visualized in the rules element of the teacher education program activity systems across the cases. Program rules, such as university and state regulations on mandatory course credits and field hours, shape the activity of university-school partnership activity. Yet, the knowledge of these rules and the ability to recognize their constraining impact on the activity is restricted to most members across the cases. Thus, data suggest that rules impacting, shaping and sometimes driving the activity remain invisible to the involved actors.

Cross-case Summary

In this chapter, I sought to expand my understanding of the multi-case quintain (Stake, 2006) or phenomenon of the university-school relationship in three distinct models for teacher preparation: a Masters in Teaching program, an early entry "alternative route" program, and a

Teacher Residency program. I presented an activity theory analysis of the university-school relationship in teacher education across a collection of three cases, with the common condition of participating in the joint practice of preparing teachers. The cross-case analysis surfaced three central themes germane to the university-school relationship in teacher education: (1) the three cases shared the problem of competing motives, priorities and objects between partnerships; (2) differences in organizational structures afforded and constrained how the partnerships engaged the problem; (3) opportunities for collaboration and organizational learning varied across the cases, and were shaped by the varying access to the decision making processes.

Chapter 8: Discussion

In this dissertation I investigated the university-school relationship in teacher education. More precisely, this study historically situated the problem of the university-school divide in teacher education and identified its manifestation in three teacher preparation programs, each belonging to its own class of programs. The underlying motivation driving this research project was to examine the old problem of the university-school divide in a new way by considering the process of teacher preparation as a collective human activity and investigating the process across three distractive programs. To meet the research demands of this study, I drew on multicase study design, where a collection of individual cases each share a common concern or phenomenon (Stake, 2006, 2013). According to Stake (2006), “the single case is meaningful, to some extent, in terms of other cases... In multicase study research, the single case is of interest because it belongs to a particular collection of cases. The cases in the collection are somehow categorically bound together” (p. 5). Stake (2006) refers to the common characteristic binding the collection of cases as the “quintain” and explains that the quintain is “an object or phenomenon or condition to be studied—a target, but not a bull’s eye” (p. 6). In this context, the shared activity of preparing teachers binds the three single cases of this study. Understanding the quintain is the driving principle of multicase design. This method complemented my theoretical framework, as both CHAT and multi-case study situate activity within settings.

The first step in pursuit of my research goal was to analyze each case using an activity theory lens. I drew on Miles and Huberman (1984) who underscore the importance of gaining an in-depth understanding of the local contextual factors - and of the interactions among them - within each case, and carefully examined three cases of the university-school partnership in teacher education, understood as the collectives of ELTEP; UACT; and STR. With each case, I

examined the involved organizations, analyzed the relationships between them, and presented the case-specific findings as they emerged from the data. The activity systems analysis in each case helped recognize the university-school relationship as the interaction between pulsating and evolving collective systems of human activity. The natural second step toward better understanding the three cases of partnerships in teacher education was a cross-case analysis, presented in Chapter Seven. My cross-case investigation of the university-school relationship in teacher education produced three major findings: first, the problem of competing motives, priorities and objects was found across all cases of partnerships; second, differences in organizational structures afforded and constrained how the partnerships engaged the shared problem; third, opportunities for collaboration and program learning varied across the cases and were shaped by the organization of the decision making processes.

In the following sections of this chapter, I discuss the results from the study in relationship to extant scholarship. Next, I present several implications for policy and practice brought forth by this research. I conclude this chapter by presenting limitations of the current study and discussing the next steps for research in this area.

The Problem of The University-School Divide

My first finding focused on the complex relationship between the university and the school in teacher education as it appeared across three cases of partnerships. This finding was presented in two parts. First, I found that the collective activities of the multi-system partnerships presented across the cases were oriented toward the partially shared object of teacher candidates and their ongoing process of learning to teach. This finding relates to the literature on university-school divide, which notes the mutual benefits of partnerships in teacher education – in which teacher education programs work with K-12 schools to train teachers – is supported by abundant

evidence (e.g. Darling-Hammond, 2006, 2010; Grossman, Hammerness, & McDonald, 2009; Zeichner, 1996, 2010). Connecting theory with practice is recognized as a critical component in the learning to teach process (Grossman, 2010), and exposing preservice teachers to authentic school contexts so that they are better prepared for participating in the school activity after their training is a driving force for the university-school partnership in teacher education (Darling-Hammond, 2006, 2010; Zeichner, 2010). Second, I found that the organizations involved in the partnerships were also oriented toward additional and at times diverging objects, which produced tensions and sometimes manifested contradictions. For example, the ultimate goal for the university partners in the ELTEP, UACT and STR cases was to prepare elementary school teachers, the ultimate goal for the school partners was to teach K-5 students, and in the UACT case, the ultimate goal for the TFA/WA partner organization was to support teachers and develop leaders for every sector of society.

Taken together, this finding contributes to the literature by underscoring that the “university” and “school” are two separate and central activity systems, oriented toward their own objects. Writ large, these objects are preparing teachers and teaching students, respectively, and both are complex, ever-evolving, and undoubtedly related. However, data from this study suggests that the overlap between the two systems remains partial. That is, the goals of the two activities are related but not the same. Conceptually, the objects of the university and the school in teacher education might be imagined as two satellites orbiting a planet. The satellites share much of the same properties and experiences, and even share the same gravitational connection to the planet, but their orbits will always remain at a distance. In a similar way, the university-school divide in teacher education might be considered as the distance between two similar yet different organizations, that share ideas, resources and goals while serving different purposes. In

this context, the gap between the university and school across the cases presented is a by-product of two or more organizations interacting while continuing to act toward their own priorities. This notion is supported by data in the preceding results chapters. The Lincoln, Spring Harbor and James Madison elementary schools all joined a teacher education program as partner schools and participated in the collective activity of preparing teachers. However, all three schools remained in their orbit, guided by teaching students. Similarly, the coursework in the ELTEP, UACT, and STR programs was developed to prepare new teachers in a way that would best benefit their future students, yet the orbit of the programs from the university perspective was guided by the process of producing teachers.

Organizational Structures for Addressing Tensions

The second finding of this study demonstrated that organizational structures differed across cases and shaped how partnerships engaged in the similar problem. Over three decades ago, Goodlad (1988) wrote, “the joining of schools (and school districts) and universities in commonly purposive and mutually beneficial linkages is a virtually untried, and, therefore, unstudied phenomenon” (p. 12). Each of the cases revealed examples of partnerships grappling with this goal, in different and similar ways. Additionally, as indicated by the second cross-case finding, the organization of each collective program affected the various efforts of joining schools and universities. One of the shared and prominent program features that enhanced the linkages was the year-long school-based practicum found across cases. Furthermore, data across cases showed that the ELTEP and STR collectives each engaged in a thoughtful and systematic process for matching teacher candidates with mentor teachers (the UACT case did not have mentor teachers). The STR case stood out from the three in this context, as the mentor teachers received a stipend for the work throughout the year.

However, when members of the collective partnerships were faced with tensions, they seldom had organizational support to engage in collaborative problem solving. Opportunities to engage in mutual transformation of the collective activity were found in the data. In activity theory terms, these opportunities were known as contradictions that manifested as tension in the partnerships. Yet, harnessing the transformative power of the contradictions and expanding the collective activity was constrained across the cases. In the ELTEP and UACT cases, contradiction-led expansion of the collective activity was restricted in large part by the structures for collaborating across organizations. Members significant to the shared goal of preparing teachers, such as methods instructors, mentor teachers, and TFA/WA coaches, had limited interaction with each other. This stymied their ability to identify and locate contradictions, let alone engage in collaborative resolution and activity development. The STR case offered promising organizational structures of codified cross-system collaboration between members, but the collaborative efforts stopped short of addressing the object contradiction and attempts to develop a new, transformed object were not seen.

Collaborative Learning Across Cases

The third finding in my study focuses on opportunities for collaboration and organizational learning. This finding shows the need for university-school partnerships in teacher education to engage in collaborative learning. In other words, it appears to be in everyone's best interest for school and universities to learn with and from each other in the context of teacher education, as this will enable the university to better prepare teachers, which will in turn allow the schools to hire better prepared teachers. To this end, as described in the preceding section, instances of collaboration and communication appeared to varying degrees across all cases. As activity theory explains, expansive learning is stimulated by systemic contradictions, "inner

contradictions need to be creatively and often painfully resolved by working out a new ‘thirdness,’ something qualitatively different from a mere combination or compromise between two competing forces” (Sannino & Engeström, 2018, p. 49). Building on this notion, the collectives of ELTEP, UACT and STR would benefit from engaging in the complex work of identifying and resolving contradictions as this process might produce partnership development opportunities and help programs discover new ways of conceptualizing and enacting the collective activity of preparing teachers.

Policy Implications

In this section I discuss several important implications for teacher education policy that are derived from this study. The policy implications are presented at three levels: federal; state; and professional organization.

Federal. Among the themes surfaced by this study is the pressing need to support collaboration between organizations involved in the preparation of teachers. The theme around valuing partnership and the demand for increasing support for collaboration is found across cases and partnerships. However, to date, the only federally funded program that requires a partnership between the K-12 school system and Institutions of Higher Education (IHE) is the Teacher Quality Partnership (TQP) program. According to the U.S. Department of Education, the TQP Grants Program, “seeks to improve the quality of new teachers by creating partnerships among IHEs, their schools/colleges of education and arts and sciences, high-need school districts (local educational agencies (LEAs)), their high-need schools, and/or high-need early childhood education (ECE) programs”²⁵. The funding status for this program is currently just over \$45 million and falls short of the initially proposals which called for several hundred million dollars.

²⁵ Taken from: <https://www2.ed.gov/programs/tqpartnership/index.html>

As suggested by the sole federal program, the federal government does not seem to prioritize investing in the partnership work that is critical to the process of preparing teachers. To this end, when evaluating the allocation of resources and budget, policymakers should consider the impact of cross-system collaboration in the context of education and demonstrate their support of quality education by investing in research supported approaches for preparing new teachers.

State. Policy initiatives for collaboration in teacher education would benefit from engaging policymakers at the state, university and district levels. For example, the decision-making process for teacher education programs might be expanded to include representatives from the district and school, such as cooperating and mentor teachers. This would allow the decision-making processes to be informed by the “center” and might create opportunities to anticipate issues, such as conflicting messages around curricula. Furthermore, policy around budget planning could provide a stipend to cooperating and mentor teachers to encourage their participation in program meetings around fieldwork. This would allow communication and relationship building between the university and the school, and open opportunities for expanding the teacher education curricula based on the knowledge put forth by the teachers.

Finally, the urgency for state policymakers to lend their support to teacher education programs is exacerbated by the ongoing teacher shortage and attrition, felt by every state across the nation (see Aragon, 2016; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Ingersoll, May & Collins, 2019). As schools scramble to fill teaching positions in classrooms across the state, the potential for lowering the standards necessary to enter the teaching profession becomes more enticing. However, state policymakers are well positioned to entice new teachers by demonstrating their support for education through investments in robust, high quality and collaborative teacher preparation programs.

Professional organization and leadership. Another policy lever worth pulling based on this study is increasing accountability for those with power across the systems to participate in the collective activity of preparing teachers. For instance, state organizations such as the Professional Education Advisory Board (PEAB)²⁶, that are charged with participating in decisions related to the development, implementation, and revision of teacher preparation programs should include collaboration between program and district leadership. The collaboration need not be driven by pressure to increase alignment. Rather, in activity theory terms, the collaboration would allow for the complex and messy work of resolving contradictions to begin, and accountability measures would help ensure it continues.

Lastly, this study highlights the value and impact of supporting cross-organizational collaboration and partnership in the context of non-traditional teacher preparation programs. For example, the relationship between the university and Teach for America presented in Chapter Five is both supported and constrained by state policies. On the one hand, the state requirement that corps members receive preparation from a university program ensures interaction between the TFA organization, which recruits and places teachers in schools, and the university, which provides high quality preparation to the new teachers. On the other hand, this state requirement, coupled with the non-teaching goal of TFA, suggests the interaction between the organizations might resemble a superficial partnership. To this end, based on my data, I propose the professional organization of Teach for America evaluate their strengths, for instance the diversity of their cohorts and dedication of their MTLT's, and lend their full support to organizations designed to prepare career teachers, such as teacher education programs. Rather than attempting to support teachers for the classroom while simultaneously prepare teachers to leave the

²⁶ <https://www.pesb.wa.gov/preparation-programs/standards/program-standards/peab/>

classroom, TFA leadership would better serve schools and families by working closer with teacher education programs and teacher educators toward common goals such as high quality teacher preparation.

Practice Implications

This study also proposes several implications for the collective practice of teacher education. Similar to the policy implications, the implications for practice brought forth by this study are focused on addressing the pressing need to support collaborative engagement with expansive learning across organizations. For example, the mentor PDs and cross-system interactions presented in the STR case offer a promising direction for enabling collaborative growth in teacher preparation. These structures and tools for collaboration might be expanded in the STR case as well as taken up by other programs, with instructors, teachers and candidates collaboratively working on a teaching task or problem.

Importantly, the implications for practice proposed in this section are driven by the goal of creating spaces and supporting practices for collaboratively grappling with instances of friction. This implication speaks to the data, which found that moments of contradiction were often misunderstood as discrete problems needing an “easy fix” or stopgap solution. For example, as seen in the ELTEP and STR cases, cooperating and mentor teachers embraced the well intentioned approach of being flexible in order to accommodate the needs of their student teachers, who were anxious to complete coursework assignments. The mentor teachers understood that completing the university coursework was a necessary step for earning teaching certification for the teacher candidates - likely because the mentor teachers had similar experiences during their own learning to teach process - and allowed the teacher candidates to arbitrarily fit assignments in the practicum, even when the assignments were not aligned or

worse, were entirely out of place with the class curricula. At first glance, this flexibility appears to be an asset as it allows teacher candidates to fulfill program requirements without causing too much disturbance in involved activity systems. However, disturbances and contradictions in human activity represent the potential for transformative change. Minimizing and masking systemic contradictions with individual actions standstills there plate-shifting and change inducing potential. An implication for practice, based on the findings in this context, might be to expand the practice of cooperating teachers and methods instructors to include co-constructing assignments with the purpose of meeting the learning to teach goal of the program while supporting the classroom priority of teaching students.

Finally, an important implication for practice, that is of particular relevance in the current teaching and learning context, can be gleaned from the UACT case. As demonstrated in the data, teacher candidates in the UACT program teach in districts and schools across the region and participate in the learning to teach process with the help of technology and online platforms. With distance and online learning continuing to have a foothold in P-12 schools and in teacher preparation alike, university-school partnerships should expand their knowledge of online teaching practice and learn from and with each other. These practices could include drawing online tools, such as platforms for video analysis, to facilitate collaborative learning opportunities. These practices could also be more expansive, and in line with the theme of collaboratively resolving contradictions, the practices could include collective university-school partnerships coming together to redefine what field-based practicum and coursework look like in an entirely online teaching and learning context.

Limitations

The study has several important limitations that affect the scope of the work, discussion of findings, and future directions for research. First, the limited time and resources constrained opportunities for more participant interviews and additional partner school sites. While three partnership cases and 43 study participants is sizeable for a qualitative study, a larger sampling of participants and partnerships may have been able to contribute to a more robust portrait of the relationships in each teacher education program. Additionally, my positionality as a researcher provided a unique lens to this work. As teacher educator in one of the programs of this study, I knew the leadership and instructors as colleagues first, and study participants second. My experience in the program afforded me insight to the structures, relationships and policies of the program and helped me know where to probe during data collection. However, I acknowledge that the teacher educators and teacher candidates in the UACT case might have been hesitant to share critical feedback with me due to my positionality in the program.

On the issue of data collection, while I triangulated my data sources with interviews, documents and observations, the observation source of evidence was underrepresented in this study. Supplementary data observing courses, meetings and moments of collaborative work would have afforded a more nuanced understanding of the landscape and helped guard against biased or incomplete interview data sources. Lastly, a limitation of this research is surfaced in the methods of the study. This dissertation captured a moment in time of partnership in three teacher education programs. However, the data collection and analysis did not capture change over time. While the data collection process was conducted over several months, the structure was not longitudinal and each data point was collected once, with the exception of meeting observations and two follow up interviews. This limitation is significant in terms of activity theory, as one of the attributes provided by the theory is to investigate the learning process over

time. Activity theory research often examines the evolution of activity and analyzes how it develops and transforms over time. Activity theory studies also commonly involve introducing and intervention into an activity, meant to enable system development, and studying the process. However, in this study I neither examined development over time nor evaluated intervention tools.

Future Research on The Collective Activity of Preparing Teachers

This was a study of program structure and organization. The data collected and analyzed captured a moment of partnership between teacher education programs and schools, in the context of preparing new teachers. One promising avenue of expansion for this study is to further engage the contradictions framework, which I summarized in Chapter Three. Specifically, activity theory provides a typology of four types of contradictions (primary, secondary, tertiary and quarternary). Foot and Groleau (2011) write that the contradictions form a “sequence that explains the process of cyclical development characterized in CHAT” (p. 5). Furthermore, development of activity or system learning is brought forth by engaging in the contradictions and moving through an iterative cycle of triggering and resolving the contradictions. The process for creatively and collaborative seeking to address contradictions is known as *expansive learning* (Engeström & Sannino, 2010). Engeström (2007) describes expansive learning as referring to “processes in which an activity system, for example a work organization, resolves its pressing internal contradictions by constructing and implementing a qualitatively new way of functioning for itself” (p. 24). The purpose of the expansive learning theory is to consider the complex process of learning from the abstract to the concrete and explain and guide “collective transformation efforts in organizations and workplaces” (Engeström, Rantavuori and Kerosuo, 2012, p. 82). The analytic of expansive learning can be used as framework for identifying and

understanding contradiction–driven development in activity systems. Data from this dissertation strongly suggest the presence of contradictions. However, conducting a contradictions analysis and considering the concept of expansive learning requires longitudinal data, the collection of which was beyond the scope of this study. To this end, while I engage in a generic discussion of contradictions, additional research would allow me to delineate the mechanisms of change over time and thoroughly analyze the levels of contradictions.

Another possibility for expansion is to conduct a follow up study using Developmental Work Research (DWR). The methods of DWR allow for simultaneous research and innovation in workplace settings (Engeström, 2005). A DWR interventionist study would build on the CHAT concepts of the current study and explore a number of interventions designed to generate development and prompt expansive learning across the collective partnerships involved in preparing teachers. This line of research could draw on the current study’s understanding of the program structures in the three collective partnerships and investigate how the three cases change and evolve over time. Drawing on the DWR method might also open a line of investigation focusing on the Change Laboratory process (Engeström, 1996) and implementation of the cycles of expansive learning (Engeström, 1987). This could involve a researcher participant role, in which the researcher prompts the cycles in the program collectives or help the partnerships identify and engage with contradictions found in the data. Such a study might include an interventionist approach of introducing or facilitating the construction of tools created to help enact changes in the teacher education programs and school partnerships. Similar to the activity theory strand of contradictions, applying the DWR method for examining the university-school divide in teacher education would contribute to the understanding of how the partnerships evolve

over time, and in this context, would focus on the affordances and constraints of the intervention on the relationship between the organizations involved in the process of preparing teachers.

Concluding Remarks

This multicase qualitative inquiry sought to investigate the university-school relationship in teacher education from an organizational perspective. As seen in the findings, the teacher education programs are oriented toward the object of preparing teachers, and the partner schools are oriented toward the object of teaching and supporting students. Each organization was regulated by its own internal and external rules and had its own members and community set values, divisions of labor, and tools that helped act toward the object. However, in each case, the involved organizations overlapped in several important ways, not least of all in that they need each other on an existential level: schools need to hire quality teachers, a demand met by teacher education programs; and teacher education programs need a place for the teachers they produce to teach, a need provided by schools. In activity theory terms, the university-school relationship in teacher education can be understood as the joining of two or more activity systems in the collective object-oriented activity of teacher education. Just as individuals acting in collective practices or communities cannot be reduced to “sums of individual action” (Engeström & Mietinen, 1999, p. 11), the university-school relationship in teacher education is not reducible to sums of individual action, it involves organizational and systemic structures. Simply put, organizational structures matter for teacher education.

This dissertation builds on the rich scholarly work dedicated to understanding the pernicious problem of the university-school divide. As I discussed in Chapter Two, attempts to address the university-school divide span several decades and include notable endeavors that focused on improving the relationship between schools and teacher education programs. For

instance, the innovative concept of the Centers of Pedagogy, brought forth by Goodlad and his colleagues, allowed faculty from arts and sciences, education and the public schools to collaborate on the process of preparing teachers. The Professional Development School concept also envisioned a new space dedicated to supporting collaboration between colleges of education and P-12 schools in the context of developing teaching practice. These initiatives were groundbreaking in their own right and represent the refusal of accepting the problem of the university-school divide as an immutable status quo. However, as seen in the literature to date, these undertakings faced several debilitating difficulties. For instance, the initiatives' resource-dependency posed challenges to sustainability over time and the university centric nature of the approaches failed to address the imbalance of power within the university-school relationship. To this end, in addition to better understanding the impact that organizational factors have on the university-school relationship, this study joins the literature on the university-school divide and offers suggestions on what may have contributed to the shortcomings of past attempts to work this problem.

In the context of this dissertation, it appears that supporting a dedicated space for collaboration oriented toward preparing teachers is not a panacea for the university-school divide problem as it fails to address some of the underlying pressures which members bring with them to the collaborative space. In other words, while organizational structures can enhance the relationship between teacher education programs and partner schools, my results reveal that collaboration across organizations between members such as teacher educators, instructional coaches and mentor teachers is constrained by systemic directives, such as mandatory school district curricula and program-wide frameworks for teaching-and-learning. As such, it seems that although past initiatives rightly attempted to build systems for collaboration across organizations,

they failed to address the diverging organizational goals. For example, the collaborative construction or alignment of K-12 and teacher education curricula between school district leadership, practicing teachers and teacher educators was absent from the Centers of Pedagogy and Professional Development Schools. The paucity of such high-level collaboration likely resulted in unaddressed contradictions between organizations that hindered the learning to teach process.

Reflecting on the PDS movement in the context of this study illuminates an additional, albeit related, blind spot. Professional development schools were conceptualized to be analogous to teaching hospitals in the medical profession, wherein practicing teachers and university faculty worked in partnership based on common goals. The working assumption in this analogy is that just as practicing doctors or attending physicians collaborate with medical school faculty in supporting student doctors or residents, practicing teachers or mentor teachers can collaborate with the teacher education program faculty in supporting student teachers or preservice teachers. However, while this analogy is supported by some extant parallels between the two professions, such as the crucial need for clinical practice, the issues with the analogy could have contributed to the obstacles faced by the PDS movement. These obstacles are best revealed by continuing the analogy and drawing on the results of this study. The goal of a teaching hospital in this context is to treat patients while preparing new doctors. This goal maps onto the goal of a professional development school, which is to teach students while preparing new teachers. Yet, the analogy and the PDS approach encounters a critical challenge when the processes of treating patients and teaching students are scrutinized. Specifically, treating patients involves a largely universal standard of care that is understood by medical schools. While policies, bureaucratic mechanisms, access to resources and quality of practitioners differ, the general approaches to many medical

ailments taken by physicians tend to be similar across hospitals and generally supported by medical school faculty. A patient with a broken leg will quite likely receive a similar diagnosis and treatment plan regardless of the hospital, and the diagnosis and plan are unlikely to be contradicted by the medical school faculty. Policies and resources similarly differ across schools. But, unlike the medical profession, education lacks the generally agreed upon approaches to teaching. This issue is evidenced throughout the data in my study, wherein the approach schools took to teach students - analogous to treating patients - varied widely, depended on the district-wide curricula, and at times diverged from the ideas put forth by the teacher education faculty. The PDS movement fell short of solving the problem of diverging approaches to teaching-and-learning and the resulting tensions and even contradictions continue to impact the preparation of teachers.

Issues with applying a medical model to teacher education also appeared in this study. Specifically, the medical model organizes the work of supervising student doctors, as conducted by attending physicians, through a joint appointment structure shared between the hospital and medical school. This structure allows the attending physicians to dedicate part of their labor to practicing medicine and part of their labor to supervising new doctors. As seen in Chapter Six, the residency model in teacher education similarly sets part of the learning to teach in a school, with student teachers or teacher residents developing their teaching practice under the supervision of a mentor teacher. However, as evidenced by the data, the teacher residency mentor teachers are full time teachers while concurrently supervising student teachers. This is also the case in the ELTEP partnership with cooperating teachers acting as full-time teachers, as seen in Chapter Four.

It is my hope that the three cases presented in this study may serve as canaries in the coal mine – inciting policy makers and practitioners to recognize the solution to the problem posed by the university-school divide rests in the power of collective activity and organizationally-supported collaboration oriented toward expansion and transformative change.

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Appendix A

Faculty and Staff Focused Interview Protocol

Ongoing guiding questions:

1. How do differently modeled teacher education programs think about and enact the school-university relationship?
2. How does the organization of TE programs affect the learning to teach process?
3. How do the organizations address tensions and contradictions?

A. Faculty Involvement

1. How long have you taught (or directed) in the elementary teacher education program?
2. What courses have you typically taught in this TEP?
 - a. What would you consider as your area of expertise in this TEP?
3. What are your responsibilities as [role] in this program?
4. Describe your main responsibilities as a faculty member in this TEP?
5. Describe the work you do. What is a day-in-the-life look like?
6. Tell me more about who you work with and how often have you worked with them.
7. How are the roles and responsibilities divided?
 - a. What are the program policies that shape those?
8. How does the reward structure at the university affect you and your work in TEP?

B. Faculty Involvement

1. Tell me about the way the program curriculum is organized.

2. What is the relationship between coursework and field work?
3. What assessment tools, and what, data do you collect?
4. To what extent are tools used across the organizations?

C. University-School Partnership

1. What is the purpose, and motivation, of the partnership between your program and the public elementary schools?
2. What is the purpose, and motivation, of the partnership between your program and the public elementary schools?
3. How and in what ways are principals involved in the partnership?

D. Closing Questions

1. Is there anything else that you would like to mention about your experience in this TEP or your course in particular?
2. Do you have any other questions or issues you'd like us to discuss?

Appendix B

Teacher Education Program Affiliated Staff Interview Protocol

Ongoing guiding questions:

1. How do differently modeled teacher education programs think about and enact the school-university relationship?
2. How does the organization of TE programs affect the learning to teach process?
3. How do the organizations address tensions and contradictions?

A. General Information on Program

1. To start, I'd like some general information about your organization.
2. Tell me about your position and role at the organization? (How long has she/he been the director?)
3. Approximately, how many staff members do you have that work directly with pre-service teachers?
4. Tell me about the history of the organization?
 - a. How it got started?
 - b. Who funds the work?
 - c. How long it has been in existence? (*Trying here to get a sense of the longevity of the organization, staff stability, etc*).
5. Describe the work you do. What is a day-in-the-life look like?
6. Tell me who you work with and how often have you worked with them.
7. How are the roles and responsibilities divided?

8. What are the program policies that shape those?
9. Tell me about the way the program curriculum is organized (if applicable).
10. How do you view the relationship between coursework and field work?
11. What assessment tools, and what, data do you collect?
12. To what extent are tools used across the organizations?
13. What is the purpose, and motivation, of this partnership?

B. Closing Questions

1. Is there anything else that you would like to mention about your experience in this organization or working with TEP in particular?
2. Do you have any other questions or issues you'd like us to discuss?

Appendix C

Partner School Personnel Interview Protocol

Ongoing guiding questions:

1. How do differently modeled teacher education programs think about and enact the school-university relationship?
2. How does the organization of TE programs affect the learning to teach process?
3. How do the organizations address tensions and contradictions?

A. Questions for Principals

1. To start, I'd like some general information about your organization.
2. How long have you been a principal of this elementary school?
3. How long have you worked with the TEP at UW?
4. Describe the work you do. What is a day-in-the-life look like?
5. Tell me more about who you work with and how often have you worked with them.
6. How are the roles and responsibilities divided?
 - a. What are the program policies that shape those?
7. What assessment tools, and what, data do you collect?
8. To what extent are tools used across the organizations?

B. University-School Partnership

1. What is the purpose, and motivation, of the partnership between your program and the public elementary schools?
2. How and in what ways are principals involved in the partnership?

C. Mentor Teacher Specific Questions

1. What is the purpose, and motivation, of the partnership between your class and the TEP?
2. From your perspective, in what ways, if any, does the TEP coursework connect to pre-preservice teachers' placements in partner schools?
 - a. What's an example of this?
3. What are some of the challenges you've noticed pre-service teachers faced in their student-teaching experiences?

D. Closing Questions

1. Is there anything else that you would like to mention about your experience working with TEP or your school in particular?
2. Do you have any other questions or issues you'd like us to discuss?

Appendix D

Pre-Service Teacher Interview Protocol

Ongoing guiding questions:

1. How do differently modeled teacher education programs think about and enact the school-university relationship?
2. How does the organization of TE programs affect the learning to teach process?
3. How do the organizations address tensions and contradictions?

A. Questions for Pre-Service Teacher

1. To start, I'd like some general information about your experience with the learning to teach: What program are you in? Why did you choose this program?
2. Describe the work you do. What is a day-in-the-life look like?
3. Tell me who you work with and how often have you worked with them?
4. Tell me about your student teaching.
5. Where did you learn a lot?
 - a. Who was involved?
6. How do you view the relationship between coursework and field work?

B. Closing Questions

1. Is there anything else that you would like to mention about your experience working with TEP or your school in particular?
2. Do you have any other questions or issues you'd like us to discuss?

Appendix E

Contact Summary Form for Interviews

Organization (and place of interview):

Researcher: Boris Krichevsky

Contact:

Date:

What were the main issues or themes raised by this interview? Do you have any particular impressions or observations?

Which interview or research questions were addressed most meaningfully and why?

What hypotheses, speculations, or unresolved questions were raised for you?

Any other salient points?

Appendix F

ELTEP Course of Study, 2018-19

Quarter 1 Summer	Quarter 2 Autumn	Quarter 3 Winter	Quarter 4 Spring
EDTEP 501 Field Experience (1)	EDTEP 502 Field Experience & Seminar (2)	EDTEP 503 Field Experience & Seminar (2)	EDTEP 601 Field Experience: Student Teaching (8)
EDTEP 511 School & Society (3)	EDTEP 544 Differentiated Instruction (Special Education) (3)	EDTEP 533: Teaching & learning in Literacy III (3)	EDSPE 503: Classroom Management for Elementary School Educators (1)
EDTEP 531 Teaching & Learning in Literacy I (3)	EDTEP 541 Dilemmas of Teaching & Learning in Elementary School (3)	EDTEP 522: Teaching & Learning in Numeracy II (3)	EDTEP 505 Capstone Project: Tools for Reflection (2)
EDTEP 543 Teaching & Learning in Social Studies and Arts (4)	EDTEP 532 Teaching & Learning in Literacy II (4)	EDTEP 523 Teaching & Learning in Science (3)	EDTEP 544 Culturally & Linguistically Responsive Teaching (2)
EDTEP 544: Identity, Inquiry, & Equity in Teaching (1)	EDTEP 521 Teaching & Learning in Numeracy I (4)	EDTEP 544 Culturally & Linguistically Responsive Teaching (2)	
EDTEP 555 Understanding Indigenous Perspectives: Implications for Teaching and Learning (1)	EDSPE 503 Classroom Management for Elementary School Educators (1)	EDSPE 503 Classroom Management for Elementary School Educators (1)	
EDC&I 505 Technology Seminar (1)	EDC&I 494: Issues of Abuse (1)		
EDSPE 503 Classroom Management for Elementary School Educators (1)			
EDC&I 324 Physical Education and Health in Schools (2)			
First quarter total credits = 17	Second quarter total credits = 18	Third quarter total credits = 14	Fourth quarter total credits = 13

Approx. 75 hours in the field	Approx. 75 hours in the field	Approx. 215 hours in the field	Approx. 440 hours in the field
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Appendix G

September Ethnographic Experience

Ethnography is a qualitative research methodology. According to Creswell (2003), the ethnographic researcher studies an “intact cultural group” (p. 14) in its natural setting over some period of time. What distinguishes an ethnographic study is the use of a cultural lens to understand the setting or phenomenon (Merriam, 2009).

What follows is a week-by-week suggested outline of the activities you should engage in as you research your classroom placement. You do not have to follow the outline exactly, but you do have to complete each activity and document their completion by uploading your work to your Google Docs folder.

Before you start your placement

Readings
No assigned readings
Research Activities
<p>Reflection Questions:</p> <p>Determine how you will organize your field notes. The first entry in your field notes should be a reflection that answers these questions:</p> <p>What is involved in setting up a classroom? What do you think the teacher will do and say on the first few days of school? How do you think the students will respond? What will it feel like to be a part of the classroom in these early days, for the teacher, for students, and for you?</p> <p>What do you imagine happening behind the scenes for students with their families?</p>

Preparation Week: Focusing on your New Community

Reading	
Yosso, T. J. (2005) Whose culture has capital? A critical race theory discussion of community cultural wealth. <i>Race Ethnicity and Education</i> , 8(1), 69-91. DOI: 10.1080/1361332052000341006. Canvas page.	
Research Activities	
Observations	A. In the classroom: What do you notice about the physical environment ? Consider classroom layout, materials on shelves, use of color, images, and print.

	B. With the other TCs at your placement: Conduct a community walk to identify the resources in your school community (community center, clinics, grocery stores, libraries, playgrounds, etc.). What might you explore? Create a large map (think poster board size or bigger) of the resources you discovered. Be prepared to share your map later in the quarter.
Interviews	With the other TCs at your placement: Plan and schedule interviews with key building personnel outside your classrooms

First Week of Student Attendance: Focusing on your new student

Readings No assigned readings	
Research Activities	
Observations	<p>A. In the classroom:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Communication in the classroom: Who talks when and to whom? What are non-verbal ways people are communicating? What are some patterns/norms around communication? What values and rules do you see being set up in the classroom? How are they created, enacted, reinforced or enforced? What are some routines being established? What are their aims? What are students learning about one another, their teacher, and their class or school? How is this learning happening? Focus on one child—what is the student doing/seeing/learning in this small slice of the day? What can you learn about a child through this type of observation? What can't you learn? Write a detailed description of your class (i.e. number of students; demographics information) <p>B. Beyond the classroom:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Breakfast: Follow two or three children and record their activities. Recess: Follow two or three children and record their activities. Lunch time: Follow two or three children and record their activities. "Specials": Follow the class out of the classroom and to their PE or Music class. Note how these different settings engage children. Building: Walk through the building (main office, common areas, teachers' lounges or workrooms, nurse's office, etc.). Who are the adults and what are they doing? What about the students? Are there parents in the building?

	<p>C. Participant Observation: Select 2-3 relationship-building activities that you would like to try out with your students in the first 3-4 weeks of school. Examples of this include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> g. Greeting students at door h. Doing a getting to know you activity
Interviews	<p>A. Ask two or three children how they like to spend their time outside of school.</p> <p>B. Think about the questions you have for your mentor teacher. Focus your questions on things that seem most relevant to these first few weeks of school. Brainstorm a list of questions, and then prioritize so that you ask only 3-5 of your most important questions. At the end of the first week of school, interview your mentor teacher. Record your process (brainstormed questions & final choices) along with your mentor teacher's responses in your field notes.</p>

Second Week of Student Attendance: Focusing on Literacy

<p>Readings</p> <p>1. Review this reading from Summer Quarter: Nichols, M. (2006). Growing purposeful talk: Using read-alouds as the spark. In <i>Comprehension through conversation: The power of purposeful talk in the reading workshop</i>. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. (pp. 51-70).</p> <p>2. Read Nichols, M. (2006). The interconnectedness of language development and purposeful talk (Chapter 2) In <i>Comprehension through conversation: The power of purposeful talk in the reading workshop</i>. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. (pp. 11-25). This chapter will be available on your course websites by August 15th. It will give you a chance to consider the essential role of language and purposeful talk in the literacy development of all students. Consider the following questions as you read:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What does Nichols mean by “purposeful talk” and how is that related to reading and writing development? 2. How can teachers support language development and purposeful talk for all students and, in particular, nonnative English speakers? What strategies have you observed in your placement classroom or school that support all students to engage in purposeful talk? <p>Be ready to share your thinking about this chapter at Day 1 of the Literacy Institute.</p>
Research Activities

Observations	<p>A. Beginning-of-year Reading Assessments (Participant Observation)</p> <p>There are many different assessments used by teachers and schools including: QRI, Fountas & Pinnell, TC Reading Assessment, Developmental Reading Assessment (DRA), running records, phonics tests, sight word lists, and other assessments. Ask your mentor teacher to let you help with any of the beginning-of-year reading assessments. <u>Please select at least two different children</u> during this beginning-of-year assessment, whatever it is, so that you can learn more about the assessment as well as the range of student responses.</p> <p>Be sure to study and learn how to administer and interpret new assessments that your teacher uses. Because you know how to administer the Houghton Mifflin assessment, you will find that all other types of assessment have much in common with what you already know and you will be able to adapt easily. In your memos, comment about the strengths and limitations of the assessments and how they compare to the Houghton Mifflin.</p> <p>B. Read-Aloud (Participant Observation)</p> <p>Work with your mentor teacher to find appropriate texts and situations in which you might facilitate students' comprehension through a rich discussion of a book or short text that you read aloud to them (whole class or small group). Use the effective strategies you learned during the summer to plan and implement this activity. Notice how different students respond, interact, and participate in the discussions and how they make meaning of the text.</p> <p>C. Observe how your mentor teacher:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) creates the physical, social, and emotional literacy environment 2) sets up & teaches reading & writing routines (e.g. sustained silent reading [SSR], centers, helping students select texts) 3) assesses students' reading and writing at the beginning of the year 4) provides instruction in reading (e.g. materials, instructional strategies, grouping) 5) meets the literacy needs of diverse students (linguistic, academic, cultural, special education, highly capable, etc.) <p>D. Document the language(s) each child can understand, speak, read, and write.</p>
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Interviews	Be sure to talk with your mentor teacher about what you are seeing so that you understand their thinking behind why and how they do the things you observed above. Ask to look at any teacher guides and student material your mentor uses to plan and/or teach reading.
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Third Week of Student Attendance: Focusing on Math/Numeracy

Readings

Read the chapter from *Smarter Together: Collaboration and Equity in the Mathematics Classroom (2011)* called “What does it mean to be smart in math?” The chapter will give you a chance to consider how we define what it means to be “good at math.” Consider the following questions as you read:

1. What do the authors mean by “expanding our ideas about what it means to be smart in math?”
 2. What do they suggest about the connection between expanding what it means to be smart in math and supporting equity in the mathematics classroom?
 3. What are some of the key ways the chapter suggests that you as a teacher shape what children think it means to be smart in math?
- Be ready to share your thinking about this chapter at Day 1 of the Math Institute the week of September 24.

Research Activities

Observations

Select and try at least 2 of the ideas below that seem interesting to you. Remember to take field notes and write memos at the end of the day to document your experience.

- As you circulate during math time, kneel down next to children and invite them to share their mathematical thinking with you. You can say something like, “I’m really interested in your thinking. How did you get figure that out?”
- Talk to a child who seems a lot different from you as a student; what do they do during a math lesson? Keep track of what the child does every few minutes.
- Observe the same child across different subject areas and times of the school day. When do they experience success? Frustration? Joy? Sadness?
- Ask the teacher to borrow the teacher’s guide for the math curriculum. Look at the kinds of directions it provides teachers for the lessons being taught that week. Peruse the other supporting materials, such as the teacher’s mathematics reference manual, and assessment handbook. Ask to see the district pacing guide.
- If multiple languages are used in your classroom, reflect on how students use different languages as they make sense of math. What other resources are multilingual students using to engage in math?
- Reflect on what it takes to be good at math in your classroom.

Interviews	<p>A. Chat with your mentor teacher: How do they make use of the curriculum? What resources does the district provide; e.g., pacing guide?</p> <p>B. Select 2-3 children in your class to see if you can understand their views of “smartness” in math and their views of themselves as mathematicians. Below are some questions from which you might select, but feel free to make up questions that are of interest to you.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How can you tell if someone is good at math? • How does someone get good at math? • How do you feel about mathematics? • When you hear “math,” what comes to mind? • How do you feel about sharing your thinking during math? Listening to others? • How would you describe what you work on during math time?
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Assignment: Math Autobiography - due Thursday, September 20.

The Math Team would like to get a sense of your own personal histories with mathematics and your thoughts about your experiences with students and teachers in school so far. This information will help us plan for class.

Please answer the following questions in 1-2 pages, single-spaced.

1. Describe your experiences with mathematics over the course of your life, both in and out of school. How have these experiences shaped your stance towards becoming a teacher of mathematics?
2. Do you speak a language other than English fluently enough to have instructional conversations with children?
3. What are the top five things you would like us to know about you?
4. Is there anything else in particular you'd like us to know about you that would affect your participation in class?

Appendix H

ELTEP Coaches Meeting Minutes (12/5/2018)

Formal Observations reminders:

- Make sure to save form as a pdf and place in folder
- Remind students that it is a time of growth

ELTEP Autumn Rubric Debrief

- Could be collaborative debrief; could be the next day after the lesson
- UW Expectation: TC writes up a summary after the formal observation
- Keep in mind that the Gradual release of responsibility may look different for subjects other than literacy.

Lesson Plan Template:

- Part one of the lesson is required!
- Part two may look different based on subject taught
- Language objective: Considers the language they expect students to use.
 - How will they use language to accomplish the lesson?
- Academic Language
 - Broader than vocabulary
 - It could refer to a concept
- Culturally and Linguistically Sustaining Pedagogy
 - Choice of materials, questions or discussions
 - Should considers all students background
- Accommodations and Modifications

- Small-group Lesson: Should entail individual student descriptions and needed
- Whole-class lesson: Might be the kids who need extra attention (IEP, 504, ELL)
- Assessment:
 - While not a requirement for Autumn Quarter, TC's should begin thinking about how they are checking for understanding throughout the lesson.
 - How does the TC know that they are understanding the learning target?

Formal Observation Protocol:

- Methods of inquiry (standard 4)
 - Still needs to be determined and explained... but could refer to eliciting student ideas.

Notes on formal observation

Autumn Quarterly Assessment:

- Meeting with Mentor Teacher, Coach and Teacher Candidate:
 - Everyone fills out Quarterly Assessment before the meeting.
 - During the Meeting the team collectively set goals for winter quarter
 - Fall quarter: only part 1 needs to be completed (pp 3-4)
 - Evidence in Comment section:
 - "Jenny's demonstrating the dimension of teaching as a profession in this way..."
 - "Here's what I would like to see Jenny work on in the winter quarter..."

Appendix I

ELTEP Field Placement Roles & Responsibilities by Quarter

Autumn Quarter Roles & Responsibilities			
Teacher Candidate	Mentor Teacher	Site Coordinator	University Coach
<p>Complete September Experience assignment.</p> <p>Assist Mentor Teacher with classroom set-up and projects to prepare for the students' arrival.</p> <p>Attend staff meetings, trainings and planning sessions with your Mentor Teacher.</p> <p>Attend meetings with the Site Coordinator, UW cohort in your building, and with your UW Coach.</p> <p>Along with your Mentor Teacher, send a letter to parents/caregivers that introduces yourself and your preparation for this work.</p> <p>Send Video Permission Forms to each students' family/caregiver in the appropriate language.</p> <p>Assist with assessments as determined by your Mentor Teacher and Site Coordinator.</p> <p>Meet regularly with your Mentor Teacher to debrief and reflect on your learning and the needs of your students. Discuss your coursework and field-based assignments with your Mentor Teacher.</p>	<p>Collaborate with the TC to set up your classroom, get to know your students and review assessment data.</p> <p>Assist the TC in sending a letter home to families/ caregivers that introduces him/her/ them and how you will work together.</p> <p>Meet regularly with the TC to reflect on your students and your teaching practice. Share lesson planning strategies, management ideas, curriculum goals, assessment tools, and information about students.</p> <p>Arrange for your TC to work on a regular basis with small groups and individuals. Observe and offer feedback on his/her/their teaching. Provide encouragement, positive reinforcement and, suggestions for improvement as needed.</p> <p>Confer briefly with the University Coach when s/he/they is/are in the building. If issues arise between visits from the Coach, make contact with him/her/them to discuss a resolution.</p>	<p>Arrange meetings with the building cohort of teacher candidates to reflect and share ideas on topics such as management, strategies for beginning class, assessment, working with building specialists and parents, etc.</p> <p>Check on the progress of each TC in his/her/ their placement. Provide an opportunity for Mentor Teachers to contribute input about their TCs.</p> <p>Attend scheduled Site Coordinator meetings (on UW campus or a school site) and communicate any relevant information to the Mentor Teachers.</p> <p>Attend UW professional development for mentor teachers as is possible</p>	<p>Meet with the Mentor Teachers and TCs early in the quarter to discuss responsibilities and expectations for the quarter.</p> <p>Provide resources to the TC to help guide their observations and work with students.</p> <p>Provide university resources to Mentor Teachers and Site Coordinators to support their work with TCs.</p> <p>Maintain close communications with the Mentor Teacher, TCs and Site Coordinator. Help solve field-based problems and notify the ELTEP office when issues arise.</p> <p>Conduct informal observations of your TCs' teaching. Provide feedback and guidance.</p> <p>Conduct one formal observation of each TC during Autumn Quarter. Review and provide feedback on the TC's lesson plan prior to the observation. Debrief the observation in a conference with the TC.</p> <p>Complete the End-of-Quarter Assessment.</p>

<p>Support student learning by working with individual students and small groups as determined by your Mentor Teacher.</p> <p>Accompany your Mentor Teacher or other designated staff person on a home visit. Document all parent and guardian contacts you make.</p> <p>Begin lesson planning.</p> <p>Demonstrate knowledge of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) and English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS).</p> <p>Start identifying possible Inquiry for Action Project questions.</p> <p>Attend parent-teacher conferences as permitted by your mentor teacher, site coordinator, and school administration.</p> <p>Arrange your first formal observation with your university coach. Prepare a lesson plan and submit it to your coach and mentor teacher 48 hours in advance for feedback.</p> <p>Complete the End-of-Quarter Assessment and meet with your Mentor Teacher and Coach to assess your progress and set goals for Winter Quarter.</p>	<p>Facilitate your TC's completion of field-based course assignments.</p> <p>Keep in contact with the Site Coordinator in your building.</p> <p>Discuss the possibility of making a home visit with your TC.</p> <p>Attend UW professional development for mentor teachers as is possible.</p> <p>Complete the End-of-Quarter Assessment and meet with your TC and Coach to assess progress and set goals for the TC for Winter Quarter.</p>		<p>Arrange and lead the 3-way conference with the Mentor Teacher and TC to review progress, set goals, and reach consensus about the TC's readiness to begin part-time student teaching in Winter Quarter.</p>
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<p>Take and pass NES Subtest 103 (Math and Science) before the end of the quarter.</p> <p>Complete the Context for Learning form for the edTPA.</p>			
Winter Quarter Roles & Responsibilities			
Teacher Candidate	Mentor Teacher	Site Coordinator	University Coach
<p>Discuss your coursework and field-based assignments with your Mentor Teacher.</p> <p>Work with small groups and assume more responsibility for management of the whole class.</p> <p>Schedule a weekly meeting to plan and confer with your Mentor Teacher.</p> <p>Strengthen your lesson planning skills and demonstrate increasing knowledge of the CCSS and ELPS.</p> <p>Write plans for all the lessons you teach. Use a lesson plan template for routine lessons in the classroom. Submit all lesson plans to your mentor teacher and coach at least 48 hours in advance of the lesson.</p> <p>Arrange three formal observations with your university coach. Submit lesson plans to the coach at least 48 hours in advance for feedback.</p> <p>Attend regular meetings with the cohort in your</p>	<p>Establish a tentative co-teaching schedule for the quarter with your TC.</p> <p>Schedule a weekly meeting to plan and confer with your TC.</p> <p>Share your lesson planning strategies, management ideas, curriculum goals, assessment tools, and information about students.</p> <p>Review and provide feedback on all lesson plans in advance of the TC's teaching.</p> <p>Assist the TC in developing his/her/their own style of teaching. Allow the TC increasing responsibility in co-planning and co-teaching.</p> <p>Provide the TC with the curricula for upcoming weeks to help them see the big picture when planning.</p> <p>Evaluate your TC's progress through informal observations and at weekly conferences.</p>	<p>Arrange meetings with the building cohort of teacher candidates to reflect and share ideas on topics such as management, strategies for beginning class, assessment, working with building specialists and parents, etc.</p> <p>Check on the progress of each TC in his/her/ their placement. Provide an opportunity for Mentor Teachers to contribute input about their TCs.</p> <p>When possible, informally observe the ELTEP candidates in your building to provide feedback and support.</p> <p>Attend scheduled Site Coordinator meetings (on UW campus or a school site) and communicate any relevant</p>	<p>Meet with Mentor Teachers and TCs early in the quarter to discuss goals, responsibilities, and expectations.</p> <p>Provide instruction and support in lesson planning.</p> <p>Maintain close communications with the Mentor Teacher, TCs and Site Coordinator. Help solve field-based problems and notify the ELTEP office when issues arise.</p> <p>Conduct informal observations of your TCs' teaching. Provide feedback and guidance.</p> <p>Conduct three formal observations of each TC during Winter Quarter.</p> <p>Review and provide feedback on the TC's lesson plan prior to each observation. One formal observation should include the Mentor Teacher as a co-observer.</p> <p>Contact the Mentor Teacher personally, in writing, or by telephone</p>

<p>building as arranged by the Site Coordinator and/or coach.</p> <p>Document all parent and caregiver contacts you make.</p> <p>Keep current lesson plans and reflections available at all times for your Coach and Mentor Teacher in your electronic Google Docs portfolio.</p> <p>Identify a question for your Inquiry for Action Project.</p> <p>Complete the End-of-Quarter Assessment and meet with your Mentor Teacher and Coach to assess your progress and set goals for Spring Quarter. With your mentor teacher and coach, establish a plan to transition to full-time lead co-teaching.</p>	<p>Facilitate your TC's completion of field-based course assignments.</p> <p>Provide encouragement, positive reinforcement and, suggestions for improvement as needed. Confer briefly with the University Coach when s/he/they is/are in the building. If issues arise between visits from the Coach, make contact with him/her/them to discuss a resolution.</p> <p>Keep in contact with the Site Coordinator in your building. Attend UW professional development for mentor teachers as is possible.</p> <p>Plan to attend at least one formal observation and conference with the Coach and the TC.</p> <p>Complete the End-of-Quarter Assessment and meet with your TC and Coach to assess progress, set goals, and ensure consensus on TC's readiness for full time lead co-teaching. With TC and coach, establish a plan to transition to full-time lead co-teaching in Spring Quarter.</p>	<p>information to the Mentor Teachers. Attend UW professional development for mentor teachers as is possible</p>	<p>after each formal observation.</p> <p>Debrief the observation in a conference with the TC. Explain your scoring on the formal observation form and work with the TC to meet expectations in planning, instruction, and assessment in preparation for lead, full-time co-teaching in the Spring.</p> <p>Provide suggestions for documents and artifacts that the TC may want to include in his/her/their electronic portfolio. Complete the End-of-Quarter Assessment.</p> <p>Arrange and lead the 3-way conference with the Mentor Teacher and TC to assess progress, set goals, and ensure consensus on TC's readiness for full time lead co-teaching. With TC and mentor teacher, establish a plan to transition to full-time lead co-teaching in Spring Quarter.</p>
Spring Quarter Roles & Responsibilities			
Teacher Candidate	Mentor Teacher	Site Coordinator	University Coach
Assume the lead co-teaching responsibility for planning, instruction, classroom management	Assist the TC in assuming the lead role in the co-teaching responsibility of planning, instructing,	Arrange building meetings with the teacher candidates to share ideas on topics such as	Meet with the Mentor Teachers and TCs early in the quarter to discuss responsibilities and

<p>and assessment for four to six weeks²⁷. Assume as much responsibility for communicating with parents/caregivers as is permitted by the school.</p> <p>Discuss all parent/caregiver contacts with your Mentor Teacher for approval before you make the contact. Document all parent and caregiver contacts you make.</p> <p>Plan and confer at a regularly scheduled time each week with the Mentor Teacher. Share your lesson and unit plans in advance for approval and input and discuss the co-teaching responsibilities. Keep weekly and daily unit and lesson plans in your electronic portfolio and make them available at any time for your UW Coach and Mentor Teacher.</p> <p>Arrange four formal observations with your university coach. Submit lesson plans to the coach at least 48 hours in advance for feedback.</p> <p>Understand that more observations may be needed as determined by your Mentor Teacher and coach.</p>	<p>assessing, and managing all aspects of the classroom. Determine units and lessons to be taught for the full-time responsibilities and help the TC determine which co-teaching strategies will most benefit the students.</p> <p>Confer with your TC at a regularly scheduled time each week to approve plans, discuss management and curriculum goals and student assessments.</p> <p>Help guide the TC in making parent/caregiver contacts such as newsletters, phone calls, emails, conferences, etc. Share your lesson and unit plans in advance for approval and input and discuss the co-teaching responsibilities.</p> <p>Review and provide feedback on all lesson plans in advance of the TC's teaching. Observe the TC's instruction and provide written feedback as often as possible.</p> <p>Confer briefly with the University Coach when s/he/they is/are in the building. If issues arise between visits from the Coach, contact him/her/them to discuss a resolution.</p>	<p>management, planning, strategies for engaging students, analyzing student work and adjusting lesson plans accordingly, etc.</p> <p>Guide the TCs in taking on all aspects of being a faculty member in your building, including staff meetings, conferences, parent nights, activities, etc.</p> <p>Check with each Mentor Teacher on the progress of all TCs in your building during full-time co-teaching. Inform the UW Coach and/or the Field Director and Director if there are questions or concerns.</p> <p>When possible, informally observe the TCs in your building to provide feedback and support. Conduct a formal written observation if you feel it is appropriate.</p> <p>Help TCs arrange a formal interview</p>	<p>expectations and to schedule observations. Maintain close communications with the Mentor Teachers, TCs and Site Coordinator Help solve field-based problems and notify the Program Director and/or Field Director when necessary.</p> <p>Conduct four formal observations of each TC during Spring Quarter.</p> <p>Review and provide feedback on the TC's lesson plan prior to each observation. One formal observation should include the Mentor Teacher as a co-observer. Conduct one or more additional formal observations if needed. Contact the Mentor Teacher personally, in writing, or by telephone after each formal observation.</p> <p>Debrief the observation in a conference with the TC. Explain your scoring on the formal observation form and work with the TC to meet expectations in planning, instruction, and assessment. After each observation, discuss student work for that (or a previous) lesson and assess the student's ability to analyze student work for subsequent planning. Attach copies</p>
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²⁷ Full-time lead co-teaching may be counted in cumulative, not necessarily consecutive, weeks to allow for testing, edTPA, school breaks, etc.

<p>Attend regular meetings with the cohort in your building as arranged by the Site Coordinator and/or coach.</p> <p>Toward the end of April, plan a 3-5 day learning segment in your assigned edTPA subject area.</p> <p>Consider your spring break, standardized testing dates, curricular demands, etc., to determine the best week to schedule your edTPA learning segment.</p> <p>Continue to collaborate and communicate with your cohort and UW faculty as well as your Mentor Teacher, Coach, Site Coordinator, and other building personnel for support and ideas as you work to meet the needs of the students in your classroom.</p> <p>Complete the final End-of-Quarter Assessment and meet with your Mentor Teacher and Coach at the end of your full time lead co-teaching.</p> <p>Complete your Inquiry for Action project.</p>	<p>Keep in contact with the Site Coordinator in your building.</p> <p>Attend UW professional development for mentor teachers as is possible. Plan to attend at least one formal observation and conference with the Coach and the TC.</p> <p>Notify the coach, your site coordinator, and the ELTEP office if you have concerns or questions about the program and/or your TC.</p> <p>Write a final narrative that will serve as a recommendation for your TC.</p> <p>Meet with your TC and Coach to complete the final End-of-Quarter Assessment at the conclusion of the TC's full-time co-teaching.</p>	<p>with the building principal.</p> <p>Attend scheduled Site Coordinator meetings (on UW campus or a school site) and communicate any relevant information to the Mentor Teachers.</p> <p>Attend UW professional development for mentor teachers as is possible.</p>	<p>of student work with lesson plans and observation paperwork.</p> <p>Provide suggestions for documents and artifacts that the TC may want to include in his/her/their electronic portfolio. Monitor the organization of daily and unit plans at each visit and give feedback.</p> <p>Help the student plan for their 3-5-day edTPA learning segment.</p> <p>Assist the Mentor Teacher with writing recommendation letters, if needed.</p> <p>Complete the final End-of-Quarter Assessment. Arrange and lead the 3-way conference with the Mentor Teacher and TC at the end of the TC's full time lead co-teaching to assess progress.</p> <p>Write a final narrative for the TC at the end of Spring Quarter.</p>
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Appendix J

UACT Course of Study

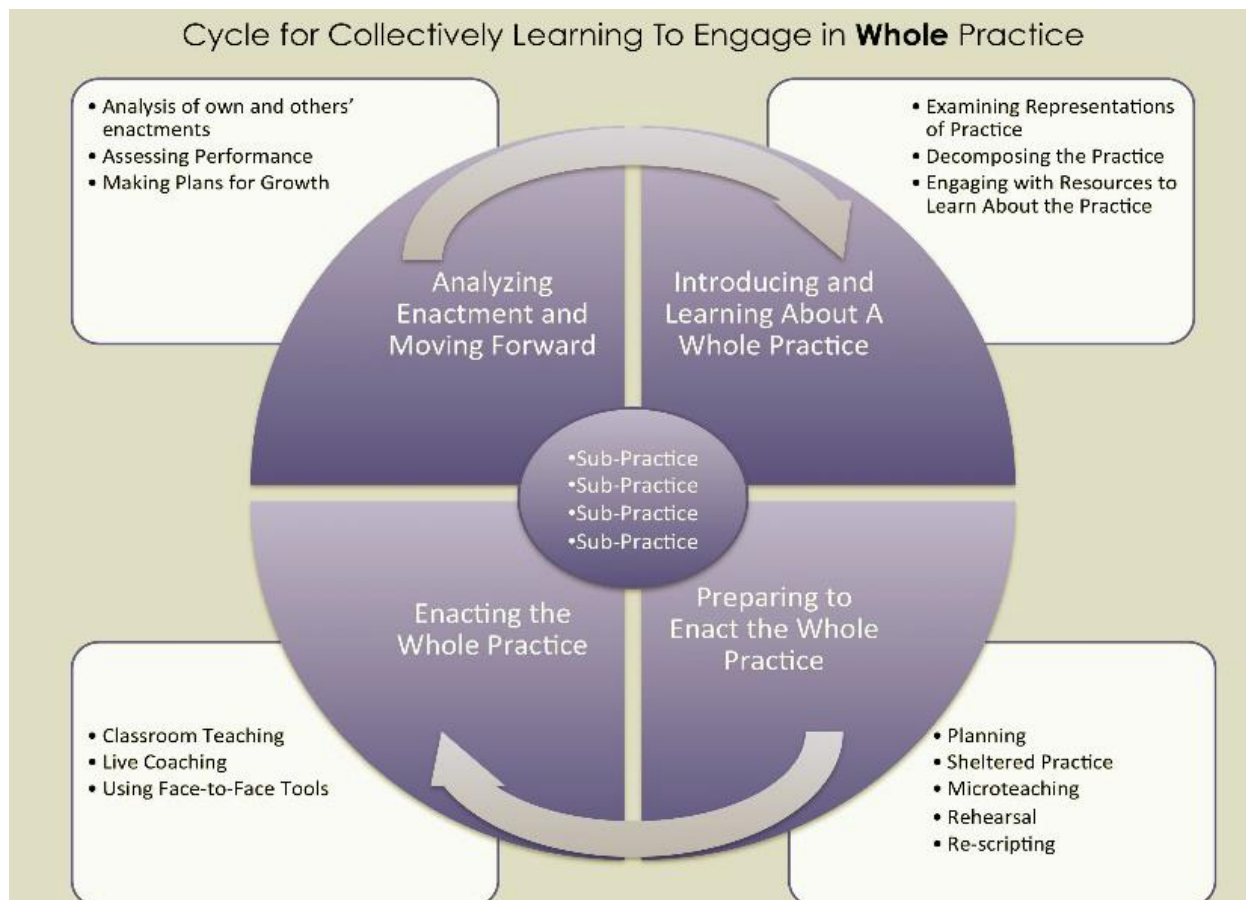
	Autumn Quarter	Winter Quarter	Spring Quarter
<p>Year 1 Coursework: To earn a WA- state “Residency” Teaching Certificate</p>	<p>EDTEP 515: Instructional Performance & Practice I (4cr)</p> <p>EDTEP 601: U-ACT Practicum (3cr)</p> <p>EDC&I 495: Equity, Diversity, & Social Justice in Practice (3cr)</p> <p>First quarter total credits = 10 Full-time Practicum in the field</p>	<p>EDTEP 516: Instructional Performance & Practice II (4cr)</p> <p>EDTEP 601: U- ACT Practicum (3cr)</p> <p>EDTEP 566: Creating Classrooms for All Students (4cr)</p> <p>Second quarter total credits = 11 Full-time Practicum in the field</p>	<p>EDTEP 517: Instructional Performance & Practice III (4cr)</p> <p>EDTEP 601: U-ACT Practicum (5cr)</p> <p>EDTEP 555: Understanding Tribal Sovereignty: Implications for Teaching & Learning (1cr)</p> <p>Third quarter total credits = 10 Full-time Practicum in the field</p>
<p>Year 2 Coursework: To earn a Master’s in Teaching degree</p>	<p>ALL Teachers enroll in: EDTEP 511: School & Society (3cr)</p> <p>Elementary Teachers enroll in: EDTEP 543: Teaching & Learning in Social Studies (4cr)</p> <p>Secondary Teachers enroll in: EDTEP 575: Working with ELLs & Literacy Across the Curriculum (4cr)</p> <p>Fourth quarter total credits = 7</p>	<p>ALL Teachers enroll in: EDTEP 541: Dilemmas of Teaching & Learning (3cr)</p> <p>Elementary Teachers enroll in: EDTEP 523: Teaching & Learning in Science (3cr)</p> <p>EDTEP 544: Differentiated Instruction with ELLs (4cr)</p> <p>Secondary Teachers enroll in: EDTEP 573: Assessment in</p>	<p>ALL Teachers enroll in: EDTEP 505: Capstone Project (3cr)</p> <p>EDTEP 601: U-ACT Practicum (5cr)</p> <p>Sixth quarter total credits = 8 Full-time Practicum in the field</p>

	Full-time Practicum in the field	Secondary Education (4cr) Fifth quarter total credits = 7-10 Full-time Practicum in the field	
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TOTAL CREDITS: 53-55

Appendix K

UACT's Learning Cycle



Appendix L

Federal Way: Five Goals

1. **THE EARLY YEARS: BUILDING THE FOUNDATION**

Every student scholar will enter kindergarten ready to learn with the social-emotional skills that will propel each student to meet or exceed grade level standards in English Language Arts (ELA) and Mathematics by the end of 3rd grade. By 2022 80% of 3rd grade scholars will be meeting or exceeding grade-level standards in ELA.

2. **WHOLE CHILD: THRIVING, CONFIDENT, RESPONSIBLE INDIVIDUALS**

Every student scholar will be empowered and prepared to develop personal responsibility in order to be positive, productive members of society. By 2022 there will be no disproportionality evident in discipline data. By 2022, 100% of scholars feel their school is safe and welcoming as measured by perception survey.

3. **ACTIVE LEARNERS: ENGAGED, EMPOWERED CRITICAL THINKERS**

Every student scholar will be empowered with ownership of their education and be fully engaged in becoming critical and creative thinkers. By 2022, 100% of scholars are engaged and challenged as measured by perception survey.

4. **CONTENT-AREA COMPETENCE: MASTERY OF ALL SUBJECTS**

Every student scholar will receive equitable opportunity for success, and will meet or exceed standards of performance in all subjects by the end of each grade. By 2022 80% of 8th grade scholars will be meeting or exceeding grade-level standards in ELA.

5. **PERSISTENCE TO GRADUATION: HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATION THROUGH SUCCESSFUL TRANSITIONS**

Every student scholar will successfully navigate the critical transitions in their schooling, and will graduate from high school ready for college, career, and postsecondary experiences. By 2022 95% of the senior class will graduate on time.

Appendix M

STR Gradual Release Fall

This document provides details about Resident and Mentor roles in the classroom throughout the quarter. Residents’ adherence to this calendar is part of determining their grade in the field practicum coursework. Coaches and Mentors may modify this document as needed if appropriate. **NOTE: there is a different version of this document that includes SPED competencies.**

NOTE: Each week, Residents will need to submit a calendar of content areas they will be lead/co-teaching to their Instructional Coach **NO LATER THAN FRIDAY BY 5 PM FOR THE UPCOMING WEEK.** This calendar will be uploaded to Google Drive based on the format determined by Coach.

Week/Month	Important Calendar Items	Resident Role	Mentor Role	Time Together
Sept 4-8	-Sept 6 – First Day of School	-Learn routines of classroom and observe classroom culture –Take notes in Field Experience Notebook	-Provide Resident with explicit information regarding beginning of the year procedures and routines/classroom management	Minimum 1 hour weekly Sacred Meeting Time
Sept 11-22	-All day coursework Friday Sept 15	-Take over a small group in one content area 2-3 days a week -Begin to take on 1-2 classroom routines (morning meeting, walking to and from lunch, etc.) -Teach a minilesson in math and literacy each week (at least one in each content area each week)	-Provide learning targets and resources for Resident and co-plan lessons they teach -Actively observe and provide feedback to Resident	Minimum 1 hour weekly Sacred Meeting Time to determine learning targets and co-plan Resident lessons
Sept 25- Oct 13	-All day coursework Friday Sept 22, Sept 29, October 6,	-Teach one content area block each day (should be	-Provide necessary resources in advance to Residents for preparing: includes unit goals/topics,	-Minimum 1 hour weekly Sacred Meeting Time to

	<p>Tuesday, October 10, Friday, October 13 -Mentor PD Tuesday Sept 26 -No School Monday October 9</p>	<p>the same content area for at least two weeks) -Continue to share responsibility for classroom routines (lead 1-2 each day)</p>	<p>curriculum materials, learning targets, lesson plans -Collaborate with resident to develop learning targets -Review lesson plans for feedback -Actively observe and provide feedback to Resident -<i>Co-teaching approaches</i> are implemented.</p>	<p>create learning targets for Resident's lessons -Mentor should observe and provide feedback</p>
Oct 16-Nov 3	<p>-Mentor PD October 19 -All day coursework Friday Oct 20, 27, Nov 3 -Learning Rotations Oct 30 and 31</p>	<p>-Teach ½ day (AM or PM) -Continue to share responsibility for classroom routines while teaching</p>	<p>-Provide necessary resources in advance to Residents for preparing: includes unit goals/topics, curriculum materials, learning targets, lesson plans -Review lesson plans for feedback -Actively observe and provide feedback to Resident -Plan learning targets for Lead Teaching Week (Nov 6-9) with Mentor</p>	<p>-Minimum 1 hour weekly Sacred Meeting Time to create learning targets for Resident's Lead Teaching -Mentor should observe and provide feedback</p>
Nov 6-10	<p>-Lead Teaching Nov 6-11 -Veteran's Day Friday Nov 11 (No school)</p>	<p>-Lead teaching (see description at the end of document) -Attend at least 10 parent- teacher conferences and lead one with guidance from Mentor</p>	<p>-Provide necessary resources in advance to Residents for preparing: includes unit goals/topics, curriculum materials, learning targets, lesson plans -Collaborate with Resident to develop learning targets Review lesson plans for feedback -Actively observe and provide feedback to Resident -Collaborate with Resident to determine which conferences to</p>	<p>-Minimum 1 hour weekly Sacred Meeting Time to create learning targets for Resident's lessons -Mentor should observe and provide feedback</p>

			attend and provide guidance for them to lead one -Continue implementing co-teaching approaches	
Nov 13-17	-Mentor PD Nov 16 -All day coursework Friday Nov 17	-Teach ½ day (AM or PM) -Continue to share responsibility for classroom routines when teaching	-Provide necessary resources in advance to Residents for preparing: includes unit goals/topics, curriculum materials, learning targets, lesson plans -Collaborate with Resident to develop learning targets Review lesson plans for feedback -Actively observe and provide feedback to Resident -Collaborate with Resident to determine which conferences to attend and provide guidance for them to lead one -Continue implementing co-teaching approaches	-Minimum 1 hour weekly Sacred Meeting Time to create learning targets for Resident’s lessons -Mentor should observe and provide feedback
Nov 20-24	-Parent Teacher Conferences Nov 20-22 -All day coursework Tuesday Nov 21 -No school Thursday Nov 23 and Friday Nov 24	-Attend at least 10 parent teacher conferences and lead one with Mentor support	-Support Resident in leading conference and contributing to all conferences	-Minimum 1 hour weekly Sacred Meeting Time to create learning targets for Resident’s lessons
Nov 27-Dec 8	-All day coursework Friday Dec 1 -Mentor PD Dec 7 -All day coursework Friday Dec 8	-Teach ½ day (AM or PM) <i>Note: by December 1, Resident should have taught in ALL content areas</i>	-Provide necessary resources in advance to Residents for preparing: includes unit goals/topics, curriculum materials, learning targets, lesson plans	-Minimum 1 hour weekly Sacred Meeting Time to create learning

		-Continue to share responsibility for classroom routines	-Collaborate with Resident to develop learning targets Review lesson plans for feedback -Actively observe and provide feedback to Resident -Collaborate with Resident to determine which conferences to attend and provide guidance for them to lead one -Continue implementing co-teaching approaches	targets for Resident’s lessons -Mentor should observe and provide feedback
Dec 11-15	-Last day of school for students is Friday Dec 15 -SPS Winter Break Dec 18 –Jan 1 (students, mentors, residents return Monday Jan 2)	<i>UW Finals Week</i> – Resident may continue to share classroom routines and teach some small groups, but will not plan or teach whole content blocks	-Provide necessary resources in advance to Residents for preparing for winter quarter: includes unit goals/topics, curriculum materials, learning targets, lesson plans	-Minimum 1 hour weekly Sacred Meeting Time to create learning targets for Resident’s lessons -Mentor should observe and provide feedback

Lead Teaching in Fall Quarter

A general description of the lead role is as follows:

- **When the Resident is lead teacher, she or he is primary executor of lessons and is responsible for submitting lesson plans to Mentor and Coach for all content areas.**
- Mentor teacher is the lead on planning learning targets and assessment in collaboration with the Resident, using whatever strategy is best for students. This may include times when the Resident and Mentor Teacher share in lead for particular lessons (e.g., parallel teaching, team teaching). Resident will write detailed lesson plans based on the outline established by Mentor and will submit to Mentor in advance of Lead Teaching Week.
- Resident takes the lead on classroom management strategies. Mentor will support and provide feedback as needed.

- Resident is responsible for classroom administrative duties (attendance, discipline, etc.) and grading, with Mentor Teacher support.
- Resident takes on responsibility for connecting with parents (*with support of Mentor Teacher*)
- Resident participates in student support meetings (with counselors, special services, disciplinary team, etc.)
- A variety of co-teaching approaches should be applied, including but not exclusive to solo teaching
 - Solo teaching should be built in at times when the particular lesson(s) are supported by this approach;
 - Should solo teaching be applied, Mentor Teacher should continue to support class and be engaged observing, video-taping followed by review, or pulling out individual students or small groups

Appendix N

Coach Observation Tool

STR Lesson Observation Tool, Fall 2019 Adapted from University of Washington Secondary Teacher Education Program and UW Teacher Leadership Programs STR Mentor Development

Resident: Date: Content Area: School: Observer Name:

Coaches will use this document to guide the Coach observation process for the Residents' Fall Gateway. This document must be uploaded to Google Drive in order to receive credit for the Fall Gateway.

PART 1: Planning and Pre-Observation

Co-Planning meeting with Resident and Mentor should be at least 4 days before lesson is taught. Mentors and Residents should discuss elements of the Formal Observation Lesson Planning Guide together as needed. Resident should then Lesson Planning Guide and send to Mentor and Coach at least 48 hours in advance.

PART 2: Lesson Enactment and Data Collection

From Resident Lesson Plan

What are 1-2 things they are working on in their practice? These will be moves or actions that Coach can pay attention to during the lesson to guide data collection.

Appendix O

STR Coursework Overview

2019-2020 Course Sequence			
Quarter 1 Summer	Quarter 2 Fall	Quarter 3 Winter	Quarter 4 Spring
EDTEP 501 C: Community-Based Field Experience Practicum, including seminar sessions (2)	EDTEP 502 C: Second Quarter Field Experience Practicum, including seminar sessions (2)	EDTEP 503 B: Third Quarter Field Experience Practicum, including seminar sessions (4)	EDTEP 601 Fourth Quarter Field Experience, including seminar sessions (4)
EDTEP 531 C: Teaching & Learning in Literacy I (3)*	EDTEP 532 C: Teaching & Learning in Literacy II (4)*	EDTEP 533: Teaching & Learning in Literacy III (3)*	EDC&I 539 Students' Mathematical Thinking, Curriculum, and Pedagogy (4)*
EDTEP 521 A: Teaching & Learning in Numeracy I (4)*	EDTEP 522 C: Teaching & Learning in Numeracy II (3)*	EDSPE 503 C: Classroom Management (1)	EDSPE 503 A: Classroom Management (1)
EDSPE 503 C: Classroom Management (1)	EDSPE 503 C: Classroom Management for Elementary School Educators (1)	EDTEP 564 C: Working in Schools (1)	EDTEP 564: Working in Schools (1)
EDTEP 511 C: School & Society (3)* <i>becomes Working in Schools</i>	EDTEP 564 C: Working in Schools (1)	EDTEP 544 D: Differentiated Instruction: CLD (1)	EDTEP 544: Differentiated Instruction: CLD (1)
EDSPE 520 A: Seminar in Applied Special Education (1)*	EDTEP 544: Differentiated Instruction: Cultural and Linguistic Diversity (2)*	EDSPE 520 A: Seminar in Applied Special Education (1)	EDC&I 324 A: Physical education and Health in Schools (2)
EDTEP 544 C: Differentiated Instruction: Learning Theory and Child Development (2) <i>Combined with: EDC&I 495 C: Workshop in Improvement</i>	EDSPE 520 E: Seminar in Applied Special Education (2)*	EDC&I 465 A: STR Social Studies (3)	EDTEP 523A: Teaching and Learning in Science (3)
		EDC&I 494: Workshop in Improvement of Curriculum - "Issues of Abuse" (1), on-line	<i>Sped Pathway Only:</i>
		EDTEP 552 A: Assessment (1)	

<p>of Teaching - Learning Theory and Child Development (1) <i>EDTEP 544 will be combined grade</i></p> <p>Art Workshop LGBT Workshop Assessment Institute: Data Knowledge Science modules</p>	<p><i>EDTEP 552 C: Assessment in Elementary Education (1)</i></p> <p><i>C6 Special Education Pathway: EDTEP 502 D: STR Foundations in SPED Seminar (2)*</i></p> <p>Science modules</p>	<p><i>C6 Special Education Pathway: EDTEP 503 D STR Foundations in SPED Seminar (3)*</i></p> <p>Science modules</p>	<p><i>C6 Special Education Pathway: EDSPE 520 B: STR Foundations in SPED Seminar (4)*</i></p>
<p>Q1 Total Credits Gen Ed: 17 SpEd: 17</p>	<p>Q2 Total Credits Gen Ed: 16 SpEd: 18</p>	<p>Total Q3 Credits Gen Ed: 16 SpEd: tbd</p>	<p>Total Q4 Credits Gen Ed: 16 SpEd: tbd</p>
<p>Quarter 5 – SPED or ELL Endorsement Courses + EDTEP 555: Understanding Indigenous Perspectives: Implication for Teaching and Learning (1)</p>			

An * indicates graded course

Appendix P

STR Core Practices of Equitable Teaching

<p>Establish a Community of Learners</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Classroom norms and expectations are established and maintained. • Teacher/student and student/student relationships are built and nurtured. • Expectations for participation are clear. • Classroom discussion is common with norms that support students building on and responding to each other's ideas.
<p>Teach Towards Instructional Goals</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning goals are set that are developmentally appropriate and fit along a trajectory that is standards-based. • Thoroughly planned lessons are intentionally created that set students up to meet the learning goal(s), reflect instruction, and are fully aligned to standards and assessments. • Modifications are made during instruction to support students in meeting the learning goals.
<p>Position Students as Competent Sense Makers</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instruction includes academically rigorous tasks and content. • Access to strategies, tools & resources are provided to students to support meeting learning goals. • Tools to express ideas/arguments and ask questions are provided so that students have ownership of ideas. • Student thinking is the center of academic work where teachers and students validate each other's thinking.
<p>Teach with Each Student in Mind</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students' ideas, lived experiences, cultures, languages, and diverse beliefs and understandings are integrated into planning and instruction. • Planning includes differentiation for all students, addressing potential biases in curriculum. • A flexible and responsive learning environment is established, attending to students' needs in the moment. • Student responses and misconceptions are anticipated and planned for.
<p>Orient Students to the Content</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support is provided for students to articulate their understandings of what they are learning and why. • Student thinking is represented to facilitate connections to/with the content. • Big ideas – what's important to learn and why – are highlighted. • Students are supported to make sense of and use academic language to discuss content.
<p>Assess Student Understanding to Guide Instruction</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formative and summative assessment data are analyzed and used to plan for data-driven instruction. • A variety of formal and informal assessments are utilized to monitor student progress. • Students are viewed as active participants in a continuous feedback loop using both formative and summative assessment. • Students engage in self- and peer assessment.
<p>Invest in the School Community to Support Student Learning</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Authentic partnerships are built with families and communities through ongoing communication to support student learning both in and out of the classroom. • Participation in professional learning opportunities is sought after and ongoing. • Active engagement and participatory roles are taken on (by teachers) in different levels of community (classroom, professional, broader community).
<p>Reflect on Teaching Practice</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflection on teaching practice is continuous (lessons taught, conversations with students, transitions, etc) through video and/or written reflection to identify strengths, successful strategies, and areas for growth. • Feedback from peers, mentors and others is invited to improve teaching practice. • Self-assessment is part of the assessment/instruction cycle. • New methods and strategies are sought to improve teaching practice based on feedback and self-assessment. • Improvement in teaching practice is observable based on feedback provided.