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Program of
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UP TO THE TASK?

A POLICY ANALYSIS OF THE MASSACHUSETTS EDTPA PILOT AND

FIELD TEST

Dissertation
By

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Submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

December, 2020

Abstract

UP TO THE TASK?
A POLICY ANALYSIS OF THE MASSACHUSETTS EDTPA PILOT AND
FIELD TEST

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The Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test (2010-2013) was launched by the

Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education to evaluate the

possible adoption of edTPA within that state. Guided by Cochran-Smith et al.'s(2013)

Politics of Policy Framework, this mixed-methods study examines this policy initiative

by analyzing the dominant national media of the era using Stone's (2002) concept of

"metaphors and analogies" as well as interview data from 21 teacher educator

participants from the five pilot educator preparation institutions.

Findings indicate that multiple dominant frames permeated the national and

Massachusetts media narrative, specifically a focus on efficiency, equity, and liberty.

These frames were used by both proponents and opponents of edTPA implementation.

Moreover, despite many similarities between pilot institutions, implementation of the

Massachusetts, edTPA evolved differently in each organization due to multiple

institutional-level factors, including access to resources, strength of institutional

leadership and organization, level of program coherence, and presence or absence of a

strong internal accountability system.

Consistent with co-construction theories of policy implementation (Datnow &

Park, 2009) this study unpacks the iterative and dynamic nature of policy development

and implementation. In doing so, it highlights the real-world complexity of policy

implementation at the institutional level and how policy can be interpreted and

implemented differently in varying contexts.

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my family for their endless support and encouragement.

and I (the Phenomenal Hottubbin' Dissertators) were a team. The doctoral program wouldn't have been the same without you. Jana and Pat were instrumental in helping me finish the dissertation. Our weekly meetings over the past year provided the feedback and goal-setting I needed to finish. I hope we continue to meet regularly now that all three of us are done.

To Amie Bloom— I truly cannot thank you enough. In every step of this process, from encouraging me to apply to doctoral programs through the completion of my dissertation, you always been so giving of your advice and support. I am fortunate to have you in my life.

To my family, including my parents, Tom and Barbara; my siblings, Tom, David, Cheri and her husband, Paul; and my in-laws, Mike, Kathy, Stephanie and her husband Kurt, and Danielle. This doctoral program was truly a family affair. I thank you for the amazing ways you've all helped including providing day care, time-shares, and late-evening food drop-offs. You are all so special to me.

To my husband Mike and son, Michael, who have sacrificed so much to allow me to see this program to the end. I have been absent from too many dinners, practices, and celebrations in pursuit of this degree. I look forward to making up for all that was missed. Thank you for the unconditional love and support.

And finally, to the incredible Massachusetts teacher educators and administrators who work tirelessly to support student learning across the state. Thank you for making an indelible impact students' lives in an ever-shifting and challenging landscape.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter One

Preservice Teacher Quality in the Age of Accountability

Most people view education through their experiences as students. They take a narrow perspective of the purpose of teaching as knowledge building and the shaping of student morals. Popular culture reifies this commonly held view, reinforcing these dual-core aspects of teaching, albeit slightly twisting the role with additional skills and attributes. For example, the venerable *Welcome Back Kotter* sitcom depicted Gabe Kotter as a teacher who impacted his students by liberally sprinkling his lessons with comedy bits and impersonations. In addition to teaching Spanish and History, Will Schuester from *Glee* sang and danced as the McKinley High School Glee Club faculty advisor. Valerie Frizzle, an eclectic and otherworldly elementary school teacher, created unforgettable learning experiences for her students using *The Magic School Bus*.

Missing from this widely held viewpoint is the impact of teachers on the United States' social, political, and economic outcomes. In schools across the country, teachers are responsible for transmitting national values as well as developing shared norms and priorities (Goodwin & Oyler, 2008). These shared national values are infused across the curriculum and reinforced every day. Examples include the morning recitation of the Pledge of Allegiance, the teaching of government structures and historical figures in civics and history classes, the sharing of American folktales and literature in English Language Arts, and the celebration of national events such as Thanksgiving.

Beyond encouraging the transmission of national values, it is assumed by some that teachers' work connects directly to United States economic output (Cochran-Smith, 2008). For many people, K-12 classrooms are training centers for future employees. To

them, it is critical that teachers not only develop lessons and units that showcase content essential for the workplace, they must also structure lessons to reinforce relevant workplace skills. For example, there is a significant emphasis placed on reading comprehension, computation, and oral and written communication skills in schools across the country. These are all foundational skills in many jobs, especially in high output professions such as research, engineering, and business.

Teachers encourage the development of so-called soft-skills to assist in economic development. Sometimes called the "New Basic Skills" (Murnane, 1996) or "21st Century Skills" (Lemke, 2002), these attributes focus on collaboration, digital literacy, creativity, and efficiency—essential skills in the modern workplace. By creating dynamic and adaptive learning environments, teachers help enculturate students in creative ways of working that translate into the development of new products and industries (Cochran-Smith, 2008; Furlong et al., 2009). Thus, teachers and teaching are much more complicated than what is typically understood by the general public. Teachers are critical to the success of our nation and its standing in the world.

Within this multifaceted understanding of teachers' roles underlies a pervasive and influential belief that high-quality teachers must occupy American classrooms. Given the outsized role of teachers in the United States' economy, government, and society, the quality of teachers is of utmost importance to many. For example, over the past forty years, teacher quality has been a common topic in policy circles starting with the *A Nation at Risk* report (1983), continuing with the *No Child Left Behind* (2001) / *Every Student Succeeds Act* (2015) legislation, and reaching its apex with the Obama Administration's *Our Future, Our Teachers* (2011) policy brief. Popular media echoes

this focus on teacher-quality with frequent cover stories in popular magazines including "We Must Fire Bad Teachers" (*Newsweek*, March 5, 2010); and "Rotten apples: It's nearly impossible to fire a bad teacher, some tech millionaires may have found a way to change that" (*Time*, November 3, 2014). Although since disgraced, Michelle Rhee, the former Washington D.C. Chancellor of Public Schools was a darling within the media, frequently photographed steely-eyed and armed with a prop (e.g. a broom) to symbolize her willingness to dispose of so-called terrible teachers (Time, December 8, 2010).

Despite this overarching desire for high-quality teachers in America's schools, there is a lack of consensus on defining and measuring "high quality" teaching as well as how to ensure that quality teachers enter the profession (Cochran-Smith, 2001; Cochran-Smith, Feiman-Nemser, McIntyre, & Demers, 2008). Despite the lack of the definition of a "high quality" teacher, there have been numerous attempts to do so. In service teacher evaluation has undergone an incredible metamorphosis over the past years, resulting in expanded local and state teacher evaluation regulations and guidelines (Darling-Hammond, 2000). Over the past few decades, researchers used an array of variables to measure the quality of a teacher on such things as academic ability and intelligence (e.g. Vance and Schlechty, 1982), subject matter knowledge (e.g. Wilson et al., 2001), understanding of pedagogy (e.g. Ashton & Croker, 1987), years of teaching experience (e.g. Kini & Podolsky, 2016), and type of certification (e.g. Darling-Hammond et al., 2005). However, despite scores of studies, findings were mixed or inconclusive at best.

In preservice teacher education, defining what constitutes a "high-quality preservice teacher" is similarly undefined (Strong, 2011). Beyond an agreement that quality preservice teachers should possess a post-secondary degree, there is a lack of

consensus over how to define or to evaluate preservice teacher quality (Chung Wei &
Pecheone, 2010). For example, researchers throughout the years have attempted to
measure quality teaching in a variety of ways, including evaluating teachers' academic
competency (e.g. Clotfelder et al., 2007), certification status (e.g. Goldhaber & Brewer,
2000), years of experience (e.g. Cavalluzzo, 2004), growth in their students' standardized
test scores (e.g. Boyd et al., 2009) and evaluation of preservice teachers based on
observation (e.g. Clotfelter et al., 2007). However, none of these ways of evaluating
preservice teachers is without critique. Some argue that studies measuring teacher quality
are either inconclusive or provide an incomplete view of what constitutes quality teaching
(Strong, 2011).

Adding to the lack of clarity about preservice teacher evaluation, teacher
certification, the primary gatekeeping mechanism to ensure that quality teachers enter the
classroom, is also highly contested terrain. According to Wilson (2010), contemporary
teacher certification debates centered on much more than teacher expertise and
knowledge. Instead, they "tell a story of struggle for professional status, for control, [and]
for quality" (p. 853). In essence, certification, including who defines the process and
serves as the gatekeeper, reflected both local values and the qualities communities want
in their teachers and the profession's desire for respect and status as a profession (Wilson,
2010).

Aligning to the concept of local control of education, teachers certification policy
is generated at the state level, with each state mandating a somewhat different set of
certification requirements such as preparation coursework or teacher tests. While state-
level certification aligns with teaching standards that are geared to local values and state

economic priorities (Espinoza et al., 2018), state-level credentialing makes comparisons of teacher quality across states next to impossible. Each state has a myriad of expectations and standards to enter the teaching profession resulting in a "crazy quilt of basic skills, content knowledge, and teaching skills assessments" (Crowe, 2010, p.8) that comprise the American teacher certification process.

It has been a longstanding mission by some to simplify the initial teacher certification process across the nation, as was done with National Board Certification. The establishment of standardized norms in expectations and standards had the potential to allow states to ameliorate teaching shortages and recruit experienced and effective educators from beyond its borders while maintaining a highly qualified teaching force. With the creation of the edTPA, a Stanford University-created preservice teaching assessment that shared the same intellectual aim as National Board Certification, the goal of a nationally accepted "gold standard" of preservice teacher quality was in reach.

The Origins of the edTPA

Intending to create a mechanism that both defines preservice teacher quality and ensures that quality teachers enter the field, in 2009, the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (AACTE), the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO), faculty at Stanford University, and the Stanford Center for Assessment, Learning, and Equity (SCALE) teamed together to form the Teacher Performance Assessment Consortium (TPAC). Together, TPAC created a new preservice teacher assessment intended to establish a benchmark for high-quality teaching. TPAC drew upon research and best practices learned from the NBPTS (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards), PACT (the Performance Assessment for California

Teachers), and its forbearer, Connecticut's BEST (Beginning Educator Support and Training) exam.

As acknowledged on its website (nbpts.org), the antecedents to the NBPTS exam was the *A Nation at Risk* report (US Department of Education, 1983) and its successor, *A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century* (Task Force on Teaching as a Profession, 1986). Both focused on professionalizing teaching by increasing standards for teachers. These two reports sparked the creation of national standards for teachers and the National Board Certification process, a voluntary process in which teachers demonstrate skills and knowledge that meets NBPTS standards for one of 16 disciplines. Teacher participation in the process is voluntary; however, NBPTS certification in many states counts in lieu of traditional state certification routes (NBPST.org).

The BEST exam, emanating out of Connecticut, was created during the same era (1986) as the NBPTS. Unlike the NBPTS, which was a national exam focusing on certification for practicing teachers, the BEST exam was conceived as an assessment to evaluate preservice teachers for Connecticut state certification. The BEST was comprised of multiple sections, including analysis of teaching artifacts and video-clips, and answers to reflection prompts contained within subject-specific handbooks. Of particular note was the depth of feedback provided. Candidates received personalized and comprehensive information about their submission, which provided an additional level of richness to the exam's impact.

The PACT exam was first created in 1998 and developed in response to California legislation requiring preservice teacher assessments for all teacher candidates seeking California certification. Like the BEST exam, the PACT required candidates to

reflect upon videotaped teaching segments and artifacts. Scores were based on the candidate's ability to meet the criteria outlined by detailed rubrics based on standardized criteria. Although feedback was less extensive than the BEST, the PACT was locally scored, with area university faculty and master teachers providing context-specific responses to each submission. In 2009, the PACT gained national recognition when U.S. Secretary of Education Arnie Duncan lauded the assessment in his influential speech at Teachers' College. Within the speech, he specifically highlighted PACT's reliance on performance assessments to measure teacher candidate efficacy (Duncan, 2009). In Table 1 below, each of the three influential performance assessments are unpacked, spotlighting the significant features of each and their influence on the edTPA.

Table 1: Major Features of the NBPTS, BEST, PACT and their Influence on the edTPA

	Major Features	Influence on the edTPA
National Board for Professional Teaching Standards Exam (NBPTS)	• Volunteer exam for veteran teachers to earn national certification by demonstrating skills and knowledge that meets NBPTS standards • Individual exams across multiple disciplines (16) • Passing score on NBPTS timed exam coupled with portfolio review. Portfolio contains student work samples, lesson artifacts, videotaped interactions with students, and candidate reflections • Used in multiple states to meet certification requirements	• Standards-based performance exam • Portfolio comprised of student work samples, lesson artifacts, videotaped interactions with students, and candidate reflections • Is used in multiple states to meet certification requirements
Beginning Educator Support and Training (BEST)	• Mandatory exam for preservice teachers to earn Connecticut certification by	• Standards-based performance exam • Portfolio comprised of student work samples,

	demonstrating skills and knowledge that meets the Common Core of Teaching standards • Common Core of Teaching Standards used both in Connecticut's preservice teacher evaluation and in-service teacher evaluation • Individual exams across multiple disciplines (10) • Passing score on the Praxis II content exam coupled with a portfolio review. Portfolio contains student work samples, lesson artifacts, videotaped interactions with students, and candidate reflections • In-depth submission feedback is provided. • Met Connecticut certification requirements only.	lesson artifacts, videotaped interactions with students, and candidate reflections.
Performance Assessment for California Teachers (PACT)	• Mandatory exam for preservice teachers to earn California - certification by demonstrating skills and knowledge based on California's Teaching Performance Expectations. • Individual exams across multiple disciplines • Portfolio contains student work samples, lesson artifacts, videotaped interactions with students, and candidate reflections • Met California certification requirements only	• Standards-based performance exam • Portfolio comprised of student work samples, lesson artifacts, videotaped interactions with students, and candidate reflections.

Both the BEST and the PACT were considered to be a valid and reliable

preservice teacher performance assessments. Moreover, each touted its ability to assess

teaching authentically- an acknowledged shortcoming of most test-based forms of

preservice teacher evaluation (Strong, 2011; Porter et al., 2001). According to the team at SCALE, performance assessments not only capture a wide variety of performance measures such as lesson development and assessment techniques, but they also show that teacher candidates are able to perform within the real-world context of the classroom (Pecheone & Wei Chung, 2006). In addition, unlike other forms of preservice teacher evaluation, some conclude that the completion of a performance assessment is a powerful learning experience in itself (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 2000). Not only do teacher candidates have the opportunity to review past work as they collect artifacts for their portfolio, they are also required to reflect and analyze their own practice.

The result of TPAC's work was the edTPA[1], a portfolio-based performance assessment of a teacher-candidate's practicum experience. The edTPA required preservice teacher candidates to complete four separate performance tasks that are part of a culminating clinical experience. This included a requirement that teacher candidates document their teaching and learning for one class over a three to five-day period and to reflect upon this experience. Teacher candidates also supported their reflections with evidence, drawing from collected student work samples and video clips of instruction. These artifacts and reflections, which comprised a teacher-candidate's "portfolio," were uploaded onto a web-based platform, which enabled the portfolio to be viewed by teacher education faculty at their institution or by Pearson Education, a multi-national corporation contracted by SCALE to score and store portfolio artifacts. Once the portfolios were scored, teacher candidates and their institutions received individual

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[1]. The edTPA was initially named the TPA (Teacher Performance Assessment). The name change occurred in August 2012

scoring reports, and higher education institutions received aggregated data for their students. Depending on state policy, states participating in the edTPA also received data in aggregate form.

Once the inaugural year of field test study was completed (2011-2012), TPAC actively solicited feedback from the 28 state boards of education and 180 educator preparation institutions who participated. These data were collected through seminars, surveys, panel presentations, and one-to-one communication. During this evaluation period, edTPA coordinators and other faculty charged with implementing the edTPA expressed a range of positive and negative experiences during the edTPA pilot and field test (Winerip, 2012; Cochran-Smith et al., 2013). Feedback was also collected during a 2012 American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education Annual Conference session. During this event, a difference of opinion among teacher-educators emerged. While some teacher educators viewed the edTPA as a robust assessment with which to construct effective teacher education programs, others voiced their strong concerns regarding the potential adoption of the edTPA as a national model of preservice teacher assessment. Opposition centered on a perceived loss of local control and voice about teacher endorsement, issues related to privacy and ownership of portfolio data, and problems associated with the direct linking of teacher evaluation to a for-profit corporation (Pecheone et al., 2012).

In the years since its creation, the edTPA had gradually expanded its reach, growing from approximately 12,000 participants during its field test (2012-2013) to over 45,000 participants annually by 2018 (AACTE, 2018). As such, the edTPA and its sponsoring organizations (SCALE, AACTE, and Pearson Education) are major actors

within the domain of preservice teacher quality, teacher certification, and preservice teacher evaluation.

The Massachusetts edTPA Implementation

At the time of the launch of the edTPA, the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (DESE) was in the process of reviewing its use of the Massachusetts Preservice Performance Assessment (PPA), its statewide preservice teacher assessment. Used by Massachusetts educator preparation institutions across the state, the PPA was based on multiple supervisor-created open response prompts that were loosely aligned to five preservice teacher standards. Despite providing some data on preservice teacher candidates' quality, these data were not considered valid or reliable because feedback was not linked to specific rubrics or indicators (E. Losee, DESE Taskforce meeting, February 4, 2014). Thus, in its effort to create a robust preservice teacher evaluation, built on goals outlined by the 1993 Massachusetts Education Reform Act, DESE officials considered adopting edTPA.

Five educator preparation institutions were identified to participate in the pilot and represented a cross-section of "traditional" educator preparation institutions types. After initial discussions, each of these educator preparation institutions agreed to participate in both the 2011-2012 pilot test and the 2012-2013 field test administration of the edTPA, although, as discussed in Chapter Five, some institutions were more willing to participate than others. At the inception of the pilot, these five Massachusetts educator preparation institutions were slated to be among the initial group of "fast-tracked" states for full edTPA implementation by 2012-2013 (Darling-Hammond, 2010). However, as discussed later in this dissertation, multiple concerns from the Massachusetts educator

11

preparation institutions prompted DESE to discontinue its fast-track status. Issues with the assessment varied from institution to institution, as described in Chapter Five. At the pilot's conclusion in 2013, the five educator preparation institutions were allowed to choose to remain with edTPA or revert back to the PPA.

As a result of the collapse of the Massachusetts edTPA pilot and field test, DESE changed course and submitted a proposal to the Network for Transforming Educator Preparation grant (NTEP), a two-year pilot to develop an educator-preparation system that focused on "certification, preparation, program approval, and information on how graduates are doing in the classroom" (CCSSO, 2013). Funded by the Council of Chief State School Officers, the grant aligned to one of CCSSO's longstanding goals of designing effective teacher and administrator performance review systems (CCSSO, 2013). In Massachusetts, the project aimed to help state agencies select a statewide preservice teacher evaluation to replace the Preservice Performance Assessment (PPA). In October 2013, NTEP awarded DESE the grant along with seven other state-government agencies.

As part of the grant, in February 2014, DESE convened a group of teacher-educators representing educator preparation institutions across the state to discuss the future use of preservice teacher assessments for licensure. The group recommended the use of preservice teacher performance assessments within Commonwealth; however they could not agree to endorse a specific vendor- including the edTPA (E. Losee, DESE Taskforce Meeting, April 29, 2014). In August 2014, DESE announced that they would develop their own preservice teacher assessment. This assessment, the Candidate Assessment of Performance (CAP), was piloted within the state in the 2015-2016

academic year and fully implemented in July 2016. Since July 2016, the CAP was

universally used within educator preparation institutions across the Commonwealth,

closing any possibility of joining the 40+ other states who implement the edTPA. Figure

1 provides an overview of the significant events in the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and

Field Test, including the 2015 launch of the Candidate Assessment of Performance.

Figure 1: Massachusetts Teacher Performance Assessment Timeline
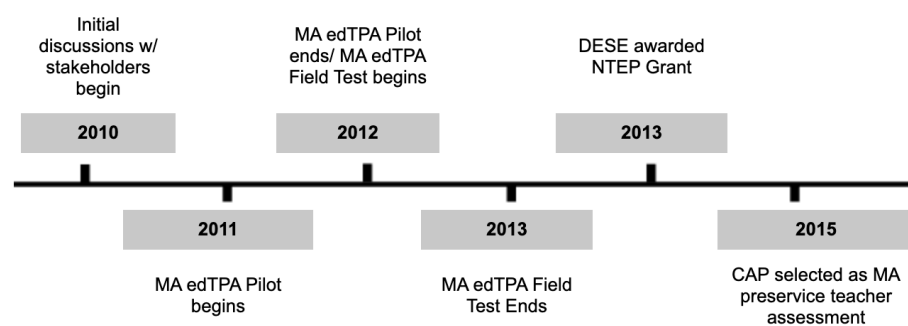
The five participating Massachusetts educator preparation institutions reflect the

diversity of edTPA participating institutions nationwide: four educator preparation

institutions were public universities and are subject to state-specific rules, regulations,

and funding issues. There was also a single private university within the study, which

experienced a different set of internally-generated set of regulations and protocols. In

addition to the differences in funding and governance, there was also great diversity

related to the universities' sizes and missions. Thus, the teacher educators' experiences

within these five Massachusetts field test sites provide an opportunity for understanding

how teacher-educators in one state comprehend and respond to a national policy

initiative.

Research Purpose

This dissertation is a critical policy analysis of the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test. It is guided by our Politics of Policy Framework that I helped to develop along with Marilyn Cochran-Smith and Peter Piazza (2013). This framework illuminates a policy's significant stakeholders, spotlights the relationships among and between them, identifies the prominent and subsumed discourses that align to a particular policy, and unpacks the role of context in policy development and implementation. Conceptualizing the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field test as a single case, I analyzed two sets of data, including edTPA media articles of the era and interviews with Massachusetts teacher educators involved with the policy implementation. Together, these formed a robust picture of the environment in which the Massachusetts edTPA was launched and informed my understanding of how individuals within five different educator preparation institutions conceptualized this state policy and enacted its tenets.

This study is influenced by the concept of policy-as-discourse, which argues that discourses can capture the social interactions inherent in policy production and implementation. Discourses are defined as meaningful social practices (Laclau & Mouffe, 1985), and they can include both verbal interactions (e.g. language) and non-verbal communication, including symbols, gestures, ideas, pictures, and images (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999; Hajer, 1993). Gee (1999) distinguishes little "d" discourse, which is language-in-use, and focuses specifically on the words that are exchanged, from big "D" Discourse, which language-in-use as well as the context in which it is used. According to Gee, Big "D" discourse includes spoken words, the actors involved in the conversation,

the situation and location in which the discussion occurs, and the collective histories of all elements involved in the dialog.

Discourses are purposefully used to generate shared understandings in social situations (Snow and Benford, 1988) as big "D" and little "d" discourses together provide rich informational, contextual, and historical information. While small "d," language-in-use conveys information, it is the big "D" discourses of everyday language and shared experiences that are essential for true understanding (van Dijk, 1998). Contexts are fundamental aspects of information interpretation, specifically "by the way participants define the situation in which the discourse occurs" (p. x). As such, discourses are not only iterative and reflexive (Volosinov, 1973); the interpretation of discourses is highly subjective and dependent on the actors' experiences and understanding (Paltridge, 2012).

On the individual and large-scale level, discourse can capture the authors' values and ethics (van Dijk, 1998). What is said and not said, how phrases and sentences are constructed, and how things are described reflect deeply seated ideologies and beliefs. According to Ball (2006), "We do not speak a discourse, it speaks to us. We are the subjectivities, the voices, the knowledge, the power relations that a discourses constructs and allows. We do not 'know' what we say, we 'are' what we say and do" (p. 48).

Discourses also identify loci of power, as "it is in discourse that power and knowledge, joined together" (Foucault, 1979, p. 100). Discourses not only identify who and what can be spoken, but they also capture the audience, authority of the speaker, and the power-structures in which they inhabit (Ball, 2006). This is especially true in large-

scale contexts in which the ability to share information is an opportunity obtained by a select few (van Dijk, 1985).

Policy artifacts in the written or spoken form, such as official press releases, meeting transcripts, and contracts, capture many facets of the policy process from its development to its implementation. They are instituted by those in power, such as a government or institutional agency, and document an implied consensus about a particular objective. According to Codd (1988), policy artifacts reflect those in power's ideologies and beliefs and do not reveal evidence of significant public dissent.

Ball (1993) categorized policy as either as 'text' or 'discourse,' each different in their construction and intent. According to Ball, policy-as-text is a codified policy, i.e. policy that outlines the policy itself and how it is to be implemented. Policy-as-text focuses on the procedural aspects of policy implementation and can be read, adapted, and modified. On the other hand, policy-as-discourse focuses on policy dynamics, such as how it is framed and what assumptions are made. Although Ball indicated that policy-as-text and policy-as-discourse were unique and independent forms of policy, Ozga (2000) argued that policy-as-text and policy-as-discourse are relational. Thus Ball's parsing of policy-as-text and policy-as-discourse is, in essence, a distinction without a difference. To Ozga, the written policy cannot be disentangled from the way the policy is presented and the underlying assumptions involved in its production or implementation.

This dissertation aligns with Ozga's (2000) more encompassing definition of policy as discourse and takes the stance that all forms of written and spoken policy are infused with underlying assumptions and framing. In this sense, policy is influenced by

16

multiple agents and includes any number of actors and contexts in which policy is developed and implemented. Each discourse is influenced by the speaker's opinion and their role in the institution they represent.

As defined above, policy-as-discourse can take the form of a narrative (Ozga, 2000; Gale, 2001), in which a pastiche of discourses is taken from a variety of sources and work together to form a 'story' of policy creation and implementation. As with literary narratives, policy narratives contain settings, characters, plots, conflict, moods, and themes and can be analyzed for an in-depth understanding (Debeer, 2011).

A policy-as-discourse approach has been used to analyze education policies in multiple contexts (Ball, 1994; Bacchi, 2000; Joshee, 2007; Joshee & Johnson, 2007; Cochran-Smith, et al., 2013) to deconstruct policies to better understand their elements and how they interact. A policy-as-discourse approach can unearth hidden ideologies that may govern aspects of policy development and implementation (Ozga & Gewirtz, 1994) and reveal the values of the actors that produced them (Popekewitz & Fendler, 1999).

 Moreover, a policy-as-discourse approach can help unpack how policies are received and interpreted. Understanding of policy is individualistic and highly subjective, with each actor's understanding dependent on his/her own identity, experiences, and contexts (Ball, 1994). Therefore, it is not the goal to reach a true consensus when analyzing policy using discourse approach. Instead, the point is to identify and analyze actors' multiple understandings (Codd, 1988).

In addition, a policy-as-discourse approach can reveal embedded power structures (Joshee & Johnson, 2007; Ball, 1990) and identify how policy empowers certain groups

and disempowers others (Goldberg, 2005). According to Ball (1990), "policies…speak with authority, they legitimate and initiate practices in the world, and they privilege certain visions and interests. They are power/knowledge configurations par excellence" (p. 22). Just as discourse can strengthen societal rules and norms, discourse approach can be used to identify challenges to power (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999) and understand if and how those not in power reshape policies in light of their unique contexts.

The policies-as-discourses associated with the Massachusetts edTPA pilot emanated from various mass media sources and were both national and local in origin. As the edTPA is a national preservice teaching assessment, the development and implementation of the edTPA in institutions across the nation were prominent in the data, including national education periodicals, local and regional newspapers, and internet blogs. These data provided an understanding of the dominant discourses that informed Massachusetts edTPA policy development and implementation as well as highlighted the actors, interpretive lenses, and power structures associated with the policy implementation. Moreover, they provided insights into how the "problem" of preservice teacher quality and evaluation was being conceptualized both within Massachusetts and across the nation.

Dialogues capturing the Massachusetts edTPA policy implementation nuances were drawn mostly from the participants themselves and were captured via interview transcripts. Interviews from 21 teacher educators in the five participating educator preparation institutions provided a depth of understanding of the edTPA policy in practice as well as a lens into the impact of a state teacher education policy on individual institutions. Together, these data formed a rich dataset that I used to analyze the

Massachusetts edTPA pilot implementation on multiple dimensions including the dominant framing by its proponents and opponents, the institutional factors influencing its implementation, and the overall impact on the Massachusetts educator preparation community.

Research Questions

Two overarching research questions guide this dissertation:

o   What were the discourses surrounding the edTPA during the Massachusetts edTPA pilot and field test?

o   How did Massachusetts teacher educators respond to the edTPA?

Together, these questions provide a greater understanding of how educator preparation organizations conceptualize and react to statewide policy initiatives, specifically the role of context in implementation at the institution level. With the growing influence of large-scale influencers on teacher education practice at the institutional level, such knowledge can help guide policymakers and institution leaders in developing and implementing future teacher education policies.

This dissertation argues that the Massachusetts edTPA policy implementation exemplifies the complexity of teacher education policy production and implementation. Specifically, I show how policy creation and implementation are contextually based and influenced by various internal and external factors. By demonstrating how five educator preparation institutions reacted to the Massachusetts edTPA policy, this dissertation illuminates how policy production and implementation are not static, rather they are shaped by both individuals and organizations alike.

In the next chapter, I introduce the Politics of Policy Framework (Cochran-Smith, et al., 2013) and explain its connections to Ball's policy cycle theory (Ball, 1993; Bowe et al, 1992) and Joshee's concept of policy webs (Joshee, 2007; Joshee & Johnson, 2007). In sharing this information, I assert that the Massachusetts edTPA policy can be analyzed using four distinct but interconnected lenses—Dominant Discourses, Constructing the "Problem" of Teacher Education, Policy in Practice, and Impact and Implementation. Together, these lenses provide an understanding of the development of the Massachusetts edTPA implementation pilot as a state-level teacher education policy initiative, its implementation, and its eventual state-level demise. I then analyze the literature to provide a detailed understanding of the historical, political and academic contexts in which Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test was developed and implemented. Specifically, I analyze contemporary literature from 2001 to the present, an era that was dominated by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) that "increased accountability for states, school districts, and schools" and required that all teachers teaching in core academic subjects be "highly qualified" (U.S. Department of Education, 2002). NCLB marks an important shift in teacher education policy creation and implementation, specifically transferring the locus from state-focused policies to one increasingly influenced by national/federal policy. To best understand this shift, I provide a detailed historical overview of teacher education policy over the past twenty years. Following this historical overview, I unpack three specific bodies of research that best support arguments made within this study: Preservice teacher evaluation, specifically licensure and credentialing, teacher performance assessments, and teacher education policy implementation. Here, I argue that the evaluation of preservice teachers has always

been contested terrain, and as such, the concept of "teacher quality" and how it is measured has never been universally accepted. This lack of definition on who should determine if a teacher candidate meets standards, what those standards are, and how related policies are implemented within educator preparation institutions provide a depth of understanding of the environment in which the edTPA policy was conceived and enacted.

Next, in Chapter Three, I introduce my research design, data collection process, and data analysis methodology. Specifically, I discuss how I use two different analysis methods to unpack two sets of data: mass media artifacts and interview transcripts. I also assert how these data work in tandem to provide broad and in depth understanding of edTPA implementation within teacher education institutions. Moreover, I present a figure that explains how the theoretical framework informs the research design and data analysis methods.

My two results chapters, Chapter Four and Chapter Five, use different data sets to answer my research questions. I present findings from an analysis of over 100 national and local edTPA related media articles within Chapter Four. Here, I demonstrate that the articles reveal multiple discourses within the national edTPA debate, including efficiency, equity, and liberty. Moreover, I argue these discourses reveal the turbulent and contested terrain in which the Massachusetts edTPA policy was created and implemented. Findings within Chapter Four lay the foundation for Chapter Five, which analyzes how individual teacher educators and their institutions reacted to the policy implementation. Within this chapter, I argue that although the five institutions were similar in many respects, the edTPA pilot/field test outcome in each of the educator

preparation institutions was impacted by varying degrees by access to human resource and other institutional resources, strength of individual leaders as well as efficacy of institutions' organizational structure, coherence between edTPA and program mission and goals, and the presence or absence of a strong internal accountability system. These factors influenced how the edTPA was interpreted by individual teacher educators. More importantly, it impacted each institutions' decision whether or not to continue using the edTPA at the conclusion of the pilot. This analysis shows that the same teacher education policy can be understood and implemented differently by individuals and institutions.

The final chapter, Chapter Six, provides an epilogue to the Massachusetts edTPA policy implementation and discusses the state's eventual decision to abandon the national assessment in favor of a home-grown instrument. Within this chapter, I summarize significant findings within this dissertation and provide recommendations and suggestions for future areas of research. I conclude by discussing the possible impacts of this study on state-level teacher education policy initiatives.

Acronyms and Terms

As indicated above, the edTPA is complex in its design, array of stakeholders, and implementation scope. Not only are definitions highly contested, but there was also a heavy reliance on both acronyms and jargon in the public discussions about the edTPA. The following acronyms and terms are used throughout this dissertation:

AACTE- The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education is an organization representing 800 teacher educator institutions. Its focus is to influence national education policy, provide leadership in teacher quality and other related

education matters, and provide members with information regarding education policies and professional development (AACTE, 2020). The AACTE is a founding partner in the edTPA initiative.

CCSSO- Council of Chief State School Officers is a non-partisan organization comprised of state-level elementary and secondary education officials. The organization provides guidance and assistance on educational issues impacting American schools.

DESE- The Department of Elementary and Secondary Education governs education policy for K-12 public education in Massachusetts. DESE oversees state policies focusing on educator licensure and teacher preparation programs.

edTPA- The edTPA is the official name of the preservice teacher performance assessment used to evaluate preservice student teachers in participating institutions. Originally named the TPA, the current name was adopted in August 2012.

InTASC- The Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium was created by the Council of Chief State School Officers. The consortium is comprised of state, and national education agencies/organizations focused on the preparation, licensing, and professional development of teachers.

MACTE- The Massachusetts Association of Colleges of Teacher Education. It is the Massachusetts affiliate of AACTE, and represents its 60+ members on state-level teacher education policy issues.

SCALE- The Stanford Center for Learning, Assessment, and Equity is associated with Stanford University and aims to improve teaching and learning by developing "innovative, educative, state-of-the-art performance assessments" (SCALE, 2020). It is a founding partner in the edTPA initiative.

Teacher Candidates- These are preservice teachers who are in the process of completing a teacher education program (either university-based or 'alternative').

Teacher Educators- Teacher educators are employees of traditional and alternative teacher education programs who instruct preservice teacher candidates. These include tenured and untenured faculty, instructors, coaches, and student-teacher supervisors.

TPA- Teacher Performance Assessment- An evaluation tool that is used to measure the skills and content knowledge of a teacher candidate. Most TPAs require participants to demonstrate competency as measured by standards-based rubrics using data gained from in-classroom experiences such as teaching observations and classroom artifacts.

TPAC- Teacher Performance Assessment Consortium is an organization representing the 180 institutions participating in the implementation of the edTPA.

Traditional Teacher Certification Program- Within this dissertation, a 'traditional' teacher preparation program is housed within a college or university-based department

and governed by university policy. Most 'traditional' teacher preparation programs award

a degree as part of the program.

Chapter Two

Discourses, Problem-Shaping, Interpretations, and Impact:
Theoretical Framework and Related Literature

As I discussed in Chapter One, preservice teacher education lies in a contested terrain, influenced by differing perceptions of how to define teacher quality and how it is measured. Over the years, multiple initiatives focused on ensuring that high-quality teachers enter the classroom, including edTPA, a joint initiative by Stanford University, Pearson Education, and the AACTE. Since 2010, thousands of teacher candidates have taken edTPA, which measures teacher candidates' ability to meet standardized teaching practices across multiple domains. In Massachusetts, a select number of educator preparation institutions participated in the edTPA pilot and field test from 2011-2013, only to have the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education abandon the tool. This dissertation looks at that experience through multiple lenses to understand how this policy was developed, interpreted, and implemented across various diverse contexts in the Massachusetts education preparation landscape.

In this chapter, I unpack the development and implementation of the Massachusetts' edTPA Pilot and Field Test using our Politics of Policy Framework (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013). After sharing my theoretical framework, I provide a brief historical and political understanding of the development of the edTPA, followed by a review of three distinct bodies of literature: summative preservice teacher evaluation, teacher performance assessments, and teacher education policy implementation. Together, this literature review provides a nuanced understanding of the edTPA, both as

an evaluative tool and as a gatekeeping mechanism to ensure a highly qualified teaching force. Moreover, these three reviews provide additional understanding of the "Age of Accountability" in which the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test was enacted.

Policy Production Theory

Policy exists in both public and private realms, spanning all levels of government and institution types. It influences almost every aspect of daily life as policy is the product of decisions emanating from national, regional, local, and institutional governing bodies (Kraft & Furlong, 2012). Although the definition of policy is highly contested, most definitions coalesce around the concept that policies are explicit or inferred courses of action that address a recognized issue or problem (Bell & Stevenson, 2006; Harman, 1984). These courses of action are not monolithic or straightforward. Rather, they involve a complex process involving a multitude of ways policies are conceived and operationalized.

Education policy, a type of public policy, is an articulated response to an education problem and is broad in scope and impact. Not only does education policy impact curriculum and schooling, it also plays a role in economic, civic, and technological development (Malen, 2011). Teacher education policy is a subset of the diverse group of policies that comprise education policy. It governs and is governed by various influences, including national and state policies, local, state, national government agencies, etc. Teacher education policy is incredibly diverse and dynamic, reflecting the rapidly changing context of where teachers are educated and how they are credentialed.

There has been an evolution by educational policymakers regarding the construction and implementation of policy as related to goals, purposes, assumptions, and impact on stakeholders. Modernist perspectives discuss policymaking through a positivist lens and argue that the creation and implementation of policy occurs within a rational context. In modernist theories, policymaking is both predictive and logical, informed by the accumulation and analysis of data. These perspectives take a categorical view of policymaking, looking at issues objectively from a technical or organizational lens and downplay various stakeholders' viewpoints and structural phenomena such as large-scale societal issues (Schram, 1993).

Postmodern approaches view policymaking as socially-constructed and contextually-based. It embraces and honors multiple perspectives, as individuals make meaning on how issues impact their own lives within their own context. Postmodernist approaches are not linear or rational, but instead look to understand the interconnections and complexity of policy development and implementation through identifying overall patterns and phenomena. In essence, postmodern perspectives spotlight issues and phenomena that influence or are impacted by policy, rather than investigating the solution itself. (Lytoard, 1987; Schram, 1993).

While modernist approaches utilize objective data to unpack policy production and implementation, postmodern approaches analyze artifacts that focus on capturing socially constructed phenomena. Thus, narratives, media, and texts are analyzed using discourse analysis and other approaches "that offer the opportunity to interrogate assumptions about identity embedded in the analysis and…enables us to rethink and

28

resist questionable distinctions that privilege some identities at the expense of others (Schram, 1993, p. 249).

Within the section to follow, I introduce the modernist and postmodernist antecedents to the Politics of Policy Framework (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013) to highlight its ability to capture the complex and interconnected aspects of the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test. As such, I choose to separate policy production and policy implementation into two separate processes, although in postmodernist models, these are frequently presented as a single entity, i.e. policymaking. Again, this separation of processes is deliberate in order to highlight the contrast of these linear modernist viewpoints with my postmodern interpretation of the non-linear and interconnected nature of policymaking, especially the complexity of analysis possible.

Policy Development Theory

In their overview of influential historical and contemporary public policy theory, Shafritz et al. (2005) categorized the dominant forms of public policy development since the 1960s into three distinct categories: Rational Decision-Making, Incremental, and Mixed Scanning. The first category, Rational Decision-Making, was first articulated by Harold D. Lasswell (1963), and assumes that policy is a rational process and is generated based on the accumulation and analysis of information. As a modernist approach, this was a reaction to the policymakers utilizing a rational (or technical-rational) lens to interpret the "problem" the policy tries to solve, then formulate policy decisions based on so-called objective information and data they acquire. Critics of rational decision models argue that they are not realistic in their structure. Moreover, this process fails to capture the

complexity of policy production and its linear approach narrows down perspectives, highlighting a small set of issues, rather than gaining an overall understanding of the landscape. In addition, given its limited perspective, it provides a myopic view of the policy creation process, frequently capturing data that only spotlights viewpoints of those in power (Hawkesworth, 1988).

Incremental theories (e.g. Lindblom, 1959), on the other hand, challenge the thesis that policymaking is a rational, linear process and instead view policy creation as an amalgamation of several smaller decisions that address smaller aspects of a larger problem. These decisions emanate from various policymaking bodies, creating a smaller policy based on their interpretation of the same problem. Because policy is developed in response to multiple smaller issues, incremental policymaking places a greater emphasis on the impact of context and circumstance on policy production. Despite its embrace of context, critics contend that incremental lenses fail to capture the overall phenomena, focusing on the step by step changes which may hamper an overall multifaceted strategy.

Mixed Scanning (e.g. Etzioni, 1967) is a "third approach" to policymaking and is more widely accepted than either rational decision-making or incremental theories (Shafritz et al., 2005). In essence, Mixed Scanning combines aspects of both rational decision-making and incremental approaches of policy production. Within this model, policymakers gather information about a specific issue (rational decision-making) and apply this knowledge on smaller, short-term issues that arise (incremental). As such, decision-making is both iterative and dynamic, with decision-making having some basis in data. It also reflects the unique actors and contexts related to the issue and accepts the premise that policy implementation

unfolds differently in different contexts. Because of its focus on context and the actions of stakeholders involved in policymaking, it aligns strongly with the co-construction models (Datnow & Park, 2009), that will be discussed below.

As indicated in Table 2, each of these theory categories are based on assumptions that undergird how policy production is understood as a process, including the catalyst of policy production, the policy formation process, and the role of context within policymaking.

Table 2: Theories of Policy Production

Assumptions	Theories		
	Rational Decision-Making	Incremental	Mixed-Scanning
Catalyst of Policy Production	Policy production is created after the accumulation of data	Policy production is in reaction to smaller crises	Policy production draws from acquired knowledge and in reaction to small issues.
Policy Formation Process	Linear & Hierarchical	Based on the accumulation of multiple smaller decisions	Diffused and/or circular. Based on the accumulation of knowledge gained from data sources and previous experiences
Role of Context	Minimally influential on policy production	Significant influence on policy production	Significant influence on policy production

Although it is not uncommon for policy production to still be analyzed with a rational decision-making lens or incremental lens, for this dissertation, the postmodern mixed scanning approach aligns best with my goals to understand the complex nature of policymaking. The Politics of Policy Framework (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013) used

within this dissertation allow for the examination of multiple perspectives present within the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test implementation through various forms of data and analysis methods. It connects policymaking and policy implementation processes as a single policy implementation framework, highlighting the iterative and interconnected nature of policy production. It also provides a powerful lens to focus on the role of context within the edTPA policy production, guided by media artifacts from newspapers, blogs, and other periodicals.

Policy Implementation Theory

Policy implementation, or the execution of a policy, are actions taken to enact a specific policy. Unlike policy creation, in which policymakers outline and convey the policy's goals and objectives based on their interpretation, in policy implementation, the policy outcomes are dependent on the interpretation and actions of all stakeholders.

Although different in purpose and objective, both policy production and policy implementation are interrelated facets of the policy development process; thus, they equally influence a policy initiative's outcome. While in many cases, the goals and objectives of policy production and implementation are aligned; this is not always the case. Sometimes policies have a goal in its production that is not actualized in policy implementation. Other times, goals in implementation are not conceived of while the policy is being developed. Like all policy creation theoretical models, policy implementation theoretical models also fall within the modernist/postmodernist continuum. In the section below, I describe the three

categories of education policy implementation and discuss its relationship to the

Politics of Policy Framework (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013).

Datnow & Park (2009) identified three major subgroups of approaches to studying education policy implementation (as explained in Table 3): technical-rational, mutual adaptation & co-construction[2]. Each of these perspectives draw upon different sets of assumptions and lenses. Like other modernist theoretical models, technical-rational perspectives focus on the procedural aspects of policy implementation. As such, they focus on how policy is implemented from the point of execution and provide a top-down perspective on the technical aspects of policy implementation. Implementation is seen as linear, with actors involved in specific, bounded roles within the process.

Mutual adaptation perspectives, which focus on the impact of policy at the ground-level, are the most dominant in education research (Ozga, 2000). Those that adopt this perspective look at policy implementation as a separate and independent process from its development. Mutual adaptation perspectives focus significantly on the role of individual stakeholders who make meaning of a policy from the 'bottom' level, focusing on how policy impacts them and their context. Both technical-rational and mutual adaptation perspectives view the creation of policy as the domain of government or institutional entities and rarely challenge the power structures inherent in policy production (Osher & Quinn, 2003; Dale, 1994).

Co-Construction models adopt a critical perspective that looks at the role of power in both developing and implementing policy. Aligned with mixed scanning

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[2] Datnow & Park name their third column "sensemaking/co-construction". For clarity, this subgroup will be referred to within this dissertation as "co-construction".

approaches to policymaking (e.g. Etzioni, 1967), co-construction models privilege the

perspectives of all stakeholders and take the stance that policymaking is complex and

non-linear. It has an inherent interconnectedness in which the significant discourses, the

understanding of the issues, the implementation process, and the impact of policy are all

factors in implementation and are continually evolving in an ever-shifting terrain.

The inherent assumptions within each type of implementation theory are

presented in Table 3. Here, the co-construction model's complexity is in full relief and

makes explicit its focus on the non-linear connections between policy formation and

policy implementation, as well as the significance of relationships within and between

contexts.

Table 3: Theories of Policy Implementation (Adapted from Datnow & Park's Table 28.1- Policy Perspectives, 2009, p. 349)

Assumptions	Perspectives		
	Technical-Rational	Mutual Adaptation	Co-Construction
Direction of Change	Top-down	Between policy and local implementation site	Multi-directional
Policy Process	Linear	Policy formation and implementation are separate processes	Iterative; Policy formation and implementation inform each other
Sphere of Influence	Hierarchical	Bottom-up	Non-linear; Interconnected
Role of Context	Generalized	Privileges local contexts	Multiple contexts; more focus on social and political relationships

For this dissertation, I see policy as a dynamic process, "involving negotiation, contestation, and struggle between competing groups, as a process rather than an output" (Ozga, 2000, p.42). As such, this study takes a postmodern stance, focusing on the influence of multiple perspectives and relationships in policymaking. Aligned with co-constructed models of policy implementation as described in Table 3, I draw upon data from both policymakers and implementers to take "into consideration political and cultural differences…acknowledging the role of power…[and] call attention to wider social and political dynamics existing outside the policy system" (Datnow & Park, 2009, p. 351).

Theoretical Framework

According to Taylor et al. (1997), all education policies can be broken down into three major stages: a) the identification and recognition of a "problem", b) the formulation of an education policy, and c) the implementation of said policy. Harman (1984) argues that these multiple stages of policy are linear following a logical pattern. However, Taylor et al. (1997) and Bowe et al. (1992) argue that policy generation and implementation are not linear and much more dynamic. As I discussed above, given my postmodernist stance on how policy is generated and implemented, I used the Politics of Policy Framework (2013) to analyze the Massachusetts edTPA policy implementation in 2010-2015. The framework draws upon the concept of a "policy web" as developed by Joshee (2007; 2009) and Joshee and Johnson (2005) and "policy cycles" as conceptualized by Stephen Ball (1997; 2008) and allows for analysis of the development, implementation and impact of the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test.

Policy Webs

Policy webs unpack the highly interconnected nature of policy development and implementation (Joshee, 2007; Joshee & Johnson, 2007; Goldberg, 2005; Winton, 2007; Debeer, 2011) and reject the notion of a linear process (which is part of Datnow & Park's (2009) "technical-rational" perspective). Rather, they conceptualize policy implementation as "co-constructed", identifying participants, influencers and the connections between them. In addition, they highlight a policy's significant stakeholders, spotlights the relationships among them, and identifies the prominent and subsumed discourses that align to a particular policy.

Policy web theory focuses on the multiple actors involved in policy production, including federal, state, and local education agencies, professional organizations, accreditation institutions, and educator preparation organizations. It identifies the relationships between them in policy production and implementation (Joshee & Johnson, 2005). Researchers have conceptualized these relationships visually in various ways, each aiming to capture the complex ways stakeholders inform policy and are impacted by policymaking. Joshee (2005), for example, theorized that policy can best be represented visually by a series of concentric rings representing the different levels in which policy is developed, such as local agencies, federal policies, etc. In her model, she cross-cutted these concentric rings with "threads" that identified specific enacted policies that related to an overall specific policy. Joshee used her model to provide an understanding of the actors involved in policy production around multicultural education in Canada (concentric circles) and the multiple ways this idea was addressed (threads). Debeer (2011) conceptualized policy webs differently, seeing policy as a series of

36

interconnected webs comprised of nodes, clusters, and threads that formed no discernable pattern. In her construct, nodes represented discourses present within an idea, and groupings of aligned discourses form clusters. These clusters were connected together by threads that illustrate their relationship to each other. Wilson and Tamir (2008) visualized a more linear and interconnected connection between policy production and implementation by mapping the actors, their ideologies, and beliefs with their actions. Most importantly, Wilson and Tamir identified the relationships between actors. Thus, these maps highlighted the agents involved in policy production and implementation and discerned the natural alliances borne out of shared beliefs, ideologies, and norms.

These three different conceptions of policy webs highlight its value as an approach to analyze policy implementation. It allows focus on a single policy contained within "the full range of policies" (Joshee, 2007, p. 174). Moreover, it allows for an in-depth focus on the interrelated nature of policymaking and spotlights policy adaptations made by a diverse array of stakeholders in various contexts. This aligns to Stephen Ball's approach to relationships between stakeholders within policy implementation, specifically his belief that "the fitting together of disparate techniques, processes, practices, and relationships within a regime of truth to form a grid of power which operates in many different ways from many different points" (Ball, 2013, p. 124). More importantly, it provides a fertile foundation on which to incorporate Ball's Policy Cycle approach in the development of the Politics of Policy theoretical framework.

Policy Cycles

While "policy webs" allow for focus on the stakeholders and their relationships,

37

policy cycles focus on the iterative and non-linear policymaking process itself. Policy cycle theory contends that each stage of policy production and implementation adjusts and changes to respond to the influence of various contexts and actors (Ball, 1997, 2008; Bowe et al., 1992). Policy cycles stem from the work of British sociologist Stephen J. Ball, who developed a policy sociology in education approach to analyzing education policy initiatives. Ozga (1987) defines this approach as one that incorporates social studies theories and methodologies in understanding education policy. Central to this approach is the use of discourse analysis. This theory first appeared as a concept within Bowe et al.'s *Reforming Education and Changing Schools* (1992), which looked to understand education policy implementation within the United Kingdom and other global contexts.

The policy sociology approach rejects both Technical-Rational and Mutual Adaptation models of policy production and implementation. It instead aims for an "'intellectual intelligence' stance that stresses contingency, disidentification, and risk-taking" (Ball in Vidovich, 2007, p. 289). With policy cycles, Ball and colleagues outline a multi-directional approach in which policy production and policy implementation are interconnected and interactive. As such, policy cycles do not follow a linear path or align to particular hierarchies, instead progress in a "messy process" (Vidovich, 2007, p. 289) following a multi-directional path across three contexts: 1) Context of Influence, where individuals and organizations influence how policy is understood and responded to; 2) Context of Policy Text Production, which focuses on policy as text, such as regulations and guidelines, and 3) Context of Practice, which aligns to how policy is conceptualized, understood, and enacted (Bowe et al., 1992). Below in Figure 2, Bowe et al.'s Policy

Cycle (1992) is depicted, highlighting the complexity and interrelated nature of

policymaking across these three contexts and illustrates how each context is shaped and

reshaped by each other in a continuous cycle.

Figure 2: Policy Cycle (Bowe et al., 1992)

Context of influence

Context of
policy text
production

Context of
practice
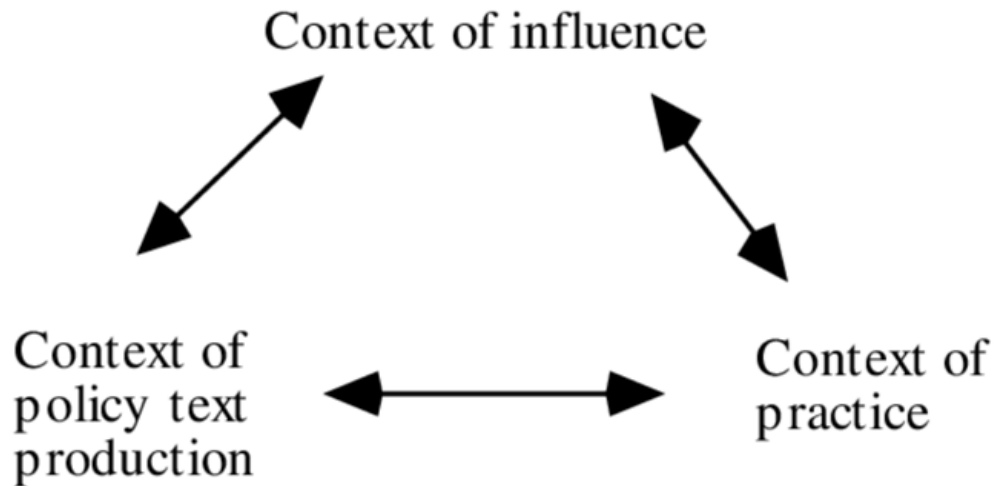
A central facet to the work of Ball is the concept of policy-as-discourse. As

discussed in Chapter One, policy-as-discourse contends that discourses capture social

interactions inherent in policy production and implementation. Although it has multiple

meanings (Bacchi, 2000; Sharp & Richardson, 2001; Vidovich, 2007), discourses have

been defined as meaningful social practices (Laclau & Mouffe, 1985) that can include

both verbal interactions (e.g. language) and non-verbal communication, including

symbols, gestures, ideas, pictures, and images (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999; Hajer,

1993). Ball (1994) took a Foucauldian perspective, conceptualizing discourse broadly by

incorporating the content of the text, including how text is framed and whose voice is

privileged. Sharp and Richardson offered a similar definition, arguing that discourse is a

"complex entity that extends into the realms of ideology, strategy, language, and practice,

and is shaped by the relations between power and knowledge" (Sharp & Richardson 2001, p. 195). Weedon provided a further nuanced description, arguing that discourses are "ways of constituting knowledge, together with the social practices, forms of subjectivity and power relations which inhere in such knowledge and relations between them. Discourses are more than ways of thinking and producing meaning. They constitute the 'nature' of the body, unconscious and conscious mind and emotional life of the subjects they seek to govern" (1997, p. 108). These definitions of discourse align to the "messy and interactive process" (Cochran-Smith, et al. 2013, p. 8) of policy production and the role that discourses play within it.

As with all critical theories, the policy cycle highlights the use of power within policy implementation. Policy is power manifested in various forms, including the written policy itself, control/influence of the discourses that shaped it, and the creation of structures and regulations to guide its implementation. Moreover, power influences the magnitude of the impact within each of these three contexts. Thus, the greater the power, the more significant or far-reaching the impact.

> Policy is …' an economy of power', a set of technologies and practices which are realized and struggled over in local settings. Policy is both text and action, word and deeds; it is what is enacted as well as what is intended…Policies are always incomplete insofar as they related to or map onto the 'wild profusion' of local practice. Policies are crude and simple. Practice is sophisticated, contingent, complex, and unstable. Policy as practices is 'created' in a trialectic of dominance, resistance, and chaos/freedom. Thus, policy is not simply asymmetry of power: 'Control (or dominance) can never be totally secured, in part of agency (Ball, 1994, p.11).

Agency within policy implementation is a point of contention among critics of Ball's theories. While Ball acknowledged that power is "asymmetric", with different stakeholders wielding differing levels of influence to shape policy, some argued that his

view on the government's role in shaping policy is not reflective of policy in action. Ball asserts that power is diffused across constituencies, each having various levels of influence over government policy production. However, Hatcher and Troyna (1994) contend that this view devalues governments' overarching power to control policy outcomes. Hill (2001) agreed with this perspective, arguing that Ball's "quasi-post-modernist" stance focused too much on stakeholders' perceived power and not enough on the real power wielded by the state. In his critique of Ball's writings on the 1988 Education Reform Act in the United Kingdom, Hill wrote that "this emphasis on policy recontextualization within Ball's policy cycle thesis…gives too much power to human agency" (2010, p. 143).

I revisit these critiques of Ball's stance on agency and power to highlight my view on the state's power within the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot study and Field test. As the rest of this chapter will describe, teacher education operates within a contested space between education preparation providers who prepare teachers and the state boards of education who create policies that teacher candidates and educator preparation programs must meet. As such, the contexts of policy production: context of influence, context of policy text production, and context of practice, is highly complex, governed by the policies of both institution and the government. As the interview results within Chapter Five reveals, while teacher educators have some agency to shape education and credentialing policy, the magnitude of power individuals and institutions have to shape policy varies, frequently influencing and influenced by structural differences inherent within and across the teacher education landscape. Therefore, like Hatcher, Troyna, and Hill, I believe that in any policy analysis, it is essential to acknowledge the unequal

structural environment in which teacher education inhabits as well as the level of influence that state boards of education have in policy development and implementation.

The Politics of Policy Framework

Aligning to my understanding that policy production and implementation is complex, iterative, and interrelated (Etzioni, 1967; Datnow & Park, 2009), the Politics of Policy Framework (2013) that I helped to develop along with colleagues Marilyn Cochran-Smith and Peter Piazza, provides a nuanced way to understand the Massachusetts edTPA pilot from the perspective of participating educator preparation organizations. As stated above, this framework was influenced by the idea of 'policy cycles', which contends that each stage of policy production and implementation adjusts and changes to respond to the influence of various contexts and actors, and 'policy webs', which represents the interconnectedness between the discourses, interpretation, implementation, and impact of policy within and across impacted contexts.

The framework centers on four aspects of policy implementation and their influence on policy development and implementation. This relationship is represented in Figure 3, which illustrates how policy is made and remade in an iterative and boundless cycle. The four aspects of policymaking are: 1) Discourses and influences, representing the broad political, social, and economic influences that inform teacher education policy. In teacher education, these discourses are "pervasive and completely normalized both within the professional/university teacher education community and outside it" (p.12); 2) Constructions of the problem of teacher education incorporate the significant issues, arguments, and actors within teacher education policies. This includes "how problems and solutions are framed, stated and hidden agendas, and political strategies used to

42

forward policies" (p. 9); 3) Policy in practice, defined as how policy is constructed and

conceptualized, including "individual and collective response[s], acceptance and

resistance, and (un)intended consequences" (p.9); and 4) Impact and implementation,

which focuses on the outcomes of policy implementation, and highlights its impact on

"power relations, control, dominant/marginalized discourses and groups, and

(dis)empowerment of practitioners" (p.9).

Figure 3: The Politics of Policy: A Framework for Understanding Teacher Education Policy in the United States (Cochran-Smith, et al., 2013, p. 10).

1. Dominant Discourses	2. Constructing the "Problem" of Teacher Education	3. Policy in Practice	4. Impact and Implementation
•Ideological, economic	•Timing	•Interpretations/Reception	•Impact on diversity/equity
•& political conditions	•Major actors/agencies	•in particular localities	•Impact on professionalization/
•Global influences	•Key concepts	•Local practices	•deregulation
•& trends	•Problem/solution framing	•Active/passive response/resistance	•Impact on political rhetoric
•Discursive shifts	•Interest groups involved	•Individual/collective response/resistance	•Impact on power relations
•Time period in which	•Interests served	•Problem/solution framing	•Impact on institutional
•influences evolved	•Processes/Compromises	•Processes	•structures & funding
•Formal/informal policy levels	•Political strategies	•Political strategies	•Impact on local/national control
•Policy influentials	•Dominant discourses in texts	•(Dis)empowerment of practitioners	•Impact on dominant/marginalized
•Competing agendas	•Stated/hidden agendas	•Unintended consequences	•discourses and goals
•for reform	•Intended consequences & audience	•Impact on localized groups	

The four aspects of the Politics of Policy framework, outlined above, identify the

influences, discourses, implementation plans, and impacts at play during the

Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test. These domains can be made visible in a

variety of ways, including through discourse analyses of contemporary media artifacts

and interviews with education preparation personnel from participating organizations.

Moreover, the framework identifies the significant aspects of edTPA policy production and implementation and enables a more fine-grained understanding of influences, ideologies, and actors that influence the policy itself.

Within this study, I use the Politics of Policy framework to inform the overall research design, including data sources, data collection methods, and analysis techniques. "Dominant Discourses" and "Constructing the Problem of Teacher Education" are captured mostly in Chapter Four, where I provide an analysis of over 100 contemporary edTPA focused media articles using categories informed by the four "broad goals and principles at the heart of political conflict"- Efficiency, equity, liberty, and security, as defined within Deborah Stone's *Policy Paradox* (2002, p. xiii). Stone's construct aligns with the Politics of Policy co-construction approach to policymaking (Datnow & Park, 2009) in its stance that policymaking is not rational, linear, or procedural. Instead, it is a dynamic process shaped by overarching narratives and the constructions and perceptions of the issue at hand. According to Stone (2002) the essence of policymaking "is the struggle over ideas. Ideas are a medium of exchange and a mode of influence even more powerful than money and votes and guns. Shared meanings motivate people to action and meld individual striving into collective action"(p.11). As such, in using Stone's policy goals to code media articles, I identified the dominant ideas that shape the national narrative about edTPA and preservice teacher quality. In addition, I unpack how stakeholders used the overarching policy goals of efficiency, equity, and liberty to construct how the "problem" of preservice teacher quality was framed as well as spotlight the levers they used to try to win support from other participants. Finally, I identified the

44

key stakeholders who dominated national debates about the edTPA and in turn, illuminated the actors whose voices were less prominent.

Interviews from 21 teacher educators from all five of the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test institutions are analyzed in Chapter Five. Here, I use a case study approach (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2009) to understand the Massachusetts edTPA policy implementation in practice and understand its broader impact on teacher educators and educator preparation institutions during and after its implementation. Together, these analyses provide an understanding of how this policy is positioned "within the complex and contested space of teacher education accountability writ large" (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013, p.10).

In addition to the Politics of Policy Framework, this study is informed by three bodies of literature that provide a foundational understanding of the large-scale issues, arguments, and debates involved in this policy implementation. This literature review is presented in the section below, introduced by a historical and political overview of the edTPA.

Related Literature

According to education historian James Fraser (2007), "current public policy debates could be significantly elevated if they were informed by a… sense of what has gone before—among teacher educators and their many critics in the university, government, the press, and the foundations" (p. 1). Thus, the literature that best provides a foundational understanding of the development of the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test study focuses on three relevant and interconnected bodies of literature:

research on summative preservice teacher evaluation, research on teacher performance assessments, and research on teacher education policy implementation.

The literature within all three of these bodies of literature provides a brief historical underpinning; however, it mainly focuses on the contemporary era. Within this dissertation, the contemporary era is defined as 2001 to the present- the age of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) and the multiple federal and state-level accountability-focused policies that followed it. With the reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, NCLB expanded school choice and increased federal funding to Reading First. More significantly, NCLB "increased accountability for states, school districts, and schools" and required that all teachers teaching in core academic subjects be "highly qualified" (U.S. Department of Education, 2002). A consequence of NCLB was that education policy within the United States was fundamentally transformed (Elmore, 2002), and teacher education, which was once considered to be firmly within the domain of state and institutional entities, was forced to adapt to an increased federal presence. Thus, the literature contained within this review reflects this increased federalization of teacher education policy.

In addition to the increased federalization of teacher education is the influence of increased globalization on teacher education. The NCLB era was one of unprecedented globalization and a more significant linking of the United States' economic, political, and social systems with those overseas (Friedman, 2005). The impact of globalization on teacher education was seismic, evidenced by the marked increase of government and business leaders' concerns about having a workforce suitably educated for the demands of a globalized economy (Spring, 2008). High profile reports published in this era reflect

the influence of globalization on teacher education, including the Rand Foundation's *21st Century Work: Forces Shaping the Future Workforce and Workplace in the United States* (Karoly & Panis, 2004) and the National Education Summit on High Schools' *America's High Schools: The Front Line in the Battle for Our Economic Future* (2005). Both these reports argued in the starkest terms that the nation's economic security was bounded up with the quality of its schools. In essence, the quality of America's schools became a matter of national security, therefore justifying NCLB's, and its de facto successor, Race to the Top's (2009), influence on many aspects of the nation's schooling.

The result of increased federalization and globalization was intense scrutiny of teacher education structures and practices. One of the most vocal critics was the United States Secretary of Education Rod Paige (2001-2005), who made teacher education a significant focus of his tenure. In a series of influential annual reports to Congress, Paige outlined what he saw as the "broken" system of teacher education- one that was unable to meet the "Highly-Qualified Teachers" requirements dictated by NCLB. Paige called for "radically streamlining the system" by employing a more extensive use of rigorous preservice teacher exams, altering certification requirements to deemphasize methods-type coursework in favor of those that are subject-based, and expanding non-university-based paths to certification (Paige et al., 2002, 2003).

A few years later, President Obama's Education Secretary, Arne Duncan, continued Paige's teacher education critiques. In an October 2009 speech to an audience of professors and students Teachers College, Columbia University, United States Secretary of Education Duncan drew strong connections between the quality of teacher preparation programs and student achievement. Calling for a "sea-change" in how the

nation's teacher preparation programs are educating future teachers, Duncan argued that a majority of programs were "doing a mediocre job of preparing teachers for the realities of the 21st-century classroom" (Duncan, 2009). Like Paige, he advocated for significant changes to how teachers were trained and evaluated, including evaluating teacher education programs based on student outcomes.

The literature most relevant to this dissertation, research on summative preservice teacher evaluation, teacher performance assessments, and teacher education policy implementation, reflects this highly scrutinized world in which state boards of education, teacher education institutions, and teacher-educators operate. Together, they provide an essential understanding of the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test's political and cultural underpinnings and how the Massachusetts experience relates to national debates on preservice teacher evaluation.

Summative Preservice Teacher Evaluation (Licensure Examinations)

For almost as long as public education has been in existence, there has been a debate regarding how best to evaluate preservice teachers' quality. The earliest preservice teacher exams date back to 1686, with the General Assembly of Virginia's request to have the governor appoint persons to oversee the examination of schoolmasters. These preservice tests evaluated subject content, morality, and the ability to effectively control the classroom (Kinney, 1964). With the desire to make preservice teacher exams more objective, preservice teacher oral exams eventually gave way to written tests (Cubberley, 1906).

More changes to the evaluation of preservice teachers occurred with the creation

of university-based teacher education programs and state education departments

(Rotherham & Mead, 2004). This 'educational establishment' not only raised the bar on

who could be certified as a teacher (e.g. requiring a minimum number of tertiary credit

hours), but also developed state-based licensure certification measures (Rotherham &

Mead, 2004; Borrowman, 1956; Cremin, 1953).

A new teacher education model emerged with a greater connection to the

university, urging an alignment of classroom coursework with fieldwork. In most cases,

university departments of education did not have the direct power to certify a teacher-

candidate. However, in a growing number of states during this period, certification was

directly contingent on college/university endorsement of teacher candidates, coupled with

a passing score on state or national licensure tests (Sedlak, 2008).

During mid-century, large-scale standardized testing systems grew in prominence,

including the National Teacher Exam (NTE), which was developed in conjunction with

the American Council on Education. This exam tested candidates in a broad area of

study, including English Comprehension, English Expression, General Culture,

Reasoning, Professional Information, Contemporary Affairs, and subject-matter tests in

select teaching fields. It aimed to provide a way to ensure a high-quality workforce and

standardization of evaluation standards across teacher education institutions (D'Agostino

& Van Winkle, 2009). In 1951, the responsibility to develop and administer preservice

teacher examinations transferred to the newly formed Educational Testing Service (ETS),

a well-known, non-profit organization that administers the Graduate Record Examination

(GRE) and the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). The NTE was used for over 50 years before being replaced by the ETS-developed Praxis Series in 1993.

The most widely used licensure test in the United States (ETS, 2020), the Praxis Exam is comprised of three major parts: a) the Pre-professional Skills Test (PPST or Praxis I), which measures a candidate's academic skill in reading, writing, and mathematics; b) the Praxis II- Content test, which measures a candidates content knowledge in core subject areas; and c) the Praxis II- Principles of Learning and Teaching test which measures pedagogical knowledge. The Praxis I is usually given prior to admission to a teacher education program to inform selection to teacher education licensure programs. Both Praxis II parts are given at the conclusion of a program and are currently utilized in some or all licensure fields in 39 states (ETS, 2020)[3]. In addition to the Praxis Series, some individual states have also developed similarly-structured preservice licensure exams that are used in conjunction with or as an alternative to the Praxis II exam, including Massachusetts (Massachusetts Tests for Educational Licensure) and Illinois (Illinois Licensure Testing System).

The use of pen-and-paper exams grew steadily in the 1970s and 1980s (Flippo, 2002) and the practice is in wide use today. Despite this growth, empirical literature focusing on teacher testing is limited and contradictory. It focuses mostly on three main areas: using licensure exams to predict future classroom performance, investigating the impact of licensure exams on teacher candidates, and the impact of licensure exams on

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[3] ETS also offers the Praxis III exam, a performance-based assessment intended to evaluate the skills of beginning teachers.

teacher education institutions. In the studies unpacked below, pre-service teacher exams, such as the Praxis or MTEL, are examined.

Preservice Teacher Licensure Exams to Predict Future Classroom Performance

The bulk of empirical research surrounding licensure examinations seeks to identify these tests' predictive capacity on future classroom performance. With a few exceptions, these studies use large-scale data sets and quantitative measures in their analyses. The results of the studies are decidedly mixed, as evidenced in the conflicting results between the Goldhaber (2007), Brown et al. (2008) and Hall and West (2011) studies in comparison to the studies produced by Buddhin & Zamarro (2009) and Georges et al. (2010). The most influential of these studies is Goldhaber's (2007) large-scale study of North Carolina teachers. Goldhaber found a positive relationship between a teacher's Praxis II curriculum score and teacher performance as measured by student test scores. However, the relationship between teachers' content-based score and teacher performance was less conclusive as measured by student test scores. Brown et al.'s (2008) study on Praxis II content exam performance clarified the Goldhaber inconclusive findings and argued that the Praxis II content exam is a good predictor of student performance in teacher preparation programs. Although much smaller in scale than the Goldhaber (2007) and Brown et al. (2008) studies, Hall and West's (2011) small scale study (N=74) examined the relationship between SAT, ACT, Praxis scores, and undergraduate GPA on student achievement as measured InTASC's four main categories-The Learner and Learning, Content, Instructional Practice, and Professional Responsibility (CCSSO, 2011). Within this study, Hall and West found a strong relationship between teaching performance and the standardized test scores.

Despite indicating a positive predictive ability of licensure exam scores with teacher performance, each of these studies cautioned that such examinations should be just one of many measures used to gauge teacher candidate performance. This echoes a 1999 Joint AERA/APA/NCM (American Education Research Association, American Psychological Association, National Council on Measurement) in Education Standards for Education and Psychological Testing report that stated that "criterion-related evidence is of limited applicability in licensure settings because criterion measures are generally not available for those who are not granted a license" (p. 157). In the chapter on assessment in *Studying Teacher Education: The Report of the AERA Panel on Research on Teacher Education* (2005), Wilson & Youngs further elaborated:

> Although previous research suggested that the NTE and other tests examined had content and concurrent validity, teacher education researchers, policymakers, and funders should all feel obliged to assess the content and concurrent validity of such tests. Given the increasingly high stakes associated with these tests, such vigilance is a moral and practical necessity (p. 617).

An almost equal number of studies in the literature found little to no relationship between performance on preservice licensure examinations and pupil performance. In their longitudinal study of Los Angeles teachers, Buddhin and Zamarro's (2009) investigated whether teacher license test scores and other teacher attributes, such as years in the classroom and advanced degrees, impacted student achievement on elementary student performance. Buddhin and Zamarro found no relationship between teacher scores on the licensure test and student performance. In a similar study, Georges et al. (2010) looked specifically at elementary math performance when investigating whether a relationship exists between preservice-service teacher licensure assessments and student achievement. Like Buddhin and Zammaro, their study also found little connection

between teacher test performance and student performance. Georges et al. attributed this to the tests' inherent lack of "specificity of conceptual and procedural knowledge that could strengthen mathematics content knowledge and inform instructional practices" (p.1).

Impact of Preservice Teacher Licensure Assessment on Teacher Candidates from Underrepresented Populations

An area of scant but essential research is the impact of the preservice teacher licensure exams on teacher candidates from underrepresented populations. Although empirical studies have focused on preservice teacher licensure exams since the 1980s, the first published study focusing on the exams' impact on minority teacher-candidates occurred decades later (Goldhaber & Hansen, 2010). Considering that it is a goal of many teacher education institutions to diversify the teacher force, this dearth of research is problematic. Moreover, some articles specifically focus on teacher exams to act as a barrier for underrepresented groups, such as non-native English speakers. Many of these argue that while there are multiple reasons for the shortage of teachers from underrepresented groups, licensure assessments, including edTPA, may be a significant factor. At the foundation of this stance is the definition of 'qualified teacher'. In response to the NCLB mandate requiring 'qualified teachers' in every classroom, many states utilize teacher licensure exams as a proxy for teacher quality. Many researchers who focus on the impact of teachers exams on diverse teacher candidates advocate for a broadening of the definition of teacher quality to move beyond using licensure exams as a way to quantify the definition of 'qualified teachers' for NCLB and that other measures of 'teacher quality' should be used. While some argue that most preservice teacher

assessments are not be a valid and reliable method to measure minority preservice teacher performance (Petchauer et al., 2018, NAME, 2014, Goldhaber & Hansen, 2010), some have argued that the edTPA may be more authentic and culturally sensitive (Lynn, 2014, Hyler et al., 2013).

Goldhaber & Hansen's (2010) study of teacher licensure testing in North Carolina explores the relationship between teacher candidates' race and gender and the predictive validity of student learning. Using a large-scale sample of Praxis II scores matched with demographic data, Goldhaber & Hansen found that while differences between genders were inconclusive, there was a significant gap between Black and White teacher candidates regarding performance on the test. Specifically, they found that while the Praxis II significantly correlates with teacher effectiveness for White teachers, there were no significant correlations between the Praxis II and Black teachers. Goldhaber and Hansen indicated that further research was needed to see if teacher-preparation programs and test design are confounding factors.

In addition to findings related to the Praxis II, Goldhaber and Hansen found that classroom performance was more significantly impacted by the class's racial makeup. Black students perform at higher levels when instructed by Black teachers. Thus, Goldhaber and Hansen caution not to generalize average test performance when utilizing Praxis II scores and also to consider the impact of having Black teachers in minority classrooms.

In a more recent study, Petchauer (2014) examined the social-psychological impact of the licensure testing experience on African-Americans. In his qualitative case

study, Petchauer analyzed data collected from 22 African-American pre-service teachers and found that licensure testing was a racialized experience. Respondents felt that both test proctors and White test-takers reinforced negative racial stereotypes before and during test administration. Examples of experiences included the social discomfort of a disproportionally large proportion of White test takers at the testing location, negative body language and tone from testing proctors, and a perceived inequity on how cell phone and I.D. policies were enforced. Interestingly, test content was not found to be impactful on Black teacher-candidate performance. As such, Petchaeur suggested that interactions with testing proctors, administrators, and fellow test-takers, rather than the test content itself, had a negative impact on African-American teacher-candidate performance.

Regarding English language learners' interactions with licensure tests, Ward & Lucido (2011/2012) focused on native language on a teacher exam performance. Analyzing the reading ability of 259 preservice teachers from a South Texas University, they found that native English speakers performed significantly higher on the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test than bilingual, Spanish-first-language preservice teachers. In reflecting upon these results, the authors suggested that dual-language instruction offered in PK-12 schooling was not sufficient to provide the socio-cultural knowledge to excel on standardized preservice teacher exams. Given that this study does not draw directly from licensure test results, rather only from Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test data, the authors assumed that GMRT scores correlated with performance on state teacher performance tests.

Brown and Borman (2005) argued strongly that an essential element of preservice teacher quality is a socio-linguistic connection to their students. However, current teacher licensing policies hinder linguistic minority teachers from entering the field. In their piece, Brown and Borman unpacked the impact of teacher licensing regulations on linguistic minority candidates in Oregon and identify six policymaking areas- policy setting, policy formulation, policy implementation, policy evaluation, policy change, and policy termination efforts. They argued that each area has multiple levers that can be used to assist or hinder minority candidate performance on licensure exams. While Brown and Borman were generally receptive to Oregon's licensure examination policies thus far, they felt that much more could be done. They called for educational research in the area of minority teacher preparation and analysis of licensing board leadership.

Hones and colleagues (2009), brought up similar concerns that licensure exams are a barrier to bilingual teachers whose first language was not English. Identifying a growing need to educate immigrant and refugee children, Hones et al. argued for changing NCLB's requirement by adjusting licensure test cut-off scores or adopting new preservice teacher skill and academic achievement measures.

Impact of Licensing Examinations on Teacher Education Programs

Preservice teacher licensure examinations undoubtedly influence teacher education programs in various ways, including curriculum, instruction, assessments, and support structures. Thus, it is surprising that there are limited amounts of empirical studies targeting this area. The most significant study in this area is the *Teaching the Teachers: Different Settings, Different Results* report written on behalf of the Educational Testing Service (Wenglinsky, 2000). Within this report, Wenglinsky

examined the effectiveness of teacher education institutions. The study drew from data from over 39,000 teacher education candidates and 152 teacher education institutions in the Southeast. Candidate performance on the Praxis II exam was one of the areas studied. In his findings, Wenglinsky found that "institutions of higher education are appropriate as sites for teacher preparation" (p. 32), as data indicate that prospective teachers with so-called 'traditional' college experience (e.g. live on campus and take a full-time course of study) performed better on the Praxis II than those who do not. Specifically, Wenglinsky found that candidate performance as measured by Praxis II scores was most influenced by contextual factors including the size of the institution, whether the institution was public or private, the percentage of so-called 'traditional' students, the diversity of the faculty, and the budgeted resources of the teacher education program.

In contrast to the widescale focus of the Wenglinsky study, the Thompson & Smith (2005) study represented the impact of a licensure test on an individual teacher education program. After adjusting instruction and curriculum to better align with the Praxis II, Thompson and Smith collected survey and focus group data with teacher candidates. Their analysis identified the strengths and weaknesses of this alignment and found strong evidence that teacher education candidates felt well prepared for the classroom if there is alignment between curriculum, instruction, and assessment. This echoes Wenglinsky's findings regarding the positive relationship of an institution's resources and other contextual factors to teacher candidate performance.

Peck et al. (2010) focused on implementing high stakes performance assessments on teacher education programs, including the impact of licensure tests. Peck et al. 's (2010) study asserted that programs endured many substantive changes in the face of

state education policies and regional and national accrediting body requirements. While they viewed the potential to use assessment data to inform and improve upon programs, they also cautioned of a growing loss of control by teacher-educators as they are forced to compromise unique program features to comply with state mandates.

Vaughn and Everhart (2005) and Moser (2014) also focused on examining licensure exam requirements on individual teacher education programs; however, through teacher educators' lens. Vaughn and Everhart (2005) described the demands of meeting licensure regulations upon their small liberal arts college in great detail. Changes faculty and administrators implemented include incorporating program modifications to meet NCATE accreditation and state licensure examination requirements and developing predictors on an assessment continuum to gauge teacher-candidates future success in the classroom. Here, the impact of licensure-related teacher education policies on educator preparation institutions were spotlighted, including its implications for curriculum and program structure. Moser (2014) offered additional insight into a similar use of licensure examination requirements at her university, focusing on the significant changes licensure exams had on curriculum and instructional practices.

These small-scale works highlight the extensive impact of teacher licensure examinations on educator preparation programs and the drain they have on human capital and financial resources in order to align course content, instruction, and program structure. Interestingly, these studies indicated that this alignment is not always positive. While students generally show some improvement due to the changes, in some cases, these changes caused increased uneasiness among faculty as new courses were developed and others abandoned. More importantly, these highlighted studies identify a sense of

58

loss by faculty of their program's individuality as they adopted more standardized

curricula.

Impact of Licensure Exams on Teacher Educators

As noted above, preservice teacher licensure examinations undoubtedly influence

teacher education programs in various ways, including revision of curriculum,

instruction, assessments, and support structures. The works within this section primarily

provide a teacher-educator's perspective on these exams' influence upon their work. In

giving a first-hand account, they shed a nuanced light on these exams' overall impact and

how teacher educators and administrators address them.

Sutton (2004) provided insight into the impact of context on her work as a teacher

educator working in a state with a licensure exam. In this conceptual work, she outlined a

detailed overview of how the urban, commuter-focused context in which she teaches is a

significant influence on her practice. Specifically, she articulated how she was forced to

adjust her practice as a teacher educator in light of the Praxis II requirement. Sutton also

highlighted the necessity to adapt her curriculum and assessments to best prepare her

students, many of whom are first-generation college students. She indicated that these

changes are informed by her students' and the university's resources.

Moser (2012) also addressed how preservice teacher licensure exams had

influenced her work as a teacher educator. As a world language instructor, she provided a

first-hand experience of what it was like to prepare for and take the Praxis II: World

Language Test. Not only did she offer suggestions to teacher candidates, she also

outlined recommendations for faculty, including gaining a greater understanding of the

test, focusing on a broad curriculum, and suggesting ways to use video and speech samples in teaching.

The articles highlighted above provide a window into the changes to individual practice as a teacher educator and the impact to their time and agency as teacher educators.

Impact of Licensure Exams on the Teacher Education and the Teaching Profession

A subset of the literature on licensure exams looks beyond individuals or programs' experiences, instead focusing on the impact of licensure exams on the teacher and teacher education profession. Leistyna (2007) critiqued the educational testing industry by unpacking connections between corporations, political stakeholders, and public education. Here, he argued that licensure exams, and most large-scale educational testing, are "neoliberal approach[es] dressed up as an innovative reform… [the] political machinery behind NCLB has effectively disguised the motivations of a profit-driven industry" (p. 65). As such, he urged teacher educators to engage in critical inquiry and to learn how historical, political, and economic forces influenced the content of what they teach, teacher candidates' outcomes, and public education at large.

Watras (2003) also challenged teacher educators to analyze the purpose and impact of licensure exams critically. He contended that the content contained in licensure tests, such as the Praxis II, only provides a cursory overview of the skills and content needed to excel in the classroom. Therefore, they are not valid indicators of future classroom performance. Both critiques illuminate challenges the profession faces, and these scholars empower teacher educators to address the shortcomings of licensure tests through knowledge and to expand the curriculum.

Considering the research questions anchoring this study of the Massachusetts edTPA pilot and field test, this set of literature provides powerful themes to consider in informing data collection and analysis. First, they highlight the weaknesses of pre-service teacher evaluations because they fail to consider the influence of context and stakeholders. Multiple studies, including those by Goldhaber and Hanson (2010), Petchauer (2014) and Brown and Borman (2005), and Hones et al. (2009) focused on the role of race and native language on test-takers' experience in traditional licensure tests. As Petchauer (2014, 2018) argued, high-stakes licensure tests are a racialized experience, negatively impacting teacher candidate test performance. In addition, it is essential to understand how "traditional" preservice testing methods, including the Massachusetts Candidate Assessment System, is part of a widely understood systemic issue that prevents teachers of color from entering the field. Some touted the diversifying potential of Massachusetts' adoption of a preservice performance, especially if evaluation practices reflected the local context and if MCAS mandates were removed. However this view was not universal. While some (Lynn, 2013; Hyler et al., 2014) argued that edTPA would be a more culturally sensitive preservice assessment, others (NAME, 2014), warned that the edTPA would perpetuate historical preservice testing biases that prevent diverse teachers candidates from becoming licensed teachers.

In addition, the set of literature brings into focus the ability of state-policy to shape individual programs and impact teacher educator's day-to-day work. Multiple articles focused on the impact of licensure regulations on programs and individual classes. For example, many programs realigned course content to prepare students to pass licensure exams. While such alignment had the potential to create a supportive

environment in which students can be successful (Thompson & Smith, 2005), it could also negatively impact programs by winnowing away the program's individuality and uniqueness (Peck et al., 2010). According to Watras (2006), the removal of culture-infused curriculum in the effort to standardize teaching practices could have the unintentional consequences of reducing the diversity in elementary and secondary classrooms and the incorporation of social justice-focused curriculum and teaching methods. When programs change, teacher educators must adapt their course curricula and instruction (Sutton, 2004). A program's ability to meet state-level teacher education policy demands depends on its access to resources (Thompson & Smith, 2005; Vaughn & Everheart, 2005). As Wenglinsky (2000) found in the *Teaching the Teachers* report outlined above, resources are lacking in many urban, public teacher education programs. These inequities highlight the uneven terrain in which policy implementation occurs with well-resourced institutions best positioned to meet licensure-related policy implementation initiatives.

Preservice Teacher Performance Assessments

The second significant body of articles identified for this literature review focused on preservice teacher performance assessments. Although seen by many as a strictly contemporary form of preservice teacher assessment, teacher performance assessments have been debated for decades. In a 1974 article from the *Saturday Review*, education writer Fred M. Hechinger questioned the validity of pencil and paper preservice teacher tests as a way to assess a novice teacher's ability to teach and makes the prescient assertion that "the movement for performance-based assessments represents an inevitable demand by consumers and concerned educators for better teaching" (p. 72). Hechinger's

62

comments represented the start of a gradual shift away from content exams such as the NTE and towards Teacher Performance Assessments (TPAs). This shift accelerated a few decades later, partially in response to NCATE's requirement that teacher education programs provide evidence of meeting accreditation standards (Wise & Leibrand, 1996). As TPAs are based on day-to-day teaching actions, they can provide substantive evidence of meeting program and accreditation standards.

Over the past decade, several states and school districts adopted TPAs to better measure preservice teachers' knowledge of content and pedagogy (Darling-Hammond, Chung Wei, & Johnson, 2009). According to Chung Wei & Pecheone (2010), there are four distinct types of TPAs: observation-based, on-demand, child case study, and portfolio-based. Observation-based are among the oldest forms of teacher performance assessment and can include behavioral checklists and rubrics. On-demand forms of TPAs are assessments that measure a candidate's response to a prompt and allows for contextual-based answers. Child case study assessments are used to assess teacher-candidates in a number of the nations' elementary and middle education programs (Chung Wei & Pecheone, 2010). As part of these assessments, candidates are provided with a detailed profile of individual children's physical, social, emotional, cognitive, and academic standing. Candidates are then assessed using these profiles to design and implement instruction that meets the child's needs. Finally, portfolio-based TPAs require the candidate to capture artifacts of their teaching, including but not limited to videotaped teaching segments, lesson plans, and student work samples. Assessment is based not on the artifacts themselves, rather than the teacher-candidate's reflection upon their practice.

Despite the great variety, portfolio-type TPAs are currently the most frequently used teacher performance assessment to meet teacher education institutions and some state licensure requirements (e.g. edTPA). The articles selected for this review have three foci: a) the reliability and validity of TPAs, b) the impact of TPAs on teacher candidates, and c) the impact of TPAs on teacher education institutions on teacher education as a whole.

Validity and Reliability Studies of Teacher Performance Assessments

Regarding reliability and validity, there is a clear demarcation between portfolio-type assessments and the others. One of the most problematic types of evaluations related to reliability is the long-established practice of observation-based assessment. Early examples of observation instruments, in the form of simplistic checklists, were too broad to capture the nuances of effective teaching (Arends, 2006). In their critique of the strengths and shortcomings of preservice performance-based assessments, Chung Wei and Pecheone (2010) argued that although teacher observations have evolved to be more in line with state or INTASC standards, these observation-based TPAs were susceptible to reliability issues due to inadequate training of evaluators and the close connection evaluators typically have with their student teachers. Chung Wei and Pecheone also asserted that on-demand performance assessments, where teacher candidates answer an open-ended prompt, were much simpler to administer. However, validity and reliability vary greatly depending on the design of the particular on-demand instrument. In addition, child-case studies, which are frequently used in elementary-level teacher education programs, provided teacher-candidates tremendous opportunities to reflect on authentic

teacher practice. Content validity of those case study TPAs currently in use is strong, and good reliability is possible if care is given to scorer training.

Portfolio-based TPAs, such as the edTPA, in which teacher candidates submit various work-products, including teaching materials, student work samples, and videotaped lessons of teaching and learning, are considered by some to be most robust in terms of validity and reliability. This is especially true when portfolios are aligned to state or INTASC standards coupled with sufficient training of evaluators (Chung Wei & Pecheone, 2010; Riggs, Verdi & Arlin, 2009). Several empirical studies are based on this assertion, including those focused on the portfolio-based BEST (Connecticut), PACT (California), and edTPA.

Wilson et al. (2014) used student achievement test scores to measure teacher-candidate performance. This study investigated the relationship of BEST portfolio scores, Praxis I and II scores, and student achievement (as measured by Touchstone's Degrees of Reading Power Test) among 104 Connecticut student-teachers. Wilson et al. found that the BEST was a valid and reliable instrument that could identify teachers who could promote student gains on English Language Arts standardized tests. Moreover, Wilson et al. asserted that there was no relationship between teacher-candidate performance as measured by value-added measures and teacher-candidate performance on the PRAXIS exam.

Many other studies focused on the California-based PACT portfolio-type TPA. Working out of the Stanford Center for Learning, Assessment, and Equity (SCALE), Pecheone and Chung (2006), Darling-Hammond et al. (2010), and Newton (2010), each

examined the validity and reliability of the PACT. Pecheone and Chung (2006) looked at supervisor scoring as compared to PACT exam scores, where they found strong agreement between a supervisors' classroom performance scores and teacher-candidate performance on the PACT across all subject areas. Both Darling-Hammond et al. (2010) and Newton (2010) also found the PACT to be a significant predictor of teacher-candidate performance. Using value-added scores of their students' performance on standardized tests, both found that teacher-candidates' PACT performance is a significant predictor of student achievement gains on both English Language Arts and Mathematics standardized tests.

Goldhaber et al. (2017) also used value-added student performance scores to measure teacher candidate performance in their evaluation in edTPA. Using longitudinal data collected in Washington State, Goldhaber and colleagues found that edTPA performance was a "significant predictor" of student reading achievement; however, not in mathematics. Moreover, they found that Hispanic candidates were much more likely to fail edTPA than non-Hispanic White candidates.

Despite these findings regarding the validity and reliability of the portfolio-type teacher performance assessments, Ajayi (2014), Sandholtz (2012), and Sandholtz and Shea (2012) questioned TPAs ability to validly and reliably measure student teacher performance. In his qualitative study of eight ELA teacher-candidates from the same United States-Mexican border-based teacher education program, Ajayi found that the PACT did not consider contextual factors influencing teacher-candidate success or failure, including restrictive school-scripted curricula and classroom resources. His study

found that because teacher-candidates cannot adapt curricula to be more culturally responsive to their pupils, performance on the PACT suffered.

Sandholtz (2012) and Sandholtz and Shea (2012) also challenged the validity of the portfolio-type TPAs, specifically Wilson et al.'s assertion that TPAs performance aligned to supervisors' observations. In a medium-scale study (N=337), Sandholtz (2012) and Sandholtz and Shea (2012) found that supervisors' observations were not aligned to PACT standards, specifically in identifying progress over time and in accounting for context. There were variances between PACT performance and supervisors' assessment of effective teaching as measured by observation and graded teaching artifact scores.

Because edTPA is a more recently conceived instrument, there are far fewer studies on its validity or reliability. A few studies indicate that edTPA is a valid and reliable instrument (e.g. Goldhaber et al., 2017); however, many studies question this claim. For example, Lalley (2017) took issue with the SCALE organization's lack of transparency regarding edTPA data sets. Gitomer et al. (2019) agreed with Lalley's analysis, arguing that errors inherent in SCALE's published reliability reports should be discounted. Cochran-Smith and her team of researchers (2016), unpacked several claims made by SCALE, one of which was its purported validity and reliability. Cochran-Smith et al. found that edTPA's validity and reliability claims aren't entirely clear. These assertions were made based on edTPA as well as PACT and NBPTS studies that may not precisely align with the experiences of edTPA teacher candidates. Moreover, findings may not always be generalizable across all fields and contexts.

In their influential work *Reclaiming Accountability in Teacher Education* (2018), Cochran-Smith and colleagues evaluated edTPA using their Eight Dimensions of Accountability Framework to investigate edTPA and three other accountability-focused initiatives across three specific clusters: Foundations of Accountability, Problem of Teacher Education, and Power Relationships in Accountability. Regarding validity and reliability of edTPA, Cochran-Smith and colleagues unpacked the authenticity claims made by some researchers. Specifically, they analyzed several SCALE-sponsored reports regarding internal consistency (Pecheone et al., 2013, 2015) and predictive qualities (Pecheone et al, 2016) as well four independent analyses including the Goldhaber et al. (2017) and Lalley (2015) studies mentioned above. They found that SCALE provided substantial evidence regarding edTPA validity and reliability. However, as shared above, Goldhaber et al.'s (2017) study findings were mixed, with limited impact to pupils' reading and math scores. Lalley's (2015) claims were designated as theoretically based, rather than empirical.

Impact of Teacher Performance Assessments on Teacher Candidates

The second body of literature related to TPAs selected for this review focus on the impact of TPAs on teacher candidates. Teacher performance assessments are widely considered to be an organic form of assessment by which they assess a teacher-candidate's skills in an authentic classroom environment. As such, the assessment itself is embedded within classroom practice (Darling-Hammond, et al., 1999). Within this section, a number of studies focus on the impact of the assessment on teacher-candidate performance and perceptions. Many indicate positive outcomes on pre-service teachers' potential professional growth, specifically teacher-candidate self-confidence in

instructional and assessment techniques, including Chung's (2008) mixed-method study of 23 teacher candidates. In her study, Chung found that completing the PACT helped teacher-candidates improve their practice on assessment, planning, and reflecting upon practice. Similar findings are found in a two-year study on 20 California preservice teachers (Okhremtchouk, et al., 2009; Okhremtchouk et al., 2013). In these two related articles, drawing from year one (2009) and year two (2013) data of a single teacher-education program, researchers found significant increases in preservice teacher confidence as measured by teacher-candidate survey data.

Less positive findings related to the impact of TPAs on student-teachers were also identified in the Okhremtchouk et al. (2009) and Okhremtchouk et al. (2013) study. These findings related explicitly to TPA's impact on teacher-candidate time. Here, survey data indicated that while teacher-candidates viewed TPAs as overall helpful, the time-requirements needed to complete the PACT successfully were negatively influenced the amount of time candidates could devote to teacher preparation-related coursework and personal obligations. These findings were echoed in a more recent study by Clayton (2018), whose research focused on the impact of edTPA on teacher candidates in New York. Here, Clayton found that despite positive benefits in candidates' knowledge of differentiation, assessment, and reflection, edTPA had significant negative impacts on candidates' personal time and exposure to social justice focused curricula.

Pecheone et al.'s (2005) study on the effect of PACT performance assessment electronic portfolios on teacher learning and education within three University of California teacher education programs also aligned with these findings. Data from teacher candidates (N=50), supervisors (N=9), and scorers (N=12), indicated that while electronic

portfolios were generally seen as a valuable way to reflect upon student-teacher practice and obtain supervisor feedback, the operationalization of portfolios was exceptionally time-consuming for student teachers.

In a conceptual piece, Au (2013) also called attention to the format of portfolio-type teacher performance assessments (e.g. the edTPA) and its potential to negatively impact students. Drawing upon his experiences as a teacher-educator, Au asserted that as TPAs are primarily writing based (e.g. reflections of videotaped teaching samples) they may prove to be a barrier to English Language Learner teacher candidates- a group that is sorely underrepresented within the profession. Behizadeh and Neely's (2019) case study supports Au's assertions. In their investigation of the experiences of 16 first-generation teacher candidates of color engaging with edTPA, Behizadeh and Neely found that participants overwhelmingly felt that the instrument had a negative impact on their preservice teaching experience. They criticized the instrument itself, citing the "mental and financial stress" it caused due to high-stakes assessment design.

Cochran-Smith and colleagues' (2018) overarching analysis of accountability-related research also unpacked edTPA's claims of positive impacts of assessment on teacher candidates. In their review of a sizable number of studies focusing on the impact of edTPA on professional learning, the team found that claims that it improved teacher candidate practice was mixed. Although there was some evidence of improved practice as a result of the videotape component (Huston, 2017), focus on academic language (Heil & Berg, 2017) and reflection (Peterson & Bruster, 2014), some studies indicated negative effects on teaching for social justice (Picower & Marshall, 2016) and the undue stress the assessment placed on student resources (e.g. Meuwissen et al., 2017).

The Impact of TPAs on Teacher Educators, Teacher Education Institutions, and on Teacher Education as a Whole

As designed, most teacher performance assessments provide teacher education programs the opportunity to reflect and improve by providing data related to course content, instruction quality, placement, and supervision. These articles break down the impact of TPAs across many domains, including their impact on teacher educators, their impact on the institution, and their impact on the profession.

Many of the studies that focus on the impact of TPAs on teacher educators are positive. For example, Rothman (2008) and Darling-Hammond et al. (2010) found that PACT data could be used effectively by teacher education faculty to improve practice. Rothman (2008) focused on the changes prompted by PACT adoption, including the necessary realignment of the curriculum on an institution. Darling-Hammond et al. (2010) identified impacts gained by unpacking and sharing PACT data with colleagues. Other studies, however, criticize TPAs impact on the role of teacher educators, specifically in their influence on teacher educator morale (Berlak, 2010), curriculum creation (Jones et al., 2019), and their relationships with their students. For example, Donovan and Cannon's (2019) statewide survey of 34 edTPA coordinators in Georgia found that edTPA changed their role at a fundamental level. Instead of being seen as educators, respondents perceived that they were "arbitrators", whose most significant role is to help teacher candidates negotiate with edTPA requirements. No longer in control of the curriculum, teacher educators now experienced a transactional relationship with their students, one that focused solely on passing the exam.

In addition, there is robust research focusing on the impact of TPAs on teacher education institutions. Overall, these studies are generally mixed, with some

71

acknowledging strengths in TPAs on teacher education curriculum and the alignment to the assessment, while others pointing out that TPAs are not universally positive additions within education preparation organizations (Cochran-Smith et al., 2016). Peck, Singer-Gabella, Sloan, and Lin (2014) saw TPAs as a way to support faculty growth and reflection upon practice. Guaglianone et al. (2009) agreed with this assessment. In their survey of deans from 23 California institutions representing 450,000 students, they found that their students were well served by the PACT, indicating that the teacher performance assessment process helped teacher-candidates feel well prepared for the classroom.

Despite these positive reflections on the impact of TPAs on institutions, there were also are several critiques, including increased personnel requirements and financial costs (Hafner & Maxie, 2006; Luster, 2010; Guaglianone et al., 2009), the potential conflict of TPAs with the program's mission (Lit & Lotan, 2013; Behizadeh and Neely 2019; Ledwell and Oyler, 2016) and the possibility of a TPA to drive curriculum (Lit & Lohan, 2013, Jones et al., 2019). In their study of edTPA implementation in their institution, Jones et al. (2019) challenged perceptions that TPA's had a positive impact on teacher candidates and teacher education institutions in general. They found that the assessment narrowed the curriculum, resulting in "normalized practices that require obedience over creativity, practical skills over deeper thinking, and acceptance over criticality" (p.1). Moreover, the edTPA-focused curriculum had significantly reduced the program's focus on social justice and multicultural education, thus creating tensions between the instrument and the programs' overall mission.

Given the exponential growth of TPAs in the U.S., especially the edTPA, teacher performance assessments' impact on the profession itself has been called into question.

While some indicated that TPAs have the potential to create increased collaboration across institutions and opportunities for professional growth (Darling-Hammond and Hyler; 2013; Darling-Hammond, 2012), others questioned the relationship between large-scale assessment and corporations (Madeloni & Hoogstraten, 2013; Madeloni & Gorelewski, 2013), as well as TPAs potential to deprofessionalize teacher educators by outsourcing the assessment of an institution's own teacher candidates (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013; Madeloni & Hoogstraten, 2013). Cochran-Smith and colleagues' (2016) analysis of edTPA research highlighted these challenges, arguing that while professional learning for teacher-educators, programs, and institutions is possible, it could only occur with the assessment's coherence with the program's mission, supportive leadership, and adequate resources.

There were several themes within this set of teacher performance assessment literature that informs this study. Specifically, this literature highlights the tension between teacher educator institution/teacher educator autonomy and the constraints that occur as a result of alignment to a national assessment. Research indicated that adopting TPAs support some measurable gains to student-teacher performance, including greater teacher candidate confidence, increased teaching skills (Chung, 2008; Okhremtchouk et al., 2009; 2013), and increased teacher-educator and institution collaboration (Darling-Hammond and Hyler; 2013; Darling-Hammond, 2012). However, these gains come at significant costs to educator preparation institutions and the faculty who staff them. A number of these challenges were contextual-based, focusing on time, staffing, leadership, and overall financial costs (e.g. Hafner & Maxie, 2006; Luster, 2010; Guaglianone et al., 2009). In these cases, institutional ability to support successful TPA implementation

varied based on institutional resources and leadership structure. In many other cases, however, the dissonance between the purpose and objectives of the TPA and the institution's own mission itself was the most significant barrier to successful implementation (Lit & Lohan, 2013; Behizadeh & Neely, 2019). This manifested itself in struggles over control of the curriculum (Jones et al., 2019; Lit & Lohan, 2013), consternation regarding the identity of teacher educators themselves, and a perceived 'deprofessionalization' that occurs in assessing a large-scale instrument (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013; Madeloni & Hoogstraten, 2013).

Cochran-Smith and colleagues' (2018) broad review of edTPA accountability research also investigated claims regarding its impact on teacher education institutions and echo many of findings identified above. Specifically, the team asserted that "while edTPA is a valid and reliable assessment of some valued aspects of teaching, psychometric evidence provides only part of the story" (p. 127).

Within this study, the significance of context between the five Massachusetts pilot institutions, the lack of alignment between the edTPA and individual programs' missions, and the role of teacher educators in implementing this policy are significant in understanding the development and implementation of the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot Study and Field Test. The strengths and weaknesses of TPA implementation as identified. above provides a depth of understanding to inform the analysis of data and formulating overall findings.

Education Policy Implementation

The final significant body of research reviewed for this study relates to education policy implementation. Cochran-Smith et al.(2016) provided an extensive review of empirical, peer-reviewed studies related to teacher-preparation research published between 2000-2012. Their work painted a comprehensive picture of teacher-preparation research in an era of growing accountability expectations and teacher-quality debates. According to their findings, teacher education implementation studies, in their focus on the impact of external and internal accountability policies on teacher preparation institutions, reflected a "general shift in teacher education accountability away from evaluation of course syllabi, program faculty, and resources and towards evaluation of teacher candidates' teaching knowledge, program outcomes, and candidates'/graduates performance" (p. 459) and were influenced by the evidence-based reporting requirements of national and state accreditation and Title II funded state grants (Williams, Mitchell, & Liebbrand, 2003).

In addition to Cochran-Smith and colleagues' review, I supplement their work with additional policy implementation literature published since 2013. Consistent with the Cochran-Smith et al.'s review, there are two major identifiable themes: a) studies that focus on the responses of institution(s) to a specific policy initiative and b) studies that unpack the discourses or policy strategies connected to a policy initiative. The studies that focus on institutional response are the most numerous and are similar in design: predominately qualitative and focus on a single institution. Many of these studies focused on the impact of a single policy, law, or initiative on the institution itself, such as California's 1998 S.B. 2042 requirement related to teacher performance expectations.

For example, Kornfeld et al.'s (2007) study examined the impact of California state teacher credentialing mandates (S.B. 2042) on a teacher education department and its faculty (N=10). In this qualitative self-study, Kornfeld et al. found that this legislation significantly impacted how faculty approached teacher education. Interestingly, researchers found a disconnect between teacher-educators' stated belief that their practice had not changed versus their actual practice, which showed an increase in tacit, mandate-related language, and terminology by faculty. Although faculty were not consciously aware of state mandates' influence, this disconnect suggested that their practice adapted to the initiative. Moreover, Kornfeld et al. indicated this state generated mandate prompted a sense of isolation and alienation among the faculty, as participants strained to retain their and their institution's identity in light of the new legislation's standardization provisions.

Similar to Kornfeld et al., Peck et al. (2010) also investigated the impact of S.B. 2042 on a teacher education program. In this qualitative case study, Peck et al. researched how one education preparation organization responded to the state mandate and the impact of a policy on its faculty and staff. Like Kornfeld and colleagues, Peck et al. found an embedded tension between state policy and teacher educators around faculty autonomy. Compliance with state policy (or similar top-down accreditation requirements) came at the expense of faculty morale and/or program success.

Some studies provided a more fine-grained analysis of how policy impacts an institution. Haag and Smith (2002) investigated how ideologies influence policy initiatives' viability within a teacher-education institution. In this case study, the authors found that policy was interpreted in a variety of ways by various constituencies because

of differences in ideologies and perspectives among faculty and staff. Haag and Smith asserted that policy could be successfully enacted only if there was a deep understanding of the individuals, coalitions, and ideologies at play in any policy initiative. Similarly, Bell and Youngs (2011) focused their research on educator preparation institutions' responses to a Connecticut mandate that all institutions achieve NCATE accreditation. Here, Bell and Young categorized the type of change that occurred within an institution in reaction to the state mandate, as either a "substantive change" or a "symbolic change". They argued that it is not uncommon for institutions to meet state mandates for the purposes of compliance requirements. However, these changes do not substantively change the structure of the program. Moreover, the extent and type of changes that occur within an institution to meet state policy mandates vary depending on contextual factors such as resources, size, and stakeholders.

Other studies in this category focused on the impact of a policy on a collection of institutions bound together by mandate (Young & Wilkins, 2008; Ludlow et al., 2002) or structure (Kapsutka, et al. (2009). These institutional responses to policy initiatives provided foundations for understanding policy implementation across and within contexts.

A smaller subset of teacher policy implementation studies provided a broader analysis of teacher education policy implementation, specifically focusing on the construct and underlying influences of the policies themselves. Here, these discourse or strategy focused studies used a critical lens to evaluate education policy implementation to unpack power structures, relationships, and/or underlying ideologies. For example, Cohen-Vogel & Hunt's (2007) study on teacher preparation in the NCLB-era analyzed

over 40 teacher-preparation policy documents. They found that the discourse was not consistent in structure or intention; rather, the underlying discourse supported a deregulation stance. Also employing a critical-discourse approach, Aronson and Anderson (2013) analyzed NCATE mandates for the presence of critical perspectives and found inconsistencies in social-justice related expectations and requirements.

Barrett (2009) employed a Bernsteinian conceptualization of pedagogic discourse (Bernstein, 1990) to locate the underlying power relationships in a policy implementation of a NCLB mandate. Within this study, he found that pedagogic discourse captured hidden policy initiative ideologies that influenced preservice and in-service teacher educators' practice. Similar to Peck et al. 's (2010) finding, Barrett identified an underlying tension in policy implementation between the demands, the ideologies inherent in the mandate, and the faculty's own internal beliefs.

Elmore (2003) also investigated the intersection between policy implementation and educator belief systems- specifically alignment between educator practice and the overall mission/goals of the organization. Focusing on NCLB-era policy implementation within two K-12 schools, Elmore's study found that an organization's response to external policy initiatives is relational to the level of internal accountability within the school. The stronger the alignment between stated mission/beliefs and educator practice, the greater potential success of the external policy initiative within the organization. To Elmore, strong internal accountability strengthens an organization both tactically and strategically. From a tactical perspective, high-internal accountability schools are more adept at adjusting curriculum and instructional approaches to meet external demands. Educators seek substantive, meaningful practices, rather than quick solutions to address

problems. From a strategic perspective, administrators within high-internal accountability schools are more likely to possess the skills to work constructively with external authorities (2005).

Reflecting upon this body of research in consideration of my study, there are several important takeaways. First, the studies in this section reveal the vital role of context in policy implementation. Although state policy is implemented across multiple teacher education institutions, how they are interpreted and implemented varies based on institution size and access to resources (Bell and Youngs, 2011), the level of internal accountability (Elmore, 2003), and the teacher educators themselves (Haag and Smith, 2002). It is also essential to consider the lasting change policy implementation has on teacher educators and the institution itself. As seen in the Kornfeld et al. (2007) study, policy is shaped and reshaped by the people who enact it. Thus, the policy implementation must consider all stakeholders' perspectives (Haag & Smith, 2002). As argued by Cochran-Smith and colleagues (2016), these experiences reflected Ball's theory of Policy Cycle and are tangible examples of the iterative and interactive nature of policy implementation.

The three bodies of literature reviewed above: teacher licensure, teacher performance assessments, and teacher education policy implementation, provide a rich and complex understanding of the influences and foundations related to the Massachusetts edTPA pilot and field test. Together, these research articles coupled with the theoretical concepts introduced earlier in the chapter, form the basis of the overall research design and conceptual framework. Moreover, they inform the methodology, including data source selection and analysis. In Chapter Three, I introduce the overall

research design and include contextual information about the Massachusetts education

preparation landscape and the five teacher preparation institutions that participated in the

policy implementation.

Chapter Three

Conflicting Senses: Research Design

Within this dissertation, I unpack the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test, a state-level teacher education policy initiative, from its conception and development through to its implementation and impact. This chapter discusses the research design, data collection methods, and data analysis methods that enabled me to understand the interconnectedness between the multiple facets of teacher education policymaking and policy implementation. This illumination of the interwoven nature of policy highlighted the many factors at play during the teacher education policy implementation process as well as informed my overall analysis and findings.

As discussed in Chapter Two, our Politics of Policy Framework (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013) forms the basis of this dissertation's theoretical framework, which was influenced by both Ball's policy cycle theory (Ball, 1993; Bowe et al., 1992) and Joshee's concept of policy webs (Joshee, 2007; Joshee & Johnson, 2007). As such, I designed this study to understand the influences on Massachusetts edTPA pilot/field test development, analyze the impact of its implementation, and most importantly, unpack the interconnectedness, woven through them all.

Conceptual Framework

As discussed in Chapter Two, I took an approach influenced by the idea of both policy cycles and policy webs. Policy cycle theory contends that each stage of policy production and implementation adjusts and changes to respond to the influence of various contexts and actors. Policy webs represent the interconnectedness between the discourses, interpretation, implementation, and impact of policy within and across impacted contexts. These two concepts are central the Politics of Policy Framework (Cochran-Smith, et al.,

2013) and inform this study's design. As discussed in the previous chapter, the four

aspects of the Politics of Policy framework identify the influences, discourses,

implementation plans, and impacts of a policy, which help highlight the features of policy

production and implementation. As such, I took a bifurcated approach to data collection.

One set of data informs the answer to the following policy production-related research

question, specifically "What were the discourses surrounding the edTPA during the

Massachusetts edTPA pilot and field test?"

Here, the analysis focused on identifying significant themes within edTPA related

articles and provided an understanding of the dominant discourses of this initiative and

how the "problem" of preservice teacher evaluation was framed.

The second set of data, interview transcripts from Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and

Field Test teacher educator participants, helped answer the implementation-related

research question within this study: "How did Massachusetts teacher educators respond

to the edTPA?" Here, I analyzed twenty-one teacher-educator interviews collected from

the five Massachusetts pilot institutions. These inform my understanding about edTPA's

implementation and that policy's impact on each institution.

Figure 3 illustrates how the Politics of Policy Framework anchors the overall

research design. Specifically, it allows for understanding of policy production and policy

implementation for the Massachusetts edTPA assessment and guides data sources and

analysis.

Figure 4: Research Design Based on the Politics of Policy Framework (Cochran-Smith, et al., 2013)

FINDINGS

National-level framing of the "problem" of preservice teacher quality and dominant edTPA discourses

Media Articles

Discourses and Influences

Policy in Practice

Constructions of the Problem of Teacher Education

Impact and Implementation

Interviews

FINDINGS

Institution-level understanding on the MA edTPA policy in practice and its lasting impact
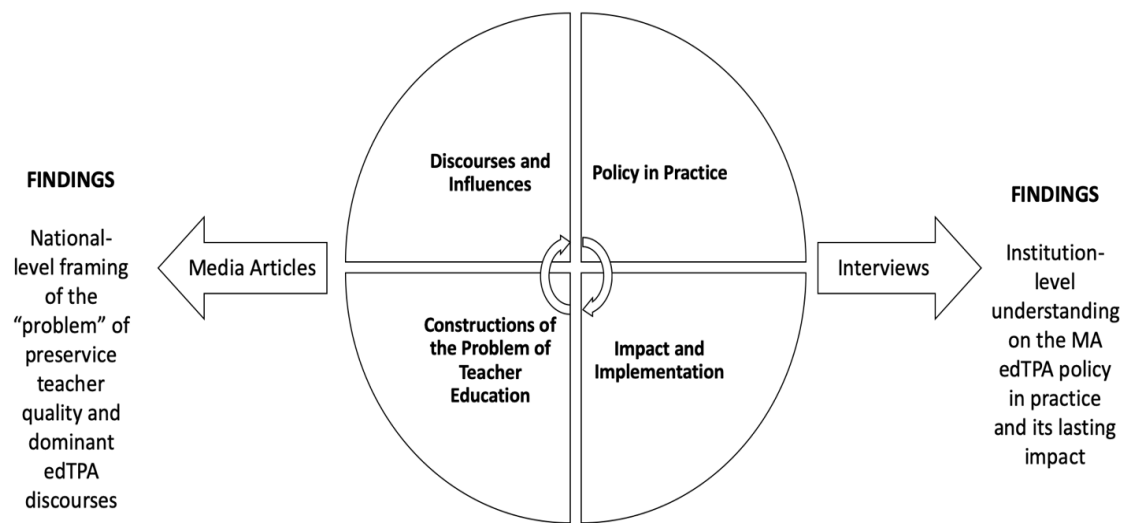
Researcher Positionality

As all research is interpretive, it is essential for all researchers to unpack ontological and epistemological worldviews. My positionality is especially significant within this study, as teaching and teacher education has influenced a significant part of my professional identity for over twenty years. As a former Massachusetts public school teacher, I personally navigated the multiple state and institution requirements related to teacher certification. I was first granted a Massachusetts teacher license in 1996, a few years after the momentous 1993 Education Reform Act, which brought sweeping changes to teacher accountability regulations, including requiring the satisfactory completion of two teacher tests as a condition to licensure. Although I complied with the more stringent requirements related to content-area coursework, the Massachusetts Test for Teacher Licensure (MTEL) was first implemented two years after I was granted initial licensure. Thus, I am among the last Massachusetts cohorts to become certified without a required

certification exam. My experience during the infancy of the 1993 Education Reform Act provides me with a greater understanding of the uncertainty that can accompany large-scale reforms. However, my lack of personal experience in taking a high-stakes preservice teaching evaluation may influence my understanding of how others interpret the edTPA.

After teaching at the secondary level for ten years, I left K-12 teaching to focus on teacher education at the university level. From 2011-2013, I was a social studies methods instructor at Mayflower University[4], a Massachusetts edTPA pilot institution. It was during my tenure there that I first heard about the edTPA. Although university officials never provided any formal information or trainings related to its edTPA pilot participation, I was privy to many informal conversations about the edTPA among tenured and clinical faculty and exposed to a wide variety of viewpoints. Moreover, as a methods instructor, my students, who were direct participants in the edTPA pilot, began to raise both perfunctory and philosophical questions about instrument and implementation during class discussion.

Two years later, I became the Director of Teacher Education at Bay State University, a different Massachusetts edTPA pilot institution. As part of my work as the Director of Teacher Education, the implementation of the edTPA was a significant part of my job duties. Beyond providing information sessions for both students and faculty, I was also responsible for holding norming sessions to assure reliability, gathering edTPA data for accreditation and program evaluation purposes, and representing the university at

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[4] The names of all educator preparation institutions and teacher educator participants are pseudonyms.

all state-level meetings related to this instrument. I was also a member of the state task force that ultimately recommended that Massachusetts abandon the edTPA in favor of a state-created instrument.

After the pilot/field test, I returned to Mayflower University as the Director of Practicum Experiences and stayed in that position until 2019. Although the edTPA pilot/field test had concluded, I continued to focus on preservice teacher evaluation representing teacher education institutions statewide as a board member of the Massachusetts AACTE affiliate (MACTE). These experiences deepened my knowledge of teacher education policy implementation, including its impact on teacher educators and educator preparation institutions.

Because the Massachusetts education preparation community is small and tight-knit, I am an acquaintance with most of the teacher educators interviewed for this study. In some cases, this personal connection may have influenced my data set in that participants were likely more willing to share more with me about their own experiences with the pilot. Others seemed to be more reticent because they felt that our prior relationship jeopardized their anonymity.

In addition to influencing data collection, my personal knowledge of two of the pilot institutions may have influenced my interpretation and analysis. I possess an understanding of the context of two of the pilot institutions that go beyond anything that can be collected in interviews or documents. Herr and Anderson (2005) stated that while this "insider" knowledge can be beneficial in its ability to have a more significant impact on each of these institutions, they warn of that researchers need to navigate potential "balkanization and micropolitics" (p. 36) in conducting insider research. Therefore, I was

cognizant of the balance of my autonomy with my relationships with these institutions.

Not only was I aware of assumptions and predisposed opinions raised by my former

colleagues, I understood that my research could generate uneasiness in exposing data that

is typically kept under wraps within an organization.

Data Sources and Collection

Within this dissertation, I collected two sets of data to best understand the

dominant national discourses about the edTPA and how the assessment was understood

and responded to by state-level teacher educators. To understand how discourses

surrounding the edTPA related to broader public debates about preservice teacher

evaluation at the national level, I collected media artifacts about the edTPA. In its ability

to document the policies and people surrounding an event, the media can capture deeply

seated ideologies of society (Goffman, 1972). Using internet search engines, I gathered

all known mass-media articles related to the edTPA from its inception (2009) to the

announcement that DESE will create its own TPA (August, 2014). These data included

information from press releases, news articles, blogs, and transcripts of other mass-media

forms, including radio and television transcripts. Internal policy documents and research

reports were not included within this search because they do not fit the definition of

mass-media used within this dissertation. Specifically, that mass-media is a form of

communication intended for the general public, is available to everyone, and is easily

accessed (Peters, 2008).

In addition to the media articles, teacher educators from all five participating

field-test institutions participated in a single semi-structured interview and reflected upon

the implementation of the edTPA within their organization and their thoughts about the

instrument itself. These data helped informed my understanding of how teacher educators in Massachusetts made sense of and responded to the edTPA. For this study, "teacher-educators" were defined as clinical faculty (including supervisors and non-tenure-track faculty), tenure-track faculty, and administrators (including deans, assistant/associate deans, directors, and program coordinators). The participants were selected via a snowball sampling technique (Atkinson & Flint, 2001) to identify and include participants that may be difficult to reach. Snowball sampling assumes that there are strong links within communities that are typically difficult for a researcher to access. As such, snowball sampling enables researcher-participant connections by accessing referrals directly from the participants (Berg, 1988).

At each pilot institution, I contacted the primary contact person listed on the *Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education Educator Preparation Program Provider* database (profiles.doe.ma.edu) to discuss this study. If a teacher educator agreed to participate, he/she signed a consent form and scheduled the interview. I conducted each interview utilizing an audio recorder and later transcribed these recordings using a transcription service. After each interview, I asked interview subjects if they could recommend any additional teacher educators with substantive knowledge of the edTPA pilot to participate in the study. I contacted these suggestions to broaden my interview pool. As a result of these efforts, a total of 21 individuals agreed to participate in this study.

Each interview was voluntary and in person, and was conducted in a setting of the participant's choosing. All meetings, which lasted on average about 75 minutes, were audiotaped with the participant's permission and were primarily based on a standardized

interview protocol. However, participants were encouraged to ask clarifying questions, share additional information, and provide personal opinions that may not have been prompted by the interview protocol. Therefore there were variations in the collected data.

I analyzed these data after I conducted all the interviews. Although Lincoln and Guba (1985) argued for an iterative interview/analysis process so that later interviews are informed by their predecessors, Seidman (2013) argued for the importance of isolating the interview collection and analysis process as to "avoid imposing meaning from one participant's interview on to the next" (p. 116). To Seidman, unintentional bias in interpretation could occur if the researcher is exposed to interview data or analysis of already completed interviews. Moreover, interview data were transcribed verbatim to best capture the participant's context and intent using a professional transcription service.

Research Sites

This study investigates how the edTPA as a preservice teacher evaluation policy was understood and responded to by five teacher-education institutions participating in the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test. Because teacher education policy is a contested space "reflecting the inevitable disagreements about values, ideals, and purposes that are inherent in all social institutions" (Cochran-Smith, 2006, p. xxvi), qualitative research is well suited to understand the multiple ideologies and interpretations embedded within the Massachusetts edTPA field test implementation. Moreover, because education policy implementation is influenced by the contexts and people involved (Cochran-Smith, et al., 2013), qualitative research allows for "understanding of how people interpret their experiences, how they construct their worlds, and what meaning they attribute to their experiences" (Merriam, 2009, p. 14).

The size and scope of the national edTPA pilot study and field test were immense. In the 2011-2012 field-test alone, thousands of teacher education students, educator preparation administrators, and state education officials from 180 institutions located in 28 states participated (Pearson Education, 2012). Therefore focusing on one state's experience via a case study enabled a "detailed examination of an event…which the analyst believes exhibits (or exhibit) the operation of some identified general theoretical principles" (Mitchell, 1983, p.192). A case study explores a 'bounded system' that allows for various data to be utilized to understand a specific phenomenon and understand complex and interrelated elements or characteristics within clearly identifiable boundaries (Stake, 1995, 2006; Yin, 2002, 2012). Thus, with the large numbers of people, organizations, and data involved on the national level, the bounded nature of a state-level case "allow[s] the investigators to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events" (Yin, 2002, p.2). For this study, all five Massachusetts participating field test institutions make up the case. In considering the size and scope of the edTPA, the variety of type and size of participating programs, and the research questions being asked, the experiences of the five participating educator preparation organizations in Massachusetts are well suited to serve as a case from which to obtain greater understanding on how teacher education institutions respond to the edTPA.

The following Massachusetts university-based schools of education participated in the pilot and field-test of the edTPA:

Patriot University- A medium-sized state university located in a historic industrial city. While most of its students matriculate from local cities and towns, it has experienced significant growth that has broadened its appeal.

Colonial State University- The smallest participating state university. It is located in a historic industrial city.

Commonwealth University- A large state university located in a predominantly rural area of the state. Commonwealth University attracts students from across Massachusetts.

Bay State University- A medium-sized university. It is located in a working-class neighborhood of a large city and draws students from local cities and towns. It has also experienced significant growth in recent years.

Mayflower University- A private, nationally ranked, medium-sized university. It attracts students from across the United States.

These five institutions represent a wide range of school types and sizes. Four universities are public, thus are subject to state-specific rules, regulations, and funding issues. As the only private school, Mayflower University possesses a different set of experiences as an independent and better-funded organization. In addition, the size and focus of schools span the continuum between large school and small, urban and rural. Thus together, these schools represent the diversity of institutions involved in contemporary teacher education.

Data Analysis

Within this case study, I collected two sets of data, each corresponding to a specific research question that focuses on a particular aspect of policy production or implementation. The first set of data, media articles about edTPA, resulted in the capture of 114 articles from various periodicals from across the country. I utilized Deborah Stone's *Policy Paradox* (2002) theories to structure the overall analysis of the media articles. In *Policy Paradox* (2002), Stone asserted that events and actions related to policy

production, which includes development and implementation of policy, are messy and illogical. The underlying reason for this disarray is that politics, at its very core, is a struggle for ideas and does not always take the most logical path. To Stone, the basic elements of an issue, i.e. the persons involved, the resources available, etc. are rarely contested. However, the underlying ideas that shape understanding are highly debated and shape the outcome of that issue. "Political conflict is never simply over material conditions and choices, but over what is legitimate. The passion in politics comes from conflicting senses of fairness, justice, rightness, and goodness." (p. 34). For example, Stone used the concept of a parade as an example of a highly contested idea. The actual definition of a parade, that is, a group of persons marching in a public venue, is generally mutually agreed upon by many actors. However, what can be debated is the purpose of a parade. To some, it is a "recreational event," while to others, it is a political display of unity to express a collective idea (p.9).

Moreover, not only the definitions of these "conflicting senses" are in dispute, but also how they are used within a political debate. Each stakeholder interprets these ideas differently and uses them to promote their position in unique ways. "The different sides in a conflict create different portrayals of the battle—who is affected, how they are affected, and what is at stake" (p. 34). This ambiguity in how ideas are defined and utilized helps to explain policy actions that seemingly defy rationality. For example, the Brexit decision in the Summer of 2016 was on the surface an economic decision—one that at its core determined whether or not Britain would stay connected to the European Union or break with them for an independent economic model. The advocates of the *Remain in the EU* campaign framed their campaign as an economic one, specifically that

exit from the EU would hurt Britain's economy. However, organizers of the *Remain* campaign failed to address the concerns of a large voting block who did not value the economic benefits of being a member of the EU. This group, *Vote Leave*, saw the connection to the EU as an identity issue rather than an economic issue. Captured by its simple and effective slogan, "Take Back Control", *Vote Leave* tapped into an extensive reservoir of voters who, despite potential economic hardship of breaking with the EU, identified with its British first message `(Taylor, 2017). The result was a plurality of voters opting for breaking with the EU and the subsequent (and presently unsettled) economic future of the UK.

Keeping Stone's ideas of the "conflicting senses" in mind, I chose to code the articles three different ways for three different purposes, specifically, to identify stance, category, and frame. This process is outlined in Table 4 below. First, I used NVivo software to code each media artifact according to what I refer to as "stance", specifically whether the edTPA was depicted positively, negatively, or neutrally. This analysis helped identify stakeholder perspectives on the issue and to identify concepts that were potentially in dispute. To discern the article's stance, I read each article and analyzed the vocabulary used to describe the instrument. I also looked at the phrasing of the article headline because inherent in its purpose is to provide readers with a snapshot overview of the overall article. Although vocabulary was the most common way for me to identify an article's stance, e.g. "effective" or "expensive", I also looked for indications of tone. Here, I analyzed each article's overall message, looking for aspects of the edTPA that the author chooses to highlight, and whether or not that was positive, negative, or neutral in nature.

Next, I reviewed each article for "category". Here, I used NVivo software to tag each article's publication type, author, and audience, such as teacher educators, teacher candidates, or the general public. As Stone (2002) asserted, policy production and implementation comprise various stakeholders possessing various degrees of power. As such, coding these stakeholders revealed pertinent details about the policy cycle, including relevant issues and participants. More importantly, coding of categories helped identify inherent power structures at play as mainstream media reflected the views of those in positions of power. According to van Dijk (2008), the media, in its ability to capture dominant discourses, reflected the opinions of those in positions of power.

Finally, I coded the articles for what Stone (2002) calls "concepts," but I call "frame". It is important to note that there is a lack of agreement on a single conceptual model of frame analysis, as framing adapts to the context-specific aspects of a study (Entman, 1993). As such, frame analysis can vary in terminology (Hamill & Lodge, 1986) and process (Borah, 2011). For this study, I utilized Stone's (2002) four concepts or goals that dominate policy production and implementation: efficiency, equity, security, and liberty, to structure my analysis. According to Stone, these concepts are infused in all aspects of the policy process, including the purposes of policies and related discourses. These include controversies and issues related to policy implementation and the justification of a policy initiative, the actions of various actors involved in implementation, and critique of the policy itself. Stone asserted that the framing of a person, issue, event, or phenomenon is more significant in policy production than straightforward logic and rational thought. These frames often utilize metaphors and analogies, i.e. dialogue, imagery, and language, and thus are essential to the process.

Specifically, they shape how an issue is defined, how it is presented to the populace, and how the solution is articulated. According to Stone, this shaping of a problem by stakeholders is present in all communication forms about a person, issue, event, or phenomenon, is "at the center of all political conflict. Policymaking, in turn, is a constant struggle of the criteria for classification, the boundaries of categories, and the definition of ideals that guide the way people behave" (p.11). This means that who controls the narrative about an issue by crafting the metaphors and analogies used in a debate is often the person who possesses the upper hand in policy production. In essence, Stone believed that those who control the message, dominate the argument. By controlling the imagery surrounding policy implementation, specifically by how issues are named, how they are defined, and how opponents and supporters are portrayed, the persons in power lend legitimacy to their cause and disparage their opponents. Stone defined "metaphor and analogy" in a broad sense, describing these as "symbolic devices" (p.138) that form the basis of controlling the imagery that influences policy implementation. In this dissertation, I use Stone's notion of symbolic devices and utilize these throughout the media article analysis process.

Within this dissertation, I used the following four descriptions to identify frames: a) Efficiency--Arguments and descriptions focusing on cost effectiveness, streamlining, time and labor savings, b) Equity--Arguments and descriptions focused on fairness and equality between stakeholders, c) Security--Arguments and descriptions focused on safety, including student data privacy, d) Liberty--Arguments and descriptions focused on freedom and control of one own's actions. Using these definitions, I read through each article multiple times, using NVivo software to identify examples of each of these four

frames. Within the data set, I located examples of Efficiency, Equity, and Liberty frames that I analyze in Chapter Four. Security, which includes the privacy concerns, was only identified in a small number of collected articles (N=3), therefore was not deemed as a significant frame within the edTPA media articles.

Table 4: Media Coding Process

Coding Steps	Description
Stance	Each article was analyzed holistically to determine how it depicted edTPA- positive, negative, or neutral.
Category	Each article was reviewed to determine publication type, author, and audience.
Frame	Using Stone's (2002) four policy concepts, each article was evaluated to identify specific passages that align to one or more of the following frames—Efficiency, Equity, Security, and Liberty.

For the second set of data, I collected transcripts from 21 teacher educator interviews employed across the five Massachusetts edTPA institutions. The snowball sampling technique, as described above, resulted in an uneven distribution of interviews from the five universities, specifically a large data set from Bay State University and Mayflower University, and a smaller data set from Commonwealth University, Patriot University, and Colonial State University. Analysis, findings, and conclusions are primarily from data collected from Bay State University and Mayflower University. However, data gathered from Commonwealth University, Patriot University, and Colonial University support these assertions. Below in Figure 2, I provide an overview of the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field test case and how it is influenced by national discourses about preservice teacher education, evaluation, and certification.

Figure 5: Massachusetts edTPA Implementation Case
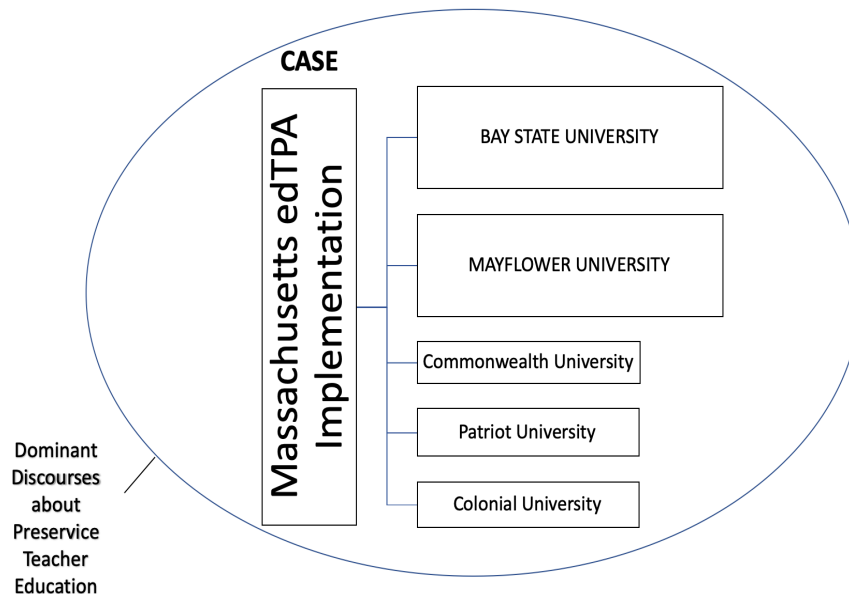
I used two components of the Politics of Policy Framework--Policy in Practice and Impact and Implementation, to guide data collection and analysis. Specifically, my interview protocol focused on teacher-educators' interpretations of the edTPA instrument and details of edTPA policy implementation within their own contexts (see Appendix A). Through coding and analysis, I unpacked these reflections to unearth major factors influencing edTPA policy implementation.

For the interview transcript analysis, I used a grounded theory approach to determine major codes. As such, I aimed to possess theoretical sensitivity to the coding and analysis process. As defined by Corbin and Strauss (2015), theoretical sensitivity allows the researcher to have "insights as well as being tuned into and being able to pick up relevant issues, events, and happenings during collection and analysis of the data" (p. 78). As an administrator who had first hand experience of the Massachusetts edTPA implementation, acknowledged this influence my interpretation of the data. As such, I

actively questioned my inherent biases and experiences when coding and analyzing the data.

In coding the data set, I read each transcript a minimum of five times, following a process outlined in Table 5. This iterative process allowed me to unpack and understand the experiences of policy implementation and formulate an in-depth analysis of the various factors involved in edTPA policy implementation. (Saldana, 2015). Throughout this process, I used HyperRESEARCH software to tag specific passages within each interview with identifier codes. These codes enabled me to look at data through a particular lens, for example, institution or job role, or a combination of lenses such as institution and a specific code.

Table 5: Interview Coding Process

Coding Steps	Description
Initial Review	Review of all transcripts to gain familiarity of the data set.
Open Coding	Initial coding of data set. Each identified passage was labeled with a code that provided a brief description of that particular passage.
Implementation Conceptual Coding	Initially coded data was reviewed again to refine initial descriptions into one to two-word codes. Similar concepts were collapsed into same code. Code names were refined again, if needed.
Implementation Categorial Coding	Similar concept codes were grouped together into overarching categories called major codes.
Contextual Categorial Review	Concept codes were context tags to indicate institution and role (tenure track, clinical faculty, etc.)

Through this process, four major codes emerged: context, leadership, coherence, and accountability. This coding and recoding of the data provided a rich understanding of the data and produced a rich and complex map that revealed the significant stakeholders, areas of focus, and significant influences for each institution. Moreover, it allowed for robust cross-code comparisons between institution and job role.

Below, in Table 6, the multiple types of analyses for both sets of data are outlined, providing details on each data set, as well as the specific methodologies used.

Table 6: Data Collection and Analysis Overview

Research Question	Level of Context Addressed	Data Source	Data Description	Totals	Research Methodology	Analytical Lens	Theoretical Lens
a) What were the national discourses regarding edTPA during the Massachusetts edTPA Field Test and Pilot?	National	Periodicals, including national and local newspapers and blogs	All media related to the edTPA published between 2010-2014	114 articles	Frame Analysis (Stone, 2002)	*Policy Paradox* (Stone, 2002)	Politics of Policy Framework (Cochran-Smith, et al., 2013)
b) How did MA teacher educators respond to the edTPA?	State-level	Interviews	21 teacher educators from five MA edTPA institutions (e.g. clinical faculty, tenured faculty) and university administra-tors (e.g. deans, directors of teacher education)	21 inter-views	Data Collection-Snowball Sampling (Atkinson & Flint, 2001) Data Analysis-Open Coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2015)	Case Study (Stake, 1995, Yin, 2009)	Politics of Policy Framework (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013)

Verification

Although all education researchers value the reliability and validity of research (Oluwatayo, 2012), there are perceived challenges in establishing rigor in qualitative studies. This faulty belief emanates from a positivist philosophical worldview in which qualitative studies are seen as only "preliminary or supplementary" to quantitative ones (Lather & Moss, 2005, p.1). For example, qualitative research critics sometimes question qualitative studies' rigor because meaning is embedded in context and cannot be

separated from the actors and environments involved (Merriam, 2009). In this study, I addressed internal validity by employing Guba's (1981) criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiry: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability.

Credibility, which seeks to ensure internal validity, is an essential factor in establishing rigor (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). According to Merriam (2009), triangulation occurs by comparing multiple forms of data or looking at numerous examples of the same data form. In this study, triangulation occurs by comparative analysis of various forms of data (interviews and media artifacts).

Transferability, which focuses on the concept of generalizability of study findings to other situations, can be applied to qualitative research with care. Some researchers believe that because contexts are unique, transferability is limited. For example, Cziko (1993) believed that contexts are always in flux; therefore, transferability only affords a "temporary understanding" (p. 10). Bassey (1981), however, broadened the definition of generalizability in qualitative research, indicating that transferability occurs when practitioners map their own experiences upon those outlined within a study. Thus, this study provides a "thick description" (Geertz, 1973), i.e. very detailed explanations, of each institution's contexts and characteristics.

Dependability is similar to reliability and looks to demonstrate that if the study is replicated under the same circumstances, the results would be repeated. In the qualitative realm, there is acknowledgment that the duplication of a research context is near impossible (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). However, there is value in allowing others to

repeat the study to assess its effectiveness. Therefore, in this study, there is transparency in the reporting of research methods, including data collection, coding, and analysis.

Finally, it is crucial to address the influence of a researcher's biases on the study, as it threatens the data interpretation (Miles and Huberman, 1994). As research is a human endeavor, researchers are not without bias. However, through triangulation and the detailed articulation of my positionality (see above), this study enables the reader to assess the extent of my bias.

In the next chapter, I use Stone's *Policy Paradox* theories (2002), to unpack the dominant frames within media content of that era. In doing so, I unearth the dominant discourses, prominent stakeholders, and how the "problem" of teacher quality is articulated, providing understanding to the formation of the Massachusetts edTPA policy and providing a foundation for understanding how that policy impacted Massachusetts teacher educators.

Chapter Four

One Nation, One Assessment: The edTPA in the Media

In this chapter, I provide an overview and analysis of the context in which the

Massachusetts edTPA field test was implemented. First, I outline the origin and purpose

of edTPA, including its current implementation status within the United States.

Specifically, I characterize the national environment in which edTPA developed by

providing evidence of a pervasive pro-accountability narrative that focused on teacher

quality and the shortcomings of preservice teacher education. In providing this

information, I assert that there was fertile ground for edTPA to grow as the solution to the

'problem' of teacher candidate quality. In addition, I show that edTPA was promoted in

part by emphasizing its strong connection to several well-regarded, already-existing

preservice and in-service teacher performance exams in addition to some of the major

actors within the teacher education community.

Following this overview of the origins of edTPA, I describe the appearance of

edTPA as a topic in the national professional and popular media over a period of five

years (2010-2014). Using a series of tables, I analyze publication types, authors, and

intended audiences of more than 100 media items. I also investigate how the media

portrayed the edTPA and provide an overview of the 'conversations' related to the

edTPA when the Massachusetts field test was ongoing. Specifically, I describe what

kinds of edTPA portrayals (e.g. positive, negative, neutral) were promoted, the authors of

those portrayals, their intended audiences, and finally, the extent of the reach of the

message. This analysis begins to unearth sources of power and influence within the

edTPA debate and highlights various stakeholders' abilities to disseminate their messages

to specific audiences.

Following this initial analysis, I outline the dominant policy goals reflected within the media discussions of edTPA and demonstrate how these goals shaped the debates surrounding the instrument. Using the 114 examples of edTPA focused media I collected between 2010-2014, I show the importance of framing within the edTPA debate. As discussed in Chapter Three, framing provided a nuanced understanding of the edTPA within its context, highlighting both dominant policy goals as well as the concept of contested spaces—that is, issues where competing forces had differing interpretations of the same events. In identifying the dominant frames and the areas of contestation, I lay the groundwork for my argument that these prevalent policy goals influenced the edTPA pilot implementation in Massachusetts. Moreover, I argue that these goals were interpreted differently by different stakeholder groups.

More importantly, I argue that there are three main policy frames underlying media stories about the edTPA-- efficiency, equity, and liberty and assert that this framing of policy goals in the media was influential in the how the 'problem' of preservice teacher quality was constructed, how the edTPA was implemented, and the impact of edTPA implementation in Massachusetts. This chapter lays the foundation for the Chapter Five analysis of interview data related to five Massachusetts edTPA pilot organizations.

Origin and purpose of the edTPA

As indicated in Chapter One, edTPA was developed as a project of the Teacher Performance Assessment Consortium (TPAC), an organization comprised of the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (AACTE), the Council of Chief

State School Officers (CCSSO), and the faculty and staff at the Stanford Center for Assessment, Learning, and Equity (SCALE). During 2009, the same year that TPAC members first gathered, assaults on teacher education were at a zenith, with high-profile attacks coming from both outside and within the teacher education community. Not only had U.S. Secretary of Education Arne Duncan lambasted university-based educator preparation programs for "doing a mediocre job of preparing teachers for the realities of the 21st-century classroom" (Duncan, 2009, p. 2), but Katherine Merseth, Senior Lecturer and Director of Teacher Education at the Harvard University Graduate School of Education argued that "of the 1300 graduate teacher training programs in the country, [only] about 100 or so are adequately preparing teachers and the others could be shut down tomorrow" (Ramirez, 2009, p. 1). This disdain for university-based routes in teacher education was exemplified by the exponential growth of Teach for America (TFA), a fast-track alternative pathway into teaching that bypassed "traditional" university-based teacher preparation altogether. Online interest in TFA peaked in February 2009 (Google Trends, 2020), and a four-year string of record application numbers had just begun (Nelson, 2015).

EdTPA was developed in part as a way to address these criticisms that teacher education was ineffective and in disarray. As I show in detail in the sections to follow, edTPA was touted as a way to professionalize teaching and teacher education from within the teacher education community. By design, edTPA required teacher candidates to demonstrate the knowledge and skills presumed to be needed to be effective teachers from day one in the classroom. Influenced by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), the Performance Assessment for California Teachers

(PACT), and Connecticut's Beginning Educator Support and Training (BEST) exam, edTPA required teacher candidates to develop a portfolio of teaching artifacts containing written work samples (e.g. lesson plans and student work), along with a ten-minute video segment. This portfolio centered around a three to five lesson segment of teaching conducted within the practicum placement classroom. The edTPA assessment was promoted as an authentic and valid way to evaluate the performance of teacher candidates.

Developers and proponents of edTPA likened this assessment to a "bar exam" for teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2012; Middleton, 2013). Proponents argued that just as law school graduates were expected to pass a summative assessment of their cumulative knowledge, so should graduates of edTPA-affiliated educator preparation programs be required to pass a summative assessment of their readiness to teach. Parallels to other professions' summative examinations, such as the board exams used in medicine and nursing, were also frequently mentioned in descriptions of this instrument to suggest that rigors of teachers' work were equal to those in other professions. For example, in a letter to the editor of the *Columbus Dispatch*, Renee Middleton, Dean of the Patton School of Education at Ohio University, wrote, "We educators owe this, as a profession, to our stakeholders. If parents lose confidence in the ability of teacher-prep programs to prepare young teachers, public education is placed at risk." (Middleton, 2013). She argued that in essence, edTPA was the key to professionalism: "The edTPA program is to the field of education what the bar exam is to the legal profession" (p.9).

Similar to how bar and board exams assessed prospective law and medical professional competency, teacher candidates' edTPA teacher performance was evaluated

by outside evaluators, and pass/fail cut scores were determined by each state. This meant that candidates' raw scores could be compared across institutions within states. Proponents of edTPA argued that the ability to compare candidates' performance across contexts was a significant feature of edTPA as it encouraged the alignment of participating states' certification requirements and the determination of a cross-state minimum passing score (Darling-Hammond, 2012). One benefit of this was that rather than taking state-specific teacher exams, edTPA enabled teachers to take a single summative examination that could be used in 41 different states--keeping in mind that individual minimum pass scores do vary from state to state. For example, for the typical edTPA assessment (15 Rubrics), Pearson recommended a Professional Performance Standard (PPS) of 42 out of a maximum of 75. This cut score, however, was just a recommendation. State-specific Professional Performance Standards cut scores range from 35 in Oregon to 40 in Washington State (Pearson Education, 2018).

One of the most controversial aspects of edTPA was the use of Pearson Education as the scoring administrator. Pearson Education, a for-profit British education company, is the world's largest edu-business with operations in over 90 countries. Its operations are diverse, spanning publishing, software, online learning, and testing (Hogan et al., 2015). With respect to the edTPA exam itself, Pearson was responsible for the overall scoring of the assessment. To manage this, Pearson employed independent evaluators to hand-score each teacher candidate portfolio using SCALE-produced rubrics. According to SCALE (Pearson Education, 2019), scorers were hired from various backgrounds, including veteran teachers and teacher educators. However, critics argued that the appointment of these scorers was problematic because of the compensation structure in which scorers

were paid on a piecework basis and the lack of scorers' understanding of the context in which the teacher candidates work (Madeloni and Gorlewski, 2013; Au, 2013).

As of April 2020, 928 institutions in 41 states and the District of Columbia participated in edTPA. In Connecticut, Georgia, Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Oregon, Tennessee, Washington, Wisconsin, edTPA was (or will soon be) the only approved teacher candidate assessment for certification or program approval. In seven other states, Alabama, Arkansas, California, Delaware, Hawaii, South Carolina, West Virginia, edTPA was an approved assessment to meet state teacher testing regulations. In an additional two states, Ohio and Texas, edTPA was considered for required use to obtain state certification. In the remaining twenty participating states, edTPA was in use in at least one educator preparation institution (edTPA, 2020). In Table 7, I highlight the extensive influence of the edTPA. Along the left column, I list the level of edTPA participation and the number of states involved. Along the corresponding row on the right side, the name of each state. As this table shows, the majority of states in the United States (82%) have some connection to edTPA, whether through formal legislation (N=19) or limited adoption by institutions within the states (N=22). Far fewer states have no direct relationship to this instrument (N=9) (Pearson Education, 2020).

Table 7: edTPA Participation (as of July 2020)

Level of edTPA Participation and Number of States Involved	Participating States
edTPA is (or soon will be) the only performance assessment approved to meet state licensure and/or accreditation requirements (12)	Connecticut, Georgia, Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Oregon, Tennessee, Washington, Wisconsin
edTPA is one of the approved performance assessments that meet state licensure and/or accreditation requirements (7)	Alabama, Arkansas, California, Delaware, Hawaii, South Carolina, West Virginia,
edTPA is being considered for statewide adoption (2)	Ohio and Texas
edTPA is used in at least one educator preparation institution within the state; however, there is no statewide edTPA requirement (20)	Alaska, Arizona, Colorado, Florida, Idaho, Indiana, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Michigan, Mississippi, Nebraska, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Wyoming
edTPA is not used (9)	Kansas, Maine, Massachusetts, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota

Of the nine states that do not have any current affiliation with the edTPA, only Massachusetts piloted the assessment but then severed ties. As discussed in Chapter One, Massachusetts was initially deemed a "fast-track" state and engaged in a pilot study of the edTPA at five public and private educator preparation organizations. The state ended its pilot of edTPA in 2013 due to multiple concerns from the institutions, including ownership of data, privacy, and scoring. However, two institutions continued using the assessment under a "grandfather" provision until the 2015/2016 academic year. Under this provision, the participating Massachusetts pilot institutions could continue to use all testing materials from the 2012-2013 field test implementation, including workbooks and

rubrics. Teacher education faculty from these two institutions completed all scoring

internally, and the results were not shared outside the institution. Massachusetts

Department of Elementary and Secondary Education personnel would accept these scores

for the purposes of licensure. I discuss additional information about the Massachusetts

implementation of edTPA in Chapter Five.

The edTPA in the media

EdTPA (early on called the TPA) first appeared in the media in October 2010 in

an *Education Week* piece titled "Toward a National Teacher-Licensing Assessment"

(Heitin, 2010). The article chronicled Linda Darling-Hammond's Center for American

Progress panel presentation about her report, *Evaluating Teacher Effectiveness: How*

Teacher Assessment Can Measure and Improve Teaching (Center for American Progress,

2010). Fresh from her stint as chair of President Obama's transition team on education

policy, Darling-Hammond shared her vision for a Teacher Performance Assessment

Consortium (TPAC) to a packed room filled with a cross-section of the education policy

world, including those from university-based teacher education, charter schools,

education-related non-profits, state government officials, and teacher unions. Darling-

Hammond explained that teacher education institutions would comprise TPAC and create

a national teaching license as well as provide an alternative to the array of state-

developed preservice teacher evaluation and licensure policies.

Since that early report, edTPA had been described, discussed, reviewed, critiqued,

praised, and excoriated in the media--in print, on the radio, and in various digital formats.

These media encompass many different perspectives on the assessment and its potential

impact on teachers, teacher educators, pupils, schools, institutions, and state boards of

education. For this dissertation, media articles and items that capture these multiple perspectives were analyzed to identify the significant frames that shaped policy implementation, public opinion, and professional responses.

As stated in Chapter Three, the terms "TPA" and "edTPA" were used as search terms within the Google News search engine to locate the relevant media items. Using these terms, I identified media items that featured edTPA as a significant focus (N=114). As Chapter Three laid out in detail, I coded each media article according to stance, category, and frame. First, I labeled each article as positive, negative, or neutral to identify how it portrayed the edTPA in general--which I refer to as stance. Next, I recorded the publication type, author, and audience for each media item, a general characteristic I referred to as "category". In some cases, audience designation was indicated in multiple categories because the article's focus was directed to more than one audience. Finally, I coded each article to identify the dominant discourses, or "frames" reflected in the media articles. As discussed in Chapter Three in this dissertation, these "frames" are based on broad ideas about policy development and debate, as outlined in Deborah Stone's *Policy Paradox* (2002).

Publication Type, Author, Intended Audience

The media articles identified for this review fell into six distinct publication categories: national newspaper, regional newspaper, radio/television transcripts, education periodical, campus publications, and blogs. Most articles were clustered within three categories: regional newspapers (N=34), educational periodicals (N=21), and online blogs (N=39). Interestingly, although touted as a potential national form of preservice teacher assessment, the regional media produced the largest percentage of the

109

published articles, reflecting the significant impact edTPA was on having state-level certification and licensure.

In addition, other characteristics of authorship, such as teacher, teacher candidate, teacher educator; and intended audience, such as teacher educators, the general public, and policymakers, were coded to provide some contextual understanding of each media article. Table 8 provides an overview of these media and how certain types of publications align to specific authors. The left column displays the six types of publications, and the columns across the top indicate the authorship of the works within each column. I placed the total number of each media article that aligns with each publication type and author within the intersecting cell. In articles in which authorship could not be determined, the author is categorized as "reporter." An outlined cell notates the dominant media used by each category of author.

As shown in Table 8, authors of edTPA-related articles had various roles and published in multiple venues. Reporters or media personnel (e.g. campus public affairs offices) are the dominant groups documenting edTPA implementation within national and regional newspapers, radio, and television, as well as within education periodicals. Teacher educators, however, expressed their views about the edTPA mostly through online blogs. In contrast to other media forms, these blogs are more democratic and less bounded. Anyone with a personal computer and an internet connection can share their opinions with a national audience.

Table 8: Publication Type and Authorship of edTPA Media (2010-2014)

		Developer	Policymaker	Reporter	Student Teacher	Teacher	Teacher Educator
				Author			
Publication Type	National Newspaper	1	0	5	0	0	4
	Regional Newspaper	0	0	28	1	0	5
	Radio/ Television	0	0	5	0	0	0
	Education Periodical	4	0	12	1	0	4
	Campus Publication	0	0	4	2	0	0
	Online Blogs	2	1	9	4	0	22

Table 9 provides additional context for edTPA by identifying the dominant audience for each article by type of publication. Similar to Table 8, the left column displays the six types of publications; however, the columns labeled across the top indicate the intended audience of the works within each column. In some cases, the intended audience was overtly stated; however, in most cases, the intended audience was inferred by analyzing the content in addition to the publication type. For example, the intended audience is listed in multiple columns as some periodicals appeal to numerous audiences. Thus, I placed the number of instances of each publication type and the intended audience within the intersecting cell. An outlined cell denotes the dominant media form used to target each intended audience.

Table 9: Publication Type and Audience of edTPA Media (2010-2014)

	Audience					
	Developer	Policymaker	General	Student Teacher	Teacher	Teacher Educator
National Newspaper	0	2	10	0	0	2
Regional Newspaper	0	2	22	1	0	5
Radio/ Television	0	0	5	0	0	0
Education Periodical	4	20	0	2	3	24
Campus Publication	0	0	1	6	0	1
Online Blogs	1	16	11	2	4	20

Table 9 revealed a logical connection between the author's background and the medium used (e.g. policymakers utilizing education periodicals). Of note, however, was the use of blogs to chronicle edTPA's development and implementation. As shown above, blogs were used by every identifiable stakeholder- the only type of media to be used in this way. Given the informal and unencumbered nature of blog publishing, the articles within these categories contained the most personal and sometimes visceral reactions to edTPA, as demonstrated later in this chapter. Content varied within these articles, with some focused mainly on descriptions of the assessment itself and its impact on their institution. Articles targeting policymakers, teacher educators, teacher candidates, and teachers were split in tone and viewpoint. While some focused on personal impressions of the edTPA in a positive manner, many more articulated significant implementation shortcomings and its impact on the field.

Although these articles' content is analyzed later in this chapter, it is important to note that together, these two tables illustrate a bifurcated media "conversation"

surrounding edTPA. Developers and policymakers utilized the mainstream media to promote their generally positive depiction of edTPA. However, teacher educators' and student teachers' opinions occurred within lower-circulation media, namely campus publications and blogs. The lack of teacher educators and student teachers who authored pieces in the mainstream media may reflect their overall lack of power. According to van Dijk (2008), mainstream media reflects the views of those in positions of power, as evidenced by the preponderance of developers' and policymakers' viewpoints within newspapers, radio, television, and education periodicals with national circulation. Regarding so-called neutral articles, such as ones authored by general assignment reporters, according to Stone (2002), the appearance of neutrality is a falsehood as every name, action, and policy has an underlying meaning. "Facts do not exist independent of interpretive lenses, and they come clothed in words and numbers" (p. 307). Therefore, how edTPA is presented- even with a so-called neutral stance is a deliberate act, and every article should be analyzed to understand its real intent. Analysis indicated that these so-called 'neutral' articles were generally positive, reflecting edTPA developers' viewpoint who want to support continued use and influence of the instrument.

As Table 8 and 9 illustrate, online blogs and student-produced campus publications, which are arguably the most democratic form of media, most often captured teacher educators and student teachers' viewpoints. These stakeholders spoke to their own group: student teachers addressed student teachers, and teacher educators addressed teacher educators. As I show in the next section, these on-the-ground viewpoints generally portrayed edTPA in a more negative light than mainstream media. Despite this opposing viewpoint, they utilize similar framing and harbor similar ideologies as

113

mainstream media articles that were in favor of edTPA. As discussed in Chapter Three, this exemplifies Stone's belief that within the polis or 'political state', there are 'contested terrains' containing multiple interpretations of the same goal (Stone, 2002).

The Language of edTPA Policy Discourse

As discussed in Chapter Two, the Politics of Policy Framework (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013) aligns with the idea that policy production and implementation are complex, iterative, and interrelated (Etzioni, 1967; Datnow & Park, 2009). Instead of a linear process, the development and implementation of edTPA reflected the contested terrain of preservice teacher assessment, teacher quality debates, and the viewpoints of the teacher educators and administrators charged with implementation. As such, this framework provided a nuanced way to understand the Massachusetts edTPA pilot from the perspective of educator preparation organizations. Although the voices, opinions, and understandings of the teacher educator participants in the Massachusetts edTPA pilot are analyzed and discussed in Chapter Five, it is important to unpack and understand the general milieu in which Massachusetts teacher educators formed their opinions about the instrument.

A major role of the media is to document, report on, and critique the policies and people surrounding events, not only to preserve for the record the significant basic aspects of events such as the people involved and when events occurred, but more importantly, to capture and preserve the salient ideologies that shape events (Goffman, 1972; van Dijk, 1995). Thus, media articles focusing on specific events provided insight into the overall experience as well as the overarching ideologies and policy goals that dominated the policy.

As discussed in Chapter Three, how peers' experiences and dominant public sentiments are framed, specifically how they are portrayed in relation to 'how policy goals' were highlighted in the media, influenced individual perceptions of the 'truth' or what was accepted as 'fact' (Lakoff, 2004). These interpretations were highly subjective; thus, single issues often had multiple interpretations by multiple actors. Along these lines, Stone (2002) highlighted the use of 'efficiency' as a highly contested term when discussing specific policy actions. Although there was general agreement that 'efficiency' focused on getting the most out of something, how 'efficiency' is achieved, measured, and utilized are all points of potential disagreement. As Stone pointed out, one person's interpretation of an "efficient" library may privilege holding the maximum number of books in its collection. In contrast, another person may interpret efficiency as the number and variety of programs a library offers to the community. Given these understandings, these two people, although in agreement on the definition of "efficiency," can interpret the "efficiency" of a local library in entirely different ways.

This suggests that central to understanding the environment in which the Massachusetts edTPA pilot was enacted is to understand the "policy goals" (Stone, 2002) that permeated discussions within and among members of the teacher education community. Stone (2002) defined policy goals as "central tenet(s) of modern policy analysis…they are often evoked as justification for a policy, for a government action, or for the government's not taking action. They are also used as criteria for evaluating public programs [and] function as standards against which programs are assessed" (p. 37). Stone identified four central concepts in policy production and implementation: efficiency, equity, security, liberty and suggested that at the fundamental level, these

goals had to do with the purposes of policies as well as the discourses associated with the controversies and issues related to policy implementation. This included the justification of a policy initiative, the actions of various actors involved in implementation, and critiquing the policy itself.

As discussed in detail in Chapter Three, I coded all identified edTPA media items (N=114) using Stone's (2002) four general goals that dominate policy discourse. I reviewed each article to determine what the authors chose to spotlight and what they chose to ignore. In addition, I analyzed the words, phrases, tone used by the author. Together, these two analyses point to the dominant policy goals of each. The results of this analysis are discussed below.

How the Media Frames edTPA's Goals

My analysis revealed that across the popular media items about edTPA, there were three dominant frames that were consistent with Stone's (2002) general policy goals—efficiency, equity, and liberty. As described in Chapter Three, frames aligned with what Stone refers to as "metaphors and analogies". Stone defined these broadly as "symbolic devices" (p.138) that form the basis of controlling the imagery that influences policy implementation. Frames are somewhat broader in scope, however, because they shape ideas, ideologies, and actions. In the following section, I discuss each frame in detail and include examples from the collected edTPA media. Following each frame's analysis, I unpack the 'contested terrain' within that specific frame, a concept discussed earlier in this chapter.

Frame #1- Efficiency

According to Stone (2002), efficiency frames draw people's attention to the process or implementation of events, drawing upon comparisons to determine value. They highlight the amount of effort expended by an individual or an organization compared to the results achieved for that effort. In essence, efficiency is "the ratio between input and output, effort and results, expenditure and income, or cost and resulting benefit." (Slichter, 1947, p. 437). Thus they focus on cost-effectiveness, the absence of waste, and the productive use of time.

Fifty-seven media articles about edTPA utilized an efficiency frame. They tended to take up questions about whether and how the implementation of edTPA yielded a fiscally and/or procedurally streamlined and efficient process for evaluating teacher candidates' readiness to teach compared to the process states or institutions developed on their own. Media articles with an efficiency frame tended to utilize comparisons to promote edTPA and to disparage other methods. These comparisons were sometimes explicit; however, most often, they were implied. An example of efficiency framing was the letter titled "Assessment Holds Enormous Potential," published by *Education Week.* Within this open letter to the education community, Renee Middleton, Dean of the Patterson College of Education at Ohio University, argued that edTPA had positively impacted her institution. She used an efficiency frame to promote the new instrument and allayed any uncertainty harbored by administrators, teacher educators, teacher candidates, and the general public.

> Why not the edTPA? A standardized, national teacher-preparation quality
> assessment, which the edTPA promises to be, holds enormous potential
> for educational reform by normalizing the preparation assessment of
> young teachers. It is already driving collaborations that will raise the bar

117

and help us provide the best preparation possible while simultaneously addressing cost. (2013, p.25).

This passage focused very effectively on efficiency by drawing upon two examples of how edTPA is superior to previously used forms of preservice teacher evaluation. First, Middleton highlighted the "enormous potential for education reform by normalizing the preparation assessment of young teachers." This implied that current and prior forms of preservice teacher assessment need "reform" and "normalizing". The second aspect of efficiency framing was contained a bit later in the passage. When Middleton stated that edTPA would "help us provide the best preparation possible while simultaneously addressing cost," she implied that the significant costs associated with high-quality assessments like edTPA were worth the money and compared to other options, and that edTPA was best suited to address costs.

Specific issues taken up with efficiency frames in the media articles included both the cost and efficiency of hiring outside scorers and the time and money spent utilizing edTPA versus any new state-developed assessments, which were implied to be costly. In terms of these issues, the edTPA's fiscal efficiency was often used to argue its superiority over other preservice teacher evaluation methods. For example, in *The Citizen* (Auburn, NY), columnist Bill Balyszak authored one of many examples of articles that promotes the edTPA as a way to streamline the evaluation of preservice teachers, thus saving taxpayers money. First, Balyszak touted the strengths of the edTPA over the previous method of evaluating preservice teachers, the New York State Board of Education's own Teacher Performance Assessment (TPA)."The edTPA should have been implemented years ago…some teachers don't know how to teach and shouldn't be in a classroom --

which is why the edTPA was implemented" (Balyszak, 2014, p. 15). Once edTPA's superiority was asserted, he directly addressed the implied audience of taxpayers by focusing on the costs of a delayed implementation. Specifically, he argued that "postponing the implementation of this teacher bar exam is a costly educational mistake- for our students, all new teachers, and New York's educational system… It's your money" (Balyszak, 2014, para. 16). Here, Balyszak's fiscal efficiency frame was clearly in use, highlighting that any delay in adopting the assessment would waste taxpayers' money.

Efficiency Frame—Contested Terrain

As Stone (2002) asserted, "efficiency is always a contested concept" (p.65). While there is general unanimity on the definition of efficiency, applying the concept to a particular policy, such as edTPA, is always a source of disagreement. Any advocacy of one particular application of efficiency is infused with assumptions and personal biases. Potential areas of contestation in relation to efficiency goals include who determines the overall purpose of the policy, what are the determinant measures, what is the value of the policy, and who does it most benefit.

With edTPA media items, the contested terrain related to efficiency primarily focused on the benefits of implementing a policy requiring teacher candidates to pass edTPA. Whom does edTPA help? Whom does it hurt? Whose interests are served? Advocates of edTPA used the terms "alignment", "accurate", "reliable," and "effective" to shape their argument that edTPA can efficiently produce effective teachers. These arguments were well represented throughout the collected articles—54 out of a total of 114. For example, a teacher quality-focused article in the *Indianapolis Star* touted the

strengths of the edTPA. "[U]nder Tony Bennett's administration, the state department of education didn't take up edTPA, local educators say. But count current Indiana superintendent of public instruction Glenda Ritz among edTPA's supporters. She sees edTPA as an opportunity to raise Indiana's teaching standards to align with common national benchmarks an opportunity, perhaps, to push more teachers toward national certification." (Wang, 2013)

Interestingly, however, opponents of edTPA also utilized the efficiency frame to challenge the tool, although they did so much more infrequently. Within the 114 article corpus, 34 argue that edTPA, as a standardized national exam, did not allow for innovation or creativity in the teacher education classroom. For example, Illinois undergraduate teacher candidate Nick Ulferts utilized this argument to protest against his required use of edTPA.

> The other concern I have is the effect it will have on college classrooms. Just like standardized testing in schools where teachers 'teach to the test,' I am concerned that college education courses will now be more focused on preparing students for passing the edTPA. Due to the high stakes nature of the test, it is reasonable to assume that preparation for it will soon become a significant aspect of education courses. This could replace other, more innovative lessons and would overall decrease the quality of education classes." (Ulferts in Petrovich, 2013).

Here, Ulferts argued that the standardization inherent in edTPA, while efficient, had the potential to inhibit his university's ability to develop and implement creative and innovative teacher education courses.

Frame #2- Equity

Unlike efficiency frames, which make effort-focused comparisons to determine value, equity frames focus on the concept of distributions. According to Stone (2002),

"Distributions- whether of goods and services, wealth and income, health and illness, or opportunity and disadvantage- are at the heart of public policy controversies" (p. 39). Equity frames frequently focus on fairness, albeit what is seen as 'fair' highly contested. To illustrate this, Stone described the difficulty in distributing cake to her public policy class. Although the amount of the cake is finite, how to equally distribute the cake is highly contested. While some are happy with dividing up the cake by the number of students present in the class, others see this solution as unfair because it may leave out those absent that day. A different subset of students may be upset because it is unjust to those who earn higher grades. These students would argue that cake distribution should be performance-based. At the root of this example, Stone demonstrated for every policy action intended to distribute service and goods evenly, there is always a group that will perceive the solution as inherently unfair.

Within the 114 articles included within this analysis, 51 articles utilized an equity frame in their discussions of edTPA. These articles either overtly discussed equity or take an inferred approach, focusing on whether or not edTPA implementation was impacted by equal or unequal 'distributions' as defined by Stone (2002). The media articles that used equity focused on a specific aspect of the evaluation and used this lens to compare its impact on one or more types of stakeholders. An example of this is in a 2015 *Education Week* article penned by SCALE's Ray Pecheone, an architect of edTPA. In advocating for the adoption of edTPA by the New York State Board of Education, Pecheone stated that teachers' unions supported "high standards for teaching and a "bar exam" that defines professional standards and ensures equitable treatment for all candidates entering the profession. The edTPA performance assessment adopted in New

York was developed by educators, for educators, to evaluate a candidate's readiness to teach on his or her first day" (Pecheone & Robinson, 2015, p. 28). Here, Pecheone and Robinson argued that edTPA had the capacity to level the playing field no matter where teacher candidates were prepared because the instrument "ensures equitable treatment for all candidates" via strongly defined professional standards.

In addition to focusing on the equitable conditions created by edTPA's well defined professional standards, other articles utilized an equity frame to highlight the impact on teacher candidate support or equitable program comparisons. For example, in an *Indianapolis Star* article that focused on edTPA implementation in Indiana, Indiana State University School of Education Dean Brad Balch used an equity frame to support state adoption of edTPA. "Widespread use of the assessment could open a trove of valuable data on teacher candidates that education colleges don't have right now. Colleges could cull data on how prepared Indiana candidates are compared to other states and hold their programs accountable for their performance" (Wang, 2013). Here, Dean Balch highlighted his institutions' lack of access to "valuable data" on teacher candidates. If such data were available, meaningful comparisons could be made between teacher candidates across state lines and teacher education programs could be held equitably accountable for the quality of their preparation.

The majority of the articles using this frame supported edTPA, consistently highlighting the equity that the standardization of evaluation measures could provide.

Equity Frame—Contested Terrain

The central concept in the equity frame was its focus on fairness. Fairness is universally understood across populations, and unfairness frequently sparks widespread visceral and emotional personal responses. Young or old, most understand what it feels like to experience perceived unequal distributions of almost anything such as food, leisure time, or gifts. Despite the universality of this concept, how fairness is defined is subject to intense debate and disagreement. This is because how fairness is defined and understood is influenced by individual understandings and societal norms (Rawls, 1971). Thus, what one person deems as 'fair' very often is considered unfair by another because of a differing individual understanding of fairness. Moreover, there are differing understandings about who gets to participate in the distribution, the value of the item(s) being distributed, and how the distribution is to be conducted. According to Stone (2002), these are typically at the root of any equity-based disagreement.

Although most of the articles that used an equity frame were optimistic about edTPA, focusing on the benefits of standardization, there were some contested terrain concerning the impact of the edTPA on teacher candidates of color. Proponents of edTPA who utilized this frame argued that preservice teachers of color thrived in the level environment that standardized benchmarks and explicit curricula create. In the blog, *Teaching Quality*, author John Holland presented seven arguments why edTPA could "transform the teaching profession" (Holland, 2014). Regarding teachers of color, Holland argued that

> [edTPA] levels the playing field for teachers of color and teachers in
> diverse classrooms. By taking credentialing power away from traditional
> assessments, edTPA could strengthen certification opportunities for teachers
> of color (who have historically struggled on such assessments) and create a

more level playing field where performance is the measure of success. This is because edTPA is intentionally designed to be responsive to local contexts and diverse classrooms and makes learning context-specific. Teacher candidates who have experienced the crushing reality of historical and political racism (and whose schools continue to struggle against this reality) would not be judged against teachers who do not work with those same challenges (which include low-income students, limited access to technology, and high numbers of English Language Learners). Instead, teachers are evaluated within their own context, local curriculum, and level of preparation for their specific classroom and students" (Holland, 2014).

Here, Holland cited the assessment's responsiveness 'to local contexts and diverse classrooms' as a reason why more teachers of color would successfully pass the exam. To Holland, edTPA was more supportive of teachers of color because it evaluated teacher candidates within their own classrooms and with their own students. Thus, teacher candidates benefited from utilizing data captured within an environment that they know well. Specifically, data collection within a teacher candidate's own classroom counteracts structural racism inherent in more traditional assessments, which assumes a 'one size fits all' context.

Despite the use of the equity frame to promote edTPA use for teacher candidates of color in the media piece above, there were far larger numbers of articles that used the same frame to challenge the assessment's fairness. For these authors, universal standards are conceptualized as inhibiting teacher candidates who come from and work in diverse environments from being evaluated fairly. For example, the *Gotham Gazette* blog pointed out that the written requirements of edTPA could prevent a non-native English speaker from successfully completing the exam.

One reason that they see such an exam as disadvantaging people of color is that native speakers of Spanish and vernacular African-American dialects are at a disadvantage on written tests based on standard English because they often come from communities that are much more homogenous both ethnically and linguistically than

those in which other immigrant groups live, according to Nadelstern,
who adds: Speaking Yiddish didn't get you very far if you grew up
in an Irish, Italian and Jewish neighborhood (Gabor, 2013).

Another issue of fairness was the impact of the $300.00 cost to complete the
exam. Here, edTPA opponents asserted that the exam's cost could be prohibitive for
teachers of color who they argued were disproportionally from poor or working-class
backgrounds. "Student teaching assessments should promote opportunity for all
candidates. The edTPA costs candidates approximately $300, and with all standardized
assessments, it will be biased against Black, Brown, poor, working and immigrant teacher
candidates" Teacher Candidate Bias (2014).

Other articles highlighted that although edTPA might be consistent across states,
the cutoff score used to determine whether or not a candidate passes were arbitrary. In a
2013 Education Week article, staff reporter Stephen Shawchuk outlined the growth of the
edTPA across the country. Shawchuk highlighted concerns about the instrument,
including the potential impact on candidates of color.

> Meanwhile, many policy questions remain for states who plan to use
> the edTPA. Chief among them is whether to adhere to the group's cutoff
> score recommendation or go in their own direction. The setting of cut
> scores is a process that's as much political as educational: For
> certification, the questions include whether too high a bar might
> prevent underrepresented populations from teaching or cause a
> shortage of candidates (the latter is generally not a concern in the
> elementary field.) (Shawchuk, 2013.

As these quotations illustrate, equity frames were used to highlight multiple forms of
inequities inherent in edTPA, including privileging native English speakers, those who
can afford the cost, and students who traditionally perform well on standardized tests.

Frame #3- Liberty

A minor, however, not unimportant frame found in the 114 edTPA media articles collected for this dissertation focused on liberty. According to Stone (2002), liberty is defined as when "people should be free to do what they want unless their activity harms other people" (p. 120). Public policies that have a liberty frame focus on whether and when a governing body has the right to interfere with the actions of its participants. In essence, liberty-framed actions focus on individuals' rights weighed in consideration of the negative impact on others. They ask what are the harms, and what is the impact on liberty? Moreover, they focus on the concept of control. Who has control? Who wants control? Governing bodies, which include government institutions, and individual organizations and institutions, are frequently in tension with individual liberties as they decide whether or not the infringement of an individual's liberties supersedes the negative impact on others.

Negative impacts on others or 'harms' take many forms, including effects on physical and mental well-being and property. (Stone, 2002). These harms can be committed by individuals or groups and impact specific physical items or undermine underlying systems and structures.

Within the 34 media articles I identified as exhibiting a liberty frame, edTPA was described as a tool that either promoted liberty or inhibited it. Throughout these articles, the concept of liberty was implied; however, keywords such as 'freedom' and 'control' signaled that at their very core, liberty-framed articles focused on enabling individuals' ability to teach or improve the reputation and status of the teaching profession. Instead of utilizing either/or comparisons as an argumentative device as seen in the equity and

126

efficiency framed articles, for example, the edTPA *was* efficient, or the edTPA *was not* fair, most liberty-framed arguments present liberty as an incremental measure. In this sense, edTPA was not framed as something that *was* controlling or *was not* controlling. Instead, liberty-themed articles ask *how much* freedom/control/strength/status *was gained* by using edTPA or *how much* freedom/control/strength/status *was lost* because of it.

Within the liberty frame, there was a focus on strengthening the role of teachers as well as a focus on enhancing and empowering the profession itself. For example, SCOPE Advisory Board member Linda Darling-Hammond, writing in the *Washington Post*, used a liberty frame prominently in an early description of edTPA:

> This may be the first time that the teacher education community has
> come together to hold itself accountable for the quality of teachers
> who are being prepared and to develop tools its members believe
> are truly valid measures of teaching knowledge and skill. Unlike
> other professionals, teachers have historically had over
> the tests by which they are evaluated. This rigorous, authentic
> measure represents a healthy and responsible professionalization
> of teacher preparation (Darling-Hammond, 2012).

As seen in the above passage, Darling-Hammond employed the word "control' to argue that edTPA could help the profession empower itself to govern how teachers are evaluated. In this sense, teachers and teacher educators have the liberty to direct and/or influence who becomes a teacher and how teacher candidates are evaluated.

The *Milwaukee Wisconsin Journal Sentinel* highlighted another example of the liberty frame. This article focused on how the validity and reliability of institutional-level edTPA data prompted a shift in how the state department of education (Department of Public Instruction-DPI) evaluates the quality of teacher education programs within the state.

> For the DPI (Department of Public Information) the [edTPA] assessment will be used for continuously reviewing education schools. "This is a brand-new way of approving teacher education programs in higher education," the DPI's [Sheila] Briggs said. Briggs said that's going to shift DPI from being an agency of regulatory oversight and technical assistance to an agency that is asking probing questions of teacher-education programs that make them think critically about how to make their programs better. "We're not interested in jumping to decertify programs; we're more interested in identifying problems and helping them fix them," Briggs said. "Our goal is to bring everyone up." (Richards, 2012)

Here, a liberty frame is used to highlight how edTPA changed the state educator preparation evaluation process, enabling teacher educator programs to "think critically" about program improvement. In this sense, the edTPA is a tool of empowerment for Wisconsin teacher educators and administrators, providing them agency to shape their own programs. Moreover, it changes the balance power-relationship between the DPI and educator preparation organizations from one of oversight to one of support.

Liberty Frame—Contested Terrain

As with the other frames identified within this chapter, the liberty frame was used by both advocates and opponents of edTPA. In nearly every article collected, the contested terrain within the liberty frame was related to the concept of professionalization of teaching and teacher education. When related to professionalization, liberty has to do with who has the freedom to act as he/she wishes and who does not. Within these articles, other professions were frequently mentioned as a comparison device, highlighting professions with high status (i.e. medicine, law) in comparison to those in teaching, generally regarded as a low-status profession. It is important to note that high-status professions were portrayed as being in control, empowered to shape their profession, and to determine how members are evaluated. For example, in an April 2014 *Education Week*

128

commentary titled "Why We Back Performance Tests for Would-Be Teachers" co-authored by the executive director of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the executive director of the National Association of Elementary School Principals, the executive director of AASA, the School Superintendents Association, and the president and chief executive officer of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, the use of edTPA was purported to have the power in ways similar to the use of assessments in medicine and law.

> During a recent teaching and learning conference in Washington, one high school student talked about why he wanted to be a teacher. The student, who was taking part in a panel at the event, also shared what happens when he tells his peers about his career ambition. The standard response goes something like: "Why would you want to do that?"
>
> It's hard to imagine the same reply if the student were to say he wanted to be a doctor, lawyer, architect, engineer, or another type of professional whose career choice comes with built-in assumptions about the skills and prestige associated with it.
>
> As national representatives of, respectively, school principals, school district administrators, and teacher-preparation programs, we believe it is essential to our nation's well-being that the young man at the conference—and all future teachers—be lauded for their dream, respected for their choice, and successful in such a noble and challenging career.
>
> That is why we are coming together to endorse one of the most important movements to come to teaching in generations. That movement is the rapid and forceful support for performance-based entrance— via assessment—for prospective educators seeking a teaching license (Bartoletti, Connelly, Domenech, and Robinson, 2014, p.32).

Within the edTPA articles I analyzed, growth or loss of professionalization focuses specifically on the evaluation of student edTPA portfolios. By design, Pearson Education,

the for-profit evaluation vendor for edTPA, was contracted to grade most* of the edTPA

submissions. This arrangement replaced the more traditional practice in which teacher

education faculty evaluated and assessed candidates themselves.

With the liberty frame, the contested terrain had to do with whether or not

Pearson or local teachers were best suited to evaluate candidates. Those who support

edTPA argued that the national assessment could promote reliability in preservice teacher

evaluation and that the standardization of expectations allowed for universal high

standards. An example of this argument is articulated by Beverly Falk, professor and

program director at City University of New York's School of Education. Here she argued

that the rigor and the "uniform and impartial process" inherent in edTPA could promote a

professionalization of the teacher education field (2014).

> The teacher performance assessment — edTPA — has been developed
> by the profession, for the profession in recognition of the need for a
> uniform and impartial process to evaluate if aspiring teachers are ready
> to lead classrooms. As a former teacher and school leader who has
> spent the last 15 years preparing new teachers, I believe that edTPA
> is exactly what our field needs because it encourages, measures and
> supports the kind of teaching that P-12 students need and deserve
> (Falk, 2014).

In her use of the phrase "by the profession, for the profession", Falk signals ownership of

the evaluation process and alignment to professional standardization. The argument here

is that the conditions created by the use of edTPA's well-defined and well-controlled

professional standards would allow teachers and teacher educators to have the liberty to

control their profession and ensure high quality for the P-12 students they educate.

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* During the Massachusetts edTPA pilot, educator preparation organizations had the
authority to grade their own candidates using the edTPA instrument.

Some teachers and teacher educators, however, used the same liberty frame to challenge claims of professionalization in the preservice teacher candidate evaluation process. Some student teachers challenged the premise that a standardized assessment, which does not account for local context, would best promote strong teachers. This point is illustrated in this reflection by University of Washington, Bothell professor Wayne Au

> Several of my current students felt a professional split from the edTPA…
> Three have told me directly that they did not feel that the edTPA
> accurately reflected their teaching, and so they taught to the test by
> developing materials specifically and only for the edTPA. In an
> email to me, recent graduate Bethany Rickard said: The edTPA
> forced me to address historical content in a specific, scripted way.
> It was difficult to teach authentically while adhering to the edTPA
> guidelines. Instead of planning my lessons as I would normally do,
> I had to repeatedly consult a 54-page handbook to make sure that I
> was following the script. . .. The prompts provided by Pearson did
> not allow me to fully express my teaching philosophy. In the three
> days, I taught my edTPA learning segment, I lost a little of the joy
> that I find in teaching. (Au, 2013).

Here, Au argued that the inclusion of Pearson in the evaluation process deprofessionalizes teachers because it minimizes the amount of control teacher candidates have over curriculum, instruction, and assessment.

Teacher educators also take issue with the shift in assessment away from the local context. In a large number of articles (N=34), the perceived inequity created by taking evaluation responsibilities away from teacher educators was highlighted. Some teacher educators argued that the removal of evaluation responsibility is an academic freedom issue. For example, in 2014, the American Federation of Teachers passed a resolution criticizing edTPA. Specifically, they argued that the instrument standardized curriculum and "marginalize[d] the expertise of teacher educators" (Sawchuk, 2014)

Some teacher educators were even more forceful in articulating dismay sparked

by edTPA adoption. Many articles focused on an anti-Pearson/anti-edTPA protest started

by University of Massachusetts-Amherst instructor Barbara Madeloni. During this

protest, Madeloni supported a cohort of secondary teacher candidates in their refusal to

submit their edTPA scores to Pearson. As a result of this action, Madeloni was fired by

the university's administration.

In a Boston Globe article about the firing, Madeloni invoked the liberty frame to

draw attention to what she perceived was the crux of the disagreement about using

edTPA. "It's clear to me [that whether or not to implement edTPA] is an academic

freedom issue," she said. "It's about me speaking back." (Carmichael, 2012). Here,

Madeloni framed the policy as one that constrains her freedom as an academic, and thus

she had the right to protest against this infringement of her rights.

 Following her firing, Madeloni became a central figure in several blog postings

and general media articles about edTPA. While some articles were written by fellow

teacher educators or reporters, Madeloni herself authored several blog articles about

edTPA. In one of these blogs, Madeloni again utilized a liberty frame to highlight the

impact of edTPA on the teacher educator profession. "Across the country, faculty join

administrators in advancing practices that open the door for the privatization of our work.

The accountability regimes supported by accrediting agencies and professional

organizations have become entryways for companies like Pearson, Inc. to not only sell

their products, but to control our practices." (Madeloni, 2012).

Here Madeloni used the word 'control' to describe her lack of liberty regarding

edTPA. She argued that the instrument restrained her academic freedom to develop and

implement a teacher education curriculum aligned to her goals and objectives and assess her students utilizing the methods that she chose.

The Media within the Politics of Policy Framework

As discussed in Chapter Two, our Politics of Policy Framework (Cochran-Smith, et al., 2013) identifies not only aspects of policy production and implementation, it also unpacks the roles of the various stakeholders, contexts, and connections within a policy event. In analyzing edTPA national media within the framework, it is clear that the media, which captures the discourses, actors, frames and contexts of the national edTPA roll out from 2010-2014, contributed to the overall understanding about edTPA, including discourses and influences, as well as the construction of the 'problem' of teacher education aspects of our Politics of Policy framework. The analysis of each aspect is outlined below.

Discourses and Influences

Discourses and influences, as defined in the Politics of Policy Framework, are the larger contextual influences that influence policy production and implementation. They include the historical preservice teacher evaluation antecedents, major ideologies, influential policies, and national and global influences present during the pilot's implementation. The historical narrative I provided in Chapters One and within this chapter, as well as the 114 articles collected for this dissertation, captured many of these aspects. Specifically, I argue that edTPA emerged within a context of intense accountability and education reform. In 2010, when the edTPA was first conceived, teachers and teacher education were undergoing a barrage of attacks from both outside and within the profession, which included both withering critiques as well the

exponential growth of a powerful rival- Teach for America. Within the media articles I collected, there is evidence that low regard for teaching and teacher education was widespread. While some articles contrasted teaching with 'high status' professions such as medicine and law, others pointed directly to what they considered low standards and weak entry requirements to be a teacher.

Another important aspect of this time period is the proliferation of networked technologies and the growth of blogging and e-journaling. As evidenced by the number of online blogs and self-published articles collected for this study, during the 2010-2014 time period, which this dissertation analyzes, media coverage about edTPA was somewhat democratized. Although venerable national and education-focused media sources continued to capture the perspectives of influential advocates of edTPA (e.g. Pecheone, Middleton, Darling-Hammond), almost 50% (54 out of 114) of the media articles collected for this dissertation were self-published electronic media articles, and many of these provided perspectives from those in the field including teacher candidates and teacher educators. These new perspectives shed light on the fact that there were competing perspectives, goals, and agendas during the national implementation of edTPA. For example, influential edTPA advocates worked to directly address critiques from the teacher educator community by promoting edTPA as a method to standardize the assessment of teachers to 'professionalize' the field in mainstream media sources. As highlighted in Table 8 and Table 9 earlier in this chapter, other teacher educators, however, took to non-traditional media to either embrace the new tool and or outright challenge it. In fact, articles that included the most visceral and emotional reactions to the edTPA were generated by members of the teacher education and teacher candidate

communities to support and inform their peers.

Part of what this means is that participants within the Massachusetts edTPA pilot were undoubtedly exposed to the overarching negative narrative about their profession and multiple perspectives on the edTPA instrument itself. This context likely influenced participants, including their views on edTPA's implementation and impact.

Constructions of the Problem of Teacher Education

So far, in this chapter, I identified dominant discourses within the media according to how they framed the 'problem' of preservice teacher quality. Constructions of the problem of teacher education had to do with how the goals and objectives of the edTPA pilot were articulated, what strategies were used to leverage its implementation, and the major actors and influencers involved. As I show here, three dominant discourses emerged from the collected media- efficiency, equity, and liberty.

The largest grouping of articles constructed the 'problem' of preservice teacher quality as one of inefficiency. Article after article identified the lack of standardized teacher evaluation methods as a problem, specifically that the benchmarks from state to state are not rigorous, not transferrable between states, or both. Moreover, these articles frequently laud the financial gains to be had if the evaluation was standardized.

The second-largest grouping of articles constructed the 'problem' of preservice teacher quality as one of inequity. Here, the licensing and evaluation structures inherent in teacher education were critiqued as inequitable- between states, between schools, and between specific populations (e.g. preservice teachers of color). To these authors, the 'problem' of teacher quality was that too many good teachers are kept out of the profession by unfair requirements, thus with a fair assessment like edTPA, the overall

quality of the teaching force could improve.

The final grouping of articles constructed the 'problem' of teacher quality as the infringement of regulations and protocols on the best way to instruct teachers. Here, teacher education professionals' liberties were at odds with the large-scale structural aspects of teacher education evaluation. These included the influence of regulating organizations (e.g. state licensing boards), national teacher organizations and unions, and influential teacher education institutions (e.g. Stanford University) that sought to systemize how preservice teacher quality was defined, how it was measured, and the best way to structure educator preparation programs to develop high-quality teachers. Within these articles, the focus was on the professionalization of teaching and teacher education, specifically whether teacher educators or large-scale structural institutions (should) have the power to control how teachers are educated and evaluated.

Embedded within these discourses were 'contested terrains' both within the frames (e.g. efficiency, equity, and liberty) and well as between them. Examples of these focused on the concepts of efficiency in preservice teacher evaluation, the impact of the edTPA on teacher candidates of color, and the interpretation of 'professionalization' and how it was achieved. Each of these 'contested terrains' illustrated the diversity of understandings within the edTPA debate. Frequently, proponents of the edTPA had their own set of definitions, understandings, and justifications of these three concepts. In contrast, many teacher educators who opposed the edTPA implementation had completely different views. This illustrates a significant gulf between the different stakeholders in the edTPA policy implementation in understanding the policy's goals and its potential impact. More importantly, it illustrates that despite both sides articulating

their viewpoints with evidence and reason, for certain 'contested terrains', the stakeholders talk past each other and cannot meet consensus.

Trade-Offs

In addition to tensions within each of these frames, there were also tensions between them. Identified as 'trade-offs' by Stone (2002), these inter-frame tensions reflected natural and unavoidable tensions between policy goals. In essence, Stone stated that certain policy goals can only be achieved at the expense of other goals. Thus, which policy goal (identified by the prevalence of the discourses surrounding it) is preeminent is significant as its presence signals a potential weakening of any competing goal. Within the media articles collected for this dissertation, two major 'trade-offs' were identified: efficiency versus equity and liberty versus equity.

As discussed above, the efficiency frame highlights the amount of effort expended compared to the results achieved for that effort. Those who ascribe to an efficiency ideology value streamlining processes and rewarding those that achieve high results to boost motivation. However, this efficiency ideology does not always comport with equity because the most efficient way of implementing a policy frequently impacts stakeholders in different ways. For example, the developers, policymakers, and reporters often used an efficiency ideology in arguments describing the contractual relationship it has with Pearson to conduct all scoring. While employing Pearson promotes efficiency in scoring by standardizing the hiring, training, and evaluation of edTPA's scorers and alleviating educator preparation programs the financial costs of scoring the assessment, this standardization was in natural conflict with equity-framed arguments that valued the role the knowledge of local contexts that institution-based scorers could bring.

137

As stated earlier in this chapter, when liberty frames are used in policy debates, they focus on when governing bodies have the right to interfere with participants' actions. Liberty discourses focus on control and freedom, especially when it impacts individuals. The liberty ideology conflicts with equity ideology because those who ascribe to an equity ideology look to equalize experiences that are in direct conflict with those who value liberty. With liberty, equal distribution of resources may infringe on an individual's action because a necessary element of liberty is the unequal distribution of power. In general, the more liberty (i.e. freedom) a person has, the more power (and therefore resources) they possess. Thus, equity, which attempts to distribute power and resources fairly across the population, is in direct conflict with liberty, which values the accumulation of power and resources at others' expense.

Within edTPA policy implementation media, professionalization/ deprofessionalization arguments universally used a liberty frame. They all argued that it is important for teachers and teacher educators to have control over their profession, and that traditional teacher assessments used within educator preparation organizations allowed teacher educators and teacher candidates this "control". This concept of 'control' conflicts with edTPA advocates' arguments in favor of equity. Supporters of the edTPA valued the equity provided by a valid and reliable evaluation tool that is similar in stature to a bar exam or the medical boards. This equity created by a universal instrument is in direct conflict with edTPA opponents' liberty-framed arguments.

The media analysis within this chapter provides a rich understanding of the context, and stakeholders influencing the Massachusetts edTPA implementation. Informed by the Politics of Policy framework, the media analysis indicates that the

Massachusetts pilot is a product of its time—one with a significant focus on accountability and standards. Moreover, it reveals that there were multiple discourses present within the edTPA debates- efficiency, equity, and liberty- each used in different capacities by the multiple stakeholder groups involved. Not only did each of these discourses contain 'contested terrains' in which there is no agreed-upon understanding, these frames were frequently at odds with each other.

This in-depth understanding of the context of edTPA forms the foundation of the analysis within Chapter Five. Here, interview data from teacher educators and administrators from the five Massachusetts edTPA pilot programs were analyzed to unpack policy implementation at the institution level. When coupled with the discourse analysis in Chapter Four, the institutional-level analysis allows for a complex understanding of the teacher education policy development and implementation during the Massachusetts edTPA pilot.

Chapter Five

"We're trying to do the best we can…":
Implementation of the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test

As discussed in previous chapters, the Politics of Policy Framework (Cochran-Smith, et al., 2013) argued that policy production and implementation is a dynamic process—continually changing and evolving in reaction to a myriad of influences. The influence of media, discussed in Chapter Four, highlighted the pervasive discourses within contemporary newspaper articles and blogs, and how the "problem" of preservice teacher evaluation was constructed by various stakeholders. EdTPA discourses had a widespread influence—including on those who implemented the instrument in the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test.

Here in Chapter Five, the challenges of policy implementation are unpacked, spotlighting teacher educators' perceptions of edTPA policy implementation as they wrestled with their own beliefs about the quality of preservice teacher education and the consequences of adopting the controversial preservice teacher assessment. The data used within this chapter are 21 interviews collected from teacher educators employed with the five Massachusetts edTPA pilot institutions. Along with media analysis contained in Chapter Four, these interviews help answer what goals and problems surrounded preservice teacher evaluation within the national media, and how these discourses connected to the Massachusetts edTPA implementation.

The Massachusetts Terrain

As discussed in previously, the Massachusetts edTPA pilot implementation occurred in a unique setting. In 2010, when edTPA (then called TPA) implementation was in its nascent stage, the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary

Education was in the midst of revisiting the evaluation of its required full practicum experience for teacher candidates. The evaluation instrument that was in place, the Massachusetts Preservice Performance Assessment (PPA), required student teaching supervisors to rate student-teachers on five different aspects of teaching practice including curriculum and instruction (Standard A), effective instruction (Standard B), classroom management (Standard C), promoting equity (Standard D), and professional responsibility (Standard E). This tool was oft-criticized for its lack of reliability and validity (E. Losee, DESE Taskforce Meeting, February 4, 2014) due to the inconsistencies inherent in its design, most significantly the inclusion of multiple supervisor-generated open response prompts that were not attached to any specific indicators. Thus, scoring for each teacher candidate varied widely from candidate to candidate, supervisor to supervisor, and institution to institution. EdTPA, designed by researchers from Stanford University, a highly regarded institution, was based on best-practices in preservice teacher evaluation. As such, it had the potential to be a solution to the 'problem' of inconsistent preservice teacher evaluation practices across the Commonwealth.

In addition to the opportunity for the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education to replace a flawed measure of preservice teacher competency, Massachusetts afforded a high-profile location in which to pilot the instrument. As a consistent top performer in nationwide and international standardized tests, such as NAEP and PISA, Massachusetts is, and continues to be, frequently cited as the pinnacle of education quality within the United States in wide-reaching periodicals and journals. Thus, any press surrounding the implementation of edTPA in Massachusetts had the

potential to influence the assessment of preservice teachers and educator preparation at-large.

The origins of the pilot itself emanated from Office of the President of the University of Massachusetts system when, in late 2010, representatives from Stanford University, the creators of edTPA met with a cross-section of the Massachusetts educator preparation community including officials from the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education and teacher educators and administrators from all four state universities (Commonwealth University, Patriot University, Bay State University, and Colonial University). During this meeting, edTPA officials introduced the instrument and offered attendees the opportunity to pilot the instrument at their institutions to provide feedback to SCALE and the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education on its rigor and ease of implementation. As part of this pilot, each educator preparation program could decide the extent to which it would pilot the instrument. For example, institutions could choose to implement edTPA across all their teacher licensure programs or simply focus on a subset, such as elementary education candidates. Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education officials agreed to accept edTPA evaluations instead of the required PPA assessment during the pilot period, meaning that participating teacher candidates who met a specific edTPA benchmark would be eligible for endorsement for their teacher license. In addition to providing access to the instrument, SCALE would provide training and support regarding implementation. Satisfied with the amount of the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education and SCALE's participation, all four state institutions agreed to join the pilot in various capacities. Mayflower University, the

142

only private institution participant in the pilot, joined the project soon after.

To more deeply understand the Massachusetts edTPA pilot implementation at each of the five pilot educator preparation institutions, I collected interview data from both administrators and faculty to capture their responses specific to a) their institution, including structure, leadership, and organization; b) the genesis of their organization's participation in the pilot, and c) their role and responsibilities in implementing the pilot. In addition, I probed for participant's viewpoints about the edTPA and the pilot implementation process.

As articulated in Chapter Three, for this study, I utilized a snowball sampling technique (Atkinson & Flint, 2001) to identify teacher-educators with direct experience of the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field test which resulted in 21 participants. Although job titles and responsibilities varied across organizations, I categorized participant responsibilities as either an administrator or faculty, based on the primary responsibilities of each participant. Participating administrators included two deans, two associate deans, four directors, and two program assistants. As defined within this study, administrators have limited or no teaching or student teacher supervisory responsibilities, rather are responsible for the day-to-day administration of the teacher education program. Faculty are defined as those who instruct, supervise, or regularly observe preservice teachers. Of the ten faculty members interviewed across the five institutions, there were two tenure track professors, one professor of practice, one adjunct professor, and five clinical faculty/university supervisors. For two participants, job responsibilities were equally divided between administrative tasks and teaching/supervising.

Table 10: Participant Job Responsibilities by Institution

Institution	Administrators (including deans, directors, program assistants)	Faculty (including tenure track, professor of practice, adjunct, clinical, and university supervisors)	Both (department chairs, program directors)	TOTALS
Patriot University	2	1	0	3
Colonial University	1	0	0	1
Commonwealth University	1	2	0	3
Bay State University	1	6	2	9
Mayflower University	4	1	0	5
Totals	9	10	2	21

The differences in participants' job responsibilities are related to the structure and the extent of the pilot participation within the institution. For example, tenure track faculty at Bay State University are responsible for many day-to-day administrative duties. There, the pilot included their entire program; thus many faculty from across the teacher education department were involved. At Mayflower University, however, administrative responsibilities are largely the responsibility of non-teaching staff, therefore, the pilot was limited to a small number of students and faculty.

The snowball sampling technique resulted in an uneven distribution of interviews from the five universities. Given the amount of data, both in the number of persons interviewed and the length and detail of each interview, findings, and conclusions within this study are made primarily from data collected from Bay State University and Mayflower University. However, despite having a smaller sample set, analyses from data

gathered from Commonwealth University, Patriot University, and Colonial University are included to support assertions and findings made from the larger case studies (see Figure 4, p. 81).

In the sections below, I provide an overview of each of the four major influences impacting policy implementation as well as a broad, cross-institution analysis of the data. Following this overview, I unpack these groupings more in depth, with institution-level analyses of each participating organization.

Context

The five teacher education institutions selected for the pilot provide a cross-section of the Massachusetts teacher education landscape. In Table 11, the five institutions are compared using five contextual indicators —school type, Carnegie classification, access to resources, setting, and size. These categories mostly align to major categories within the *U.S. News and World Report Best Education Schools* ranking—a well-established dataset comparing higher education institutions across the country. These U.S. News and World Report data (2018), highlight significant baseline differences in structure, funding, and physical context, as well as illuminate in a general sense, the financial and support capacity available to implement the pilot.

Table 11: Comparison of the Five Massachusetts edTPA Pilot Institutions- Context (US News and World Report, 2018)

Name of Institution	School Type *Public / Private*	Carnegie Classification *R1= Doctoral University- Very high research activity* *R2= Doctoral University- High research activity*	Access to Resources as measured by endowments *High= >$500 million* *Medium= $100-500 million* *Low= <$100 million*	Setting *Urban Suburban Rural*	Size *Small= < 7500 students* *Medium = 7500-20000 students* *Large = >20000 students*
Patriot University	Public	R2	Low	Urban	Medium
Colonial University	Public	R2	Low	Suburban	Medium
Common-wealth University	Public	R1	Medium	Rural	Large
Bay State University	Public	R2	Low	Urban	Medium
Mayflower University	Private	R1	High	Suburban	Medium

As highlighted in Table 11, there was variance among the institutions, most apparent in the setting (urban/suburban/rural). However, in general, three of the public institutions (Patriot University, Colonial University, and Bay State University) were very similar in access to resources, research intensity, and size. Only Commonwealth University had a larger student population, research intensity, and endowment than the other state universities in this pilot. The most significant difference was between Mayflower University, the only private institution, and the rest of the pilot institutions. As an elite, privately-funded research-intensive institution, Mayflower University was well situated to provide personnel and financial resources towards the edTPA pilot well above and beyond its peer institutions.

Leadership

Beyond contextual differences, there were contextual data that indicate additional structural similarities and differences between institutions. All five programs were accredited by the same state approval process and offered similar teacher education licensure programs, including undergraduate licensure programs, two-year graduate programs, and university-based one-year residency programs. Despite these similarities, the governance of each program varied from institution to institution. These variances focused on the differences of edTPA implementation responsibilities across four specific leadership roles: dean-level leadership, department-chair leadership, tenure-track faculty, and administrators. It is important to note that basic edTPA involvement was a given in all leadership roles, across all institutions-- especially with an initiative as significant as edTPA. In essence, all levels of leadership were informed of the most basic aspects of edTPA implementation. However, the information contained in Table 12 focuses on the varied <u>day-to-day involvement</u> of the Dean in planning and execution of the initiative, e.g., beyond the information that was presented as part of general meeting updates. High involvement indicates that participation in the day-to-day operations, such as interacting with key stakeholders (Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, Pearson, schools, students) and developing and implementing protocols. Low involvement indicates a general awareness of edTPA and its requirements, however, with minimal participation in implementation beyond broad policy recommendations. Another important point is that Table 12 represents features of leadership for edTPA initiative only, not necessarily how all policy initiatives are enacted within the institution.

147

Table 12: Comparison of the Five Massachusetts edTPA Pilot Institutions-Leadership

Name of Institution	Dean Level Involvement	Department Chair Leadership	Role of Tenure Track Faculty	Role of Administrators
Patriot University	High	High	High	High
Colonial University	Low	Low	High	High
Commonwealth University	High	High	Low	High
Bay State University	Low	High	High	Low
Mayflower University	Low	Low	Low	High

As seen in Table 12, leadership structures varied widely across all institutions. Regarding dean involvement, the level of involvement is most impacted by the research focus of dean-level administrators. At Patriot University and Commonwealth University, for example, there was at least one person at the dean level who identified as a teacher educator. These deans spearheaded the initiative both by representing their institution at edTPA meetings as well as weighing in on details of implementation. The opposite occurred at Colonial University, Bay State University, and Mayflower University, where deans, in general, did not identify as teacher educators. In these institutions, deans were aware of the edTPA and were provided regular briefings about the initiative; however, day-to-day operations were led by faculty and/or administrators.

Department chair involvement at the institutions varied as well, with department chairs highly involved in edTPA implementation in three institutions—Patriot University, Commonwealth University, and Bay State University. With Colonial and Mayflower Universities, however, the administrative staff largely took the lead, primarily due to the small scale of implementation (Colonial) or the size and expertise of the administrative

staff (Mayflower). The involvement of tenure track faculty was mostly dependent on the resources available to the institution. At low-resourced institutions (Patriot University, Colonial University, and Bay State University), there were a minimum number of administrators available to lead edTPA operations, thus tenure track faculty were tasked with the day-to-day implementation of the pilot. Commonwealth University and Mayflower University had more extensive administrative staff available with the expertise to take the lead on implementation; thus tenure-track faculty were primarily removed from administrative and supervisory tasks.

Coherence

Another general facet of the Massachusetts edTPA pilot implementation was coherence. In its most narrow definition, coherence relates to the interconnectedness between a teacher education program of study with requisite field experiences specifically related to a program's shared vision of teaching and learning (Grossman et al., 2008). In this respect, coherence is frequently connected with the term 'program' or 'program of study' and denotes a connected set of experiences that are "exchangeable, positive, and clearly shared" (Buchman & Floden, 1991, p. 66). Although research is limited in this area (Grossman et al., 2008, Tatto, 1996), broader, more encompassing definitions have emerged that reflect the evolving structure of teacher education programs and the expansion of stakeholders involved in the education of preservice teachers. For example, Tatto (1996), defined coherence as the connectedness to central ideas about teaching and learning across all aspects of a program, not only including teacher educators, but also the actions of administrators, university supervisors, and others. This connectedness is explicit in coursework, fieldwork, and all other learning

opportunities associated with a teacher education program. Hammerness (2006), provided

a more fine-grained definition by delineating coherence as either "conceptual" or

"structural". Conceptual coherence focuses on the concepts, i.e., ideas or visions,

surrounding a program. Structural coherence focuses on the structures, i.e., the logistics

or design. According to Hammerness (2006), real coherence is achieved when there is

alignment between the concepts that guide a program and the structures that support it.

Within this study, I use Grossman et al. (2008)'s definition of coherence, which

builds upon Hammerness's definition. Like Hammerness, Grossman et al. also focused

on the connectedness between the conceptual and structural aspects of a program.

However, they also included the degree to which students have opportunities to apply

what they have learned in the program.

> [C]oherence has a number of features, from the degree to which central
> ideas regarding teaching and learning are shared by faculty and staff, the
> degree to which learning opportunities are organized both conceptually
> and logistically toward those goals, and the degree to which program
> structures (e.g., courses, and clinical experiences) are designed to support,
> reinforce, and reflect those shared ideas" (Grossman et al., 2008, p.275).

EdTPA, as a performance assessment attached to completion of the full practicum

experience, aligns to Grossman et al.'s definition.

Within this study, interview data were analyzed to identify markers of internal

program coherence. Specifically, interview data were reviewed for comments about the

connectedness between the mission/goals of each institution (concepts) and day-to-day

protocols and procedures (logistics) of each program before the implementation of

edTPA. Institutions with the majority of comments indicating a strong alignment between

the mission/goals of an institution and its everyday protocols were determined to have

high levels of coherence. Institutions with the majority of comments indicating a lack of

alignment between the mission/goals of an institution and its day to day protocols were

determined to have low levels of coherence. Institutions with comments that did not

indicate either strong or weak alignment between the mission/goals of an institution and

its day-to-day protocols were determined are designated with a dash "---". The result of

this analysis is below in Table 13.

Table 13: Comparison of the Five Massachusetts edTPA Pilot Institutions- Level of Internal Coherence before edTPA implementation

Name of Institution	Level of Internal Coherence
Patriot University	High
Colonial University	Low
Commonwealth University	--
Bay State University	Low
Mayflower University	High

While there were some differences between program mission statements, in general, all

pilot institutions had stated missions focusing on preparing high-quality teacher education

candidates to teach with a social justice perspective. Data analysis indicated that two of

the pilot institutions, Patriot University and Mayflower University, had a high level of

coherence between departmental protocols and the mission of the department or the

university. In both of these cases, the coursework and assessments used within these

programs reflect the stated mission of each program. For example, at Mayflower

University, its culminating assessments required students to reflect upon teaching for

social justice within their classroom as well as complete an "Inquiry Project". Both

teaching for social justice and teaching with an inquiry stance were prominent features of

Mayflower's teacher licensure programs--highlighted prominently in course materials

and on their website.

Respondents from Colonial University and Bay State University commented

frequently about absent or ignored protocols or structures within their institution that

challenged their ability to adequately prepare high-quality teacher candidates. For

example, Bay State faculty member Silvio Fontana discussed a disconnect between Bay

State's methods courses and its summative student teaching experience sharing "I'm not

going to point fingers…however they [the administration] haven't got a clue… I think

there is a disconnect with what actually goes on in the methods classrooms or the related

classrooms and the expectations for the actual internship." (S. Fontana, 9.20.13).

In addition to identifying levels of internal coherence, transcripts were reviewed

to determine teacher educators' reflections on the ease of implementation as related to the

extent to which they had to change extant preservice teacher evaluation procedures and

protocols to ones that support edTPA. This analysis revealed how coherent the

implementational aspects of edTPA were with existing protocols. Below in Table 14,

institutions are identified as having Low Alignment, High Alignment, or Complete

Alignment/Adoption to edTPA. Institutions identified as having Low Alignment

indicated a significant amount of modifications needed to adapt internal procedures and

protocols to support edTPA. Institutions identified as having High Alignment indicated a

minimum amount of internal procedure and protocol changes needed to successfully

adopt edTPA. Those institutions identified as Complete Alignment/Adoption abandoned

their evaluation system in its entirety to adopt edTPA.

Table 14: Comparison of the Five Massachusetts edTPA Pilot Institutions-Coherence between edTPA and Extant Procedures and Protocols

Name of Institution	Ease of Implementation	Alignment to Extant Procedures & Protocols
Patriot University	High	High
Colonial University	Complete Adoption	Complete Adoption
Commonwealth University	High	High
Bay State University	Complete Adoption	Complete Adoption
Mayflower University	Low	Low

As indicated in Table 14, alignment between policies and protocols that had been in place before the edTPA pilot varied across institutions. Patriot University and Commonwealth University both used the Teacher Work Sample method of evaluating student teachers, an evaluation method is similar in many ways to edTPA in that it requires students to reflect on their practices using artifacts gathered from a demonstrated unit plan, thus they were determined to have high alignment. Mayflower University, however, had low alignment. Although its student teacher evaluation method was highly aligned to its inquiry and social justice focused curriculum, its portfolio did not have the same focus on gathering artifacts from a single unit plan. Thus, edTPA requirements were required in addition to its longstanding inquiry and social justice requirements. It is significant to note that that faculty within two institutions, Colonial University and Bay State University, jettisoned their prior evaluation method and adopted edTPA outright. In both these cases, faculty found that because they lacked robust operational frameworks before edTPA implementation, it was preferable to simply adopt edTPA implementation protocols in their entirety rather than modify assessments that were already in place.

Internal/External Accountability

The final general facet of the Massachusetts edTPA pilot implementation is the concept of internal/external accountability, a significant idea within K-12 education change literature, and transferable to educator preparation environments (Plecki et al. 2012). According to accountability research, three types of relationships are central to all education change initiatives-- educators' views of their responsibility, the presence or absence of shared expectations among individuals within institutions, and internal and external accountability measures (Wagner, 1989; Abelmann and Elmore, 1999). Internal accountability indicates ways people account for their actions within a school. Examples of such within an educator preparation context include submitting course syllabi, course evaluations, and personnel-related evaluations such as tenure portfolio reviews and annual performance evaluations. External accountability focuses on accountability measures that are sent to authorities outside of the school. External accountability mechanisms within an educator preparation environment include regulatory mandates such as state program reviews or national accreditation evaluations.

Within this study, I draw upon the work of Abelmann and Elmore (1999), and their assertion of a complex relationship between internal and external accountability within schools is driven by educators' personal responsibility to their students and the school. They state that educators' sense of personal responsibility can sometimes be shaped and molded, however, this can only be accomplished through the creation of a robust school-based culture that encourages shared expectations and collective responsibility. Moreover, they argue that external accountability measures alone cannot change educators' belief systems—they must be aligned with a culture of mutual

expectations to be successful. Most significantly, it is essential to highlight Abelmann and Elmore's assertion that even with strong alignment between collective expectations and the external accountability measure, success is not guaranteed.

Within this study, interview data were analyzed to identify the institution's internal accountability context, specifically individual responsibility, collective expectations, and the overall department accountability system. Those institutions with a majority of respondents indicating a presence of an internal accountability system were deemed 'high'. Those institutions with a majority of respondents commenting negatively about the presence of individual responsibility, collective expectations, or the program's internal accountability system were deemed as 'low'. In some institutions, only a few respondents commented on personal responsibility, collective expectations, or the program's accountability systems, therefore I was unable to determine the level of internal responsibility or collective expectations. Table 15 highlights the context of each institution's internal accountability system, identifying the level of individual responsibility of its faculty and staff, the influence of collective expectations within the institution, and the strength of each program's internal accountability system. I used a dash "---" for those institutions for which I was unable to determine the level of internal responsibility and/or collective expectations.

Table 15: Comparison of the Five Massachusetts edTPA Pilot Institutions- Internal Accountability Context

Name of Institution	Individual Responsibility	Collective Expectations
Patriot University	High	High
Colonial University	---	---
Commonwealth University	High	---
Bay State University	Low	Low
Mayflower University	High	High

Related to the presence of a robust internal accountability context is the environment to support external accountability systems. According to Ablemann and Elmore (1999), institutions with robust internal accountability systems that also possess faculty and administrators with a strong sense of individual responsibilities and strong collective expectations are best positioned to successfully adopt an external accountability system. Those with low collective expectations are not as likely to successfully support an external accountability measure. Ablemann and Elmore (1999) cautioned, however, that even if a fertile environment is present within an institution, success is not always a given.

> In a few cases, we witnessed principals and teachers engaged in some sort of collective deliberation about how to incorporate external accountability requirements into their internal conceptions of responsibility, expectations, and accountability. But in most cases, teachers and principals viewed external accountability systems like the weather—something that might affect their daily lives in some way, something they could protect themselves against, but not something they could or should do much about (p.41)

According to Table 16, the five pilot institutions varied widely in the depth of their informal and formal accountability systems. Accountability systems were robust in two institutions- Patriot University and Mayflower University, with faculty and administrators' comments indicating many examples of individual responsibility,

collective expectation, and efficient and effective internal accountability systems.

Colonial University and Commonwealth University had less uniformity in their

responses, with some respondents indicating a lack of adherence to collective

expectations and challenges to internal accountability systems. Bay State University

possessed the fewest internal accountability system traits.

As Table 16 indicates, given the strength of these systems, these institutions

possessed the most potential to support a successful edTPA pilot. Patriot University and

Mayflower University, with their robust internal accountability contexts, should have

been best suited to support edTPA implementation. Colonial University and

Commonwealth University, less so. Bay State University possessed the fewest internal

accountability systems and thus was the most weakly positioned to carry out a successful

implementation of edTPA. I used a dash "---" for those institutions for which I was

unable to determine the level of internal accountability context.

**Table 16: Comparison of the Five Massachusetts edTPA Pilot Institutions-
Environment to Support External Accountability Systems**

Name of Institution	Internal Accountability Context			Environment to Support External Accountability Systems
	Individual Responsibility	Collective Expectations	Strength of Program's Accountability Systems	
Patriot University	High	High	High	Strong
Colonial University	High	---	---	Moderate
Common-wealth University	High	---	---	Moderate
Bay State University	Low	Low	Low	Weak
Mayflower University	High	High	High	Strong

In the section to follow, the four major factors influencing policy implementation (Context, Leadership, Coherence, and Accountability) were analyzed to better understand how these influenced edTPA implementation within the five pilot institutions. Each institution's implementation of edTPA is initially discussed followed by an analysis of how each influenced implementation. Together, these analyses support a deep understanding of the implementation and impact of the pilot as well as highlight the cycle of policy development and implementation.

Institutional Analysis: Bay State University

Established during the social and political turmoil of the 1960s, Bay State University was conceived to provide opportunities to urban poor and working-class students of Massachusetts. Primarily a commuter school, Bay State University was a medium-sized university offering a wide array of undergraduate and graduate degrees in the sciences, humanities, nursing, and education (US News and World Report, 2018). Within the School of Education, teacher licensure programs were only offered for graduate students and were designed to be completed within sixteen months to two years from matriculation. Reflecting its urban location and its commitment to social justice, curriculum, and instruction within the teacher licensure programs focused on preparing teachers for urban high-needs districts.

At the time data was collected, Bay State University was frequently ensnared in financial turmoil resulting in several multi-year budget freezes. As such, travel and conference budgets were curtailed, supplies were limited, and class sizes were large. Despite these financial challenges, Bay State University had state and national

accreditation, and its graduates were generally well respected, especially within urban school districts.

Under the direction of a dean and a limited senior administrative staff (one associate dean, three directors), many of the program-related decisions were made within the departments by tenure-track faculty. Within the teacher education department, the department chair was more of a facilitator rather than a leader, guiding conversations regarding policies and attending to perfunctory duties such as room scheduling, budget assignments, and graduate student assistantships. Graduate Program Directors, who were tenure track faculty with both teaching and administrative duties, possessed significant power to shape their licensure programs. Because of the absence of a central administrative team, these Graduate Program Directors were involved in all levels of program implementation, including recruitment and admission. They also were responsible for the overall vision of the program and usually ceded their primacy only in cases of attending to state regulation or the rare intervention by the Dean's office.

edTPA Implementation at Bay State University

Representing Bay State University at the 2010 edTPA informational meeting mentioned earlier in this chapter was Dr. Robin Tanzen, a full professor in science education and Dr. Audrey Harlow, an associate professor and director of the elementary education licensure program. Together, they discussed information about the meeting to the education department. Harlow, was especially focused on bringing the pilot to Bay State University to provide the structure that was long lacking within Bay State University. Since she was first hired in 2007, Harlow wrestled with the structural shortcomings of Bay State University. Not only was the curriculum not aligned with state

regulations, there was a lack of strong internal leadership to help move the department

towards compliance.

> When I arrived here…there was really a lot of work to do. The
> program itself had not been aligned with the PPA even…the
> resources were very, very slim...So when I saw the edTPA, I
> realized you know I think this is something that can help us,
> leverage us to really get our program aligned to standards and
> also have a cohesive program. (A. Harlow, 9.16.13)

This lack of structure was echoed by some faculty, who did not have the will or resources

to change poor capstone assessment that had been in place. "We had a portfolio in the

School of Ed that was just crap. It was a crap portfolio" (A. Sanzone, 9.18.13).

Under Harlow's insistence, Bay State University teacher education faculty voted

to participate in the pilot, and Harlow was selected as point-person for the university.

"We began with the elementary program because…I was the person who started [the

edTPA pilot] and that was my program" (A. Harlow, 9.16.13).

Under the strain of a lack of resources, haphazard leadership, and an absence of

internal accountability systems, the Bay State faculty struggled to keep up with the

demands of Year One of the pilot (Spring 2011). Due to the prohibitive travel costs

associated with out of state trainings, only Harlow and Dr. John Thomas, a tenure-track

mathematics assistant professor, received direct training before implementation.

However, as was reported to be typical for tenure-track faculty at Bay State University,

Harlow and Thomas were saddled with demanding teaching, research, and service

obligations. Thus, developing suitable edTPA training sessions for clinical supervisors--

the people most responsible for the day to day supervision within the edTPA pilot, never

materialized. Instead, the Graduate Program Director of Bay State's urban residency

program, Dr. Amy Sanzone, assisted Harlow and Thomas with implementation. Sanzone,

who knew very little about edTPA, provided some limited yet ineffective training and

support for supervisors as clinical faculty member Candace Rivers reflected:

> When I was first hired, in that first meeting, they sent us all the, they
> put us on…the box. What do you call it… (laughs) the Dropbox. So
> that's where I got the information and then if I had questions on parts
> of the edTPA that they had to do, or on the Dropbox, then I would just
> email Dr. Sanzone and she would get back to me with answers…and it
> had the forms…we could download the handbook, some exemplars, and
> worksheets. And then they would periodically send, you know, samples
> of things that might help…that is pretty much what they did…We did
> have a workshop, I think, towards the end of the semester.
> (C. Rivers, 9.18.13)

Unfortunately, many of these SCALE-issued materials were delayed or unclear, and

Sanzone, Harlow, and Thomas were ill-equipped to support the growing unease among

Bay State University clinical faculty.

> It was a very rocky road because we were kind of learning while
> doing. And as teachers, you know. I'd been twenty-five years in a
> public school. You don't like to be not prepared, to be unprepared.
> That's one thing all teachers like to be prepared. So there was this
> feeling of unpreparedness at the very beginning…That was our first
> semester and it was a very stressful semester because it was clear to
> the students that we didn't really have a handle on it and it was clear
> to us, we were literally learning something and then kind of telling
> them something you know almost the next day. It was sort of an
> ongoing thing. So, we had nothing to draw on, no frame of reference
> to fall back on, no prior experiences or past practice to go on…It
> looked like we didn't quite know what we were doing, which was not
> the way we wanted to come across in a seminar at all. But we made it
> through you know, that was a really big learning experience for us,
> that first semester. (S. Munis, 9.18.13)

Despite this challenging first year, Dr. Nancy Lambert, Assistant Professor of

Science Education, joined Harlow and Thomas to lobby the department chair for

extending the pilot into a second year (2011-2012) -- this time with the Elementary,

Secondary Mathematics, and Secondary Science programs. Sanzone, who had been

recently elected as department chair, agreed to the expansion. "So Dr. Thomas and Dr.

Lambert, I think, wanted their students to do this TPA. Which they had heard about from

Dr. Harlow and the regular ed students because they were working with Elementary, and

I was fine [with it]. They wanted to do it, fine" (A. Sanzone, 9.18.13). Other programs,

including Special Education, Early Childhood, Social Studies Education, English

Education, and others either chose to wait for their peers' reflections or tried to avoid the

assessment altogether.

In Year Two of the pilot, which was by then being implemented in three

programs, some faculty felt that they turned a corner and edTPA implementation ran

much more efficiently.

> [T]he second year went a lot more smoothly and for students… We
> Had a much clearer plan for what we needed, what kind of information
> that we needed to provide them with, what kind of scaffolding we
> needed to provide them with to get both of the logistics to get the TPA
> done. Like in terms of coordinating with their mentor teacher with what
> unit they're going to teach and to get the cognitive work of it done
> the second year. It improved because of our experience and our
> collective reflection on that experience and because of our use of TPA
> resources. [We used] their website, Dr. Harlow attended more meetings
> and going to sessions at AACTE. All of those things helped us get
> better and better. (N. Lambert, 9.28.13)

However, many more faculty felt that the scant training materials and poor support of

supervisors continued to impact the quality of training of tenure track and clinical

supervisors.

> Later on, it's gotten more difficult because the scoring, in order to
> participate in the scoring, you now have to be hired… as an official scorer
> …I did not pursue that, but Dr. Thomas did. He was, I think, offered
> the position of scorer, but I don't believe he followed up on it because
> it was a lot, a lot of work for very little payback. I know that Nancy
> Lambert, our science education instructor has been contacted to apply
> to score edTPA, but I'm not sure if she's able to do that. It's an incredible
> amount of work for very little payback…So then I've been harassing, I
> would say, Stanford in terms of getting us some local scoring [materials].
> We really need some materials for that." (A. Harlow 9.16.13)

The [training] meetings were horrible. You know, there were a couple
of people who just didn't understand that two or three people cannot
talk at once during these meetings. So even when we have these meetings,
and when we did have the trainings, they just weren't useful. I went out
of there with a migraine every single time…it was just not an effective
array of meetings to attend and to learn from. (O. Nardone, 9.25.13)

Moreover, some felt that the lack of administrative staff to support pilot implementation negatively impacted the students' experiences who used edTPA. Dr. Oliver Nardone, a veteran urban educator and longtime clinical faculty member stated "I think the students in general…they were not happy with, shall we say, the administrators—the people who were supposed to be answering their questions." (O. Nardone, 9.25.13).

Despite the continued struggles in pilot implementation, Harlow, Thomas, and Lambert remained resolute in their support of edTPA and its potential. Sanzone, as department chair, decided that the parallel system of preservice teacher assessment in place, edTPA and PPA, should not continue. The bifurcated assessment system strained the already limited resources of the university with two sets of trainings, two sets of paperwork, and two sets of endorsement procedures. Thus, Sanzone decided that edTPA would be implemented across all programs in the 2012-2013 academic year.

...then I looked at it. And I said oh you know this looks pretty good,
Maybe we should do it with all of [our programs]. The supervisors
really liked it a lot. This was [going to be our third year] using the TPA.
So, well I still like the TPA, and I wanted to keep using it. And so the
second year we used it, and that's the year I became Chair. And that's
the year when I just made the decision that everyone was going to do it.
All regular Ed and everything. (A. Sanzone, 9.18.13)

Sanzone's decision to adopt edTPA had a seismic impact across all of Bay State University's teacher education programs. For the first time, graduate program directors were no longer responsible for core aspects of edTPA implementation, including

protocols, student support structures, records retention, and reporting. These responsibilities were now in the domain of a newly hired Director of Teacher Education. Moreover, the university invested in Taskstream, an online portfolio system, to facilitate student edTPA portfolio submissions and to provide uniformity in expectations and format.

The university's commitment to these structural changes continued even after the end of the official Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education sponsored pilot (2013). Although some pilot institutions chafed under edTPA implementation, Bay State sought to continue its use. As such, Bay State University received a special dispensation from SCALE and the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education to continue using edTPA on a year to year basis. Bay State University abandoned its use of edTPA only in July 2016, when the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education required all institutions to adopt its home-grown preservice performance assessment- the Candidate Assessment of Performance (CAP).

Institutional Analysis: Mayflower University

The only private university within the pilot, Mayflower University was a sectarian, medium-sized university governed by the strong social justice focus mission of its founders. It was a prestigious institution as evidenced by its perennial listing as a top 50 institution in annual U.S. News and Reports rankings (2018). Mayflower University had sizeable undergraduate and graduate programs that span multiple disciplines in the Arts and Sciences, Nursing, Social Work, and Theology. The School of Education was widely respected within the state and nationally, reflecting the high-caliber research of its

tenure track faculty and the rigor of its national and state-accredited educator preparation programs. Its teacher education program aligned strongly to its social justice and inquiry mission. This was evidenced in both coursework assignments and practicum experiences. The undergraduate teacher education program of study consisted of four years of coursework with multiple field experiences and practicums during the students' sophomore, junior, and senior years. Graduate programs were usually completed within sixteen months to two years, and student teaching placements occurred in a variety of contexts, including urban, suburban, and private K-12 schools.

Structurally, Mayflower University was highly centralized with a sizable senior administrative staff (dean and multiple assistant/associate deans), as well as an office that focused solely on teacher practicum experiences. Decision-making occurred at different levels, depending on the potential impact on the institution. At Mayflower University, the dean shaped the vision and direction of the institution with other deans/department chairs providing input and feedback. Within the various administrative units, directors or assistant deans made many day-to-day decisions, upon consultation with senior administration.

Financially, Mayflower University was fiscally sound, and its faculty and staff provided ample support. Both faculty and staff were encouraged to attend conferences, and resources were provided for high-profile/large impact projects, such as edTPA. Other forms of financial support came in the form of graduate student assistants or stipends for faculty members who lead specific initiatives.

edTPA Implementation at Mayflower University

Mayflower University's involvement in the edTPA was a result of a personal relationship between the Dean of Education at Mayflower University and Dr. Mitchell Chester, the Commissioner of the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education. Specifically, Chester urged Dean Bryant to participate in the pilot to provide feedback on the instrument and to join the cohort of state universities already signed on to the project.

The dean decided to participate after consultation with key faculty and marshaled the required financial and personnel support. Dean Bryant decided that the day-to-day implementation decision-making would be completed by the practicum office director, Sandra Manzelli, under the advisement of teacher education faculty.

The decision to participate in the pilot came as a surprise to many Mayflower University staff who were not consulted about the potential impact of the pilot on practicum implementation. While many administrators were in support of edTPA implementation, some were concerned about the strain it would place on their workload.

> We were not anticipating this invitation. We had worked quite a bit
> on our own version of the Pre-service Performance Assessment (PPA).
> We did not know that this was coming down the pike into Massachusetts,
> but Commissioner Chester approached our dean...and said, "We like
> you to participate in this study." With that, the dean walked in to this office
> and said, "Sandra, this is what we're going to do." He was eager to respond
> and support. His rationale was to become part of something that had the
> potential for really contributing to the literature around teacher education
> and assessment. It was a mandate on one hand but it was couched in the
> form of an introduction. We presented it to the faculty who agreed that this
> maybe an opportunity to have an influence on an instrument that was out
> there in California and in Connecticut, in different iterations. (S.
> Manzelli, 12.14.15)

> Initially, we were concerned with the timeline. It was very short. We didn't

have a lot of information on it, so there was complexity on whether we could actually feasibly do this, but it was more of a requirement that came through the Commissioner through the Dean's Office. That's how we ended up doing it. (N. Yirrell 4.9.13)

Unlike the organic implementation that unfolded at Bay State University, with individual graduate program directors lobbying the department chair for approval to participate, Mayflower's participation was highly structured with a limited 'pilot' (Year One) in the Spring of 2011 followed by a larger 'field test' during the 2011-2013 academic year. The Director of the Practicum Office, Sandra Manzelli, with input from tenure track faculty, outlined the Year One and Year Two experience, which required the creation of a special team to handle day to day implementation.

> As it was a non-funded mandate, the dean generously supported us. Once we looked at the website and saw what the expectations were and the level of commitment of time and resources to do a proper pilot, we requested some support and we had a doc student who was assigned to the project. She looked at the handbooks and some of the language at the time and became our sort of researcher to present her findings and recommendations from moving forward. (S. Manzelli, 9.14.15)

> The faculty that were involved in the discussion of which group we would target, they were involved in the discussion of whether they would do the PPA and the edTPA. How that piece would unfold. Then where it would be placed within the courses. Then what happens is it was turned over to a small team of [administrators] that were then working around the logistics. There was a faculty coordinator that coordinated those courses, the edTPA was going to live within and the idea was they would continue doing [our] PPA then we would then embed the edTPA within it. It would be one module within the work of the inquiry course. That team is the one that started to work with what the instructors would need, what all the components would look like, what permission forms were needed, what the liability things were, the privacy issues around recording, how much storage, all those types of things we needed. That's what we, it was really more of the logistics and on the ground piece we were working on. (N. Yirrell, 4.9.13)

During Year 1 (Spring 2011), which Mayflower University staff called the 'pilot, Mayflower's initial commitment was to be very small, however, after some negotiations

with AACTE and SCALE, Mayflower University invited twelve undergraduate elementary education student volunteers to participate in their pilot. Administrators assigned asked each volunteer if they wanted to complete edTPA or Mayflower's enhanced version of the PPA. Six students selected edTPA and the other six selected PPA, and these students were assigned to mixed pairs in which their experiences would be compared. Data collected from the students' experience was used to guide the implementation going forward. Manzelli explained, "We were very clear. We wanted to have a clear understanding of what a pilot meant in terms of size and scope. We also wanted to be very clear that we did not want to impose additional pressure on our students because this was not going to be an assessment that was high stakes." (S. Manzelli, 12.14.15)

The elementary program teacher candidates were highly informed of the pilot, and significant efforts were made to support their experience. In addition to allowing them to select whether or not they wanted to utilize edTPA or the PPA, they also had the choice to focus on the math or literacy instrument only. "We trusted them to make that decision and to engage in professional discourse between themselves. We thought and we had some feedback on that as well." (S. Manzelli, 12.14.15). In addition, all pilot participants were provided support well above and beyond the extensive orientations they would usually experience. Manzelli arranged for "extra meetings, a lot of technical support... a lot, probably 24/7... [Mayflower also] had the support of the Educational Resource Center for lending cameras, for video-taping, for support for editing, and placing and uploading." According to Manzelli, the entire teacher education department and associated support staff "were wonderfully on board." (S. Manzelli, 12.14.15).

Despite the strong internal support for edTPA, the promised substantial supports from Stanford University and the edTPA organization never truly materialized. Similar to the frustrations felt by Bay State University faculty, Mayflower faculty and staff were upset about the lack of timely, usable resources available.

> AACTE sponsored at their annual events, they sponsored sessions with Stanford that were around the piloting process and what it entailed. However, it didn't give you beyond much of the basics of what the handbooks were looking like at that point with the broad-scale tasks were looking like. For example, the handbooks that we were given, they were in the process of being updated. They were in the middle of a revision from the spring into the fall, when we were supposed to be going into that pre-pilot. We didn't receive the completed ones until I believe October, to give you an idea. Things were constantly coming in a wave. (N. Yirrell, 4.9.13)

These external strains created an internal rift between administrators and faculty and revealed the differing ways faculty and staff viewed their agency in the process. In department meetings, Mayflower teacher education faculty frequently questioned aspects of the pilot. While appreciative of its stated objective to improve the quality of preservice teacher candidates, some faculty challenged the consequences of having an outside stakeholder evaluating Mayflower's teacher education candidates. Others disliked the deprofessionalization of the field and student privacy concerns edTPA introduced

> Just part of a culture of standardization that a lot of people at Mayflower are, I think, actively trying to resist. It really went from something really within the profession to something that seemed a bit more of a moneymaking tool connected to corporations that I think a lot of people on the faculty distrusted. I think that kind of scaling up, that kind of alignment, the alignment seems to have become kind of a sinister word, I think, in education for good reasons. (E. Newman, 1.15.15)

While these concerns were voiced by some administrators, others viewed the overall debates among the faculty to be a hindrance to the process. Administrators felt they had

mandate by the Dean to fulfill, thus the debate within faculty meetings frequently hurt

their ability to meet an already aggressive timeline. As administrator Ryan Winter stated

> I'd say that it wasn't the easiest process to implement. Because as
> Supportive as the Dean and the Practicum Office and the adjunct
> faculty ... specifically being the clinical faculty, the instructors, working
> with the student teachers... as supportive as those three groups were,
> the full-time faculty with the amount of resistance that they had to the
> concept of the assessment and the debates that they were internally
> having about the contents of the assessment prevented us from quickly
> implementing things. Especially when decisions were being made.
> (R. Winter, 2.17.15)

Despite this tension, faculty and staff worked together to support teacher candidates and

program supervisors. From an implementation standpoint, the pilot was viewed as

generally successful.

> `   They [the teacher candidates] worked it out. We were really proud of
> them. We did teach it as genuinely. I don't mean to say that we were selling
> them a bill of goods but we said, "You are contributing to a body of
> literature. You will be acknowledged at graduation and receive Golden
> Apple [award] for participating in a pilot study at the invitation of it,
> Commissioner of Education and the Dean of School of Education and
> it will give you something really rich to discuss in your interview later.
> S. Manzelli, 12.14.15).

Participants provided meaningful feedback that helped faculty and administrators shape

Year Two of the field test. Although implementation issues were primarily ameliorated

by the second year, most faculty and staff were not in support of permanent edTPA

adoption at Mayflower University. Specifically, Mayflower continued to have some core

implementation issues regarding the K-12 pupil privacy regarding videotaped lesson

requirement, the sending of student data to Stanford University, and whether or not they

needed Institutional Review Board approval for SCALE's research. Representatives from

Mayflower openly questioned SCALE and edTPA representatives at national AACTE

meetings and state-level Department of Elementary and Secondary Education meetings.

In addition to these procedural-type issues, faculty questioned the instrument within faculty meetings. Among their peers, faculty challenged the misalignment of edTPA to central aspects of Mayflower's mission and the program of study required of all its graduates.

> [O]ne of the strengths of our program nationally is around working with English language learners. We helped develop the original category trainings for the state. We also were involved in some of the new work with the state around what these new guidelines would look like. That to us, there was a gap there. They had a chance to go more in-deeply into looking at their own beliefs about teaching and background experience and then also looking at the background experiences of their students inside the schools. Not from a deficit model, really looking at it from cultural perspective. The ultimately relevant, go-to perspective. We felt that component was definitely missing. We also found that it definitely privileged from our perspective it privileged strong students, strong students who are native speakers and writing ability. We definitely found that we have obviously, traditionally strong students who present very well in their GRE's as we're talking about grad students coming in who have strong undergrad backgrounds. Again, if we're looking at this from a social justice perspective and to teach all teachers how to work with students, we felt that could be a limitation for students in the future. (N. Yirrell, 4.19.13)

By the end of Year Two, the Director of the Practicum Office, in consultation with the Dean and teacher education faculty, decided to not extend their participation beyond the original scope of the pilot, citing ongoing implementation challenges and a lack of alignment to its overall mission and goals. As a result, the apparatus set up to support edTPA was dismantled and by the start of the Fall 2013 semester, the original evaluation tool--a modified version of the PPA, was reinstituted across all programs. Mayflower University continued to use the modified PPA until the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education's release of a new tool, the Candidate Assessment of Performance (CAP) in July 2015.

Patriot University, Commonwealth University, and Colonial University

171

Three other institutions also took part in the Massachusetts edTPA pilot- Patriot University, Commonwealth University, and Colonial University, however snowball sampling led to a limited collection of data from these institutions and thus could not be considered as full cases. Keeping this shortcoming in mind, data collected from these three institutions indicate there were similarities across the public institutions regarding initial involvement and access to training. However, the implementation itself and participants' reflections on the impact of the edTPA was dramatically different from institution to institution.

Patriot University

During the dawn of the pilot, Patriot University was in a period of renaissance and rejuvenation. New academic buildings were appearing on campus, and the number of applications to its programs increased dramatically. The education department, always respected in the industrial city in which it was based, had a strong statewide reputation for the strength of its program. The teacher licensure programs were strongly aligned to the Teacher Work Sample model of assessment, which required teacher candidates to develop a portfolio that demonstrates candidate proficiency on several indicators focusing on lesson and unit development, standards-based instruction, informal and formal assessment, and reflection and adjustment of practice.

Structurally, Patriot University was helmed by several dean-level administrators, each with significant teacher education backgrounds. These administrators were prominent in state-level policy meetings involving teacher licensure, education program evaluation, and preservice teacher assessment, and held board positions in MACTE.

Decision-making in the pilot tended to emanate from senior administrators, with input from graduate program directors and respected faculty.

Patriot University's implementation of edTPA was highly structured, with a subset of the student population assigned to participate in the pilot. All tenure track faculty who worked with these selected students were required to complete either online or SCALE-led training before pilot implementation. To address rapid instrument changes emanating from SCALE, for example, the issuance of new student guidance 'workbooks' halfway during the Spring 2011 implementation period, Dr. Andrea Napoli, the Associate Dean of Accreditation and Assessment was tasked with ensuring that all faculty were aware of the most current content and implementation expectations. In this role, she provided up to the minute information about new workbook publications and provided interpretation and feedback regarding the latest DESE edTPA advisories.

Because of this steadfast focus on regular training and support, edTPA pilot implementation at Patriot University was mostly problem-free. Although some institutions challenged edTPA, SCALE, and the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education officials regarding data privacy concerns and edTPA's connection to Pearson, faculty at Patriot University were mostly complacent. To many, the edTPA was very similar in structure to the Teacher Work Sample in its structure and use of student data. Moreover, Patriot University Associate Professor Nadine Ellison had worked for Pearson and voiced to fellow faculty her trust in the organization.

To Patriot faculty, the most significant issue was the lack of leadership from the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education. According to Associate Dean Napoli, "The issues with privacy and uploading to Pearson, of course, have been a

stumbling block in Massachusetts, but my opinion is the biggest stumbling block is the state not making a decision on what they want to do. So we're all left to hang out here, and decide what should we do as an institution? And the state hadn't made a commitment to anything and I don't see a commitment coming from them." (A. Napoli, 11.27.12).

Upon the conclusion of the pilot, Patriot University reverted to a modified Teacher Work Sample; however they included a section on academic language—an addition influenced by edTPA. To Patriot University faculty, the Teacher Work Sample was simply superior to edTPA.

> The thing that we thought was better in the TWS was that they don't really analyze data in the TPA. In the TWS they actually have to analyze more of the quantitative and qualitative data, and really go behind what those data are telling them. We've found that it's much more of a reflective piece in the TPA, rather than…and yes, they have to refer to data, but we thought the strength of the TWS was really in that it demanded they present the data, which the TPA does not. (D. Arnold, 11.27.12)

Commonwealth University

The historic crown-jewel of the state university system had a long history of both economic strain and a lack of strong leadership. As a state institution, it, like other public institutions, frequently coped with budget shortfalls that impacted class sizes, teaching load, and administrative capacity. Like Bay State University and Colonial University, it had a robust graduate program director model of governance that decentralized decision-making within the institution. It is important to note that at the time of the pilot, Commonwealth University had experienced significant administrative strains at the most senior level of its leadership team. Just following the conclusion of the field test (2015), several senior administrators resigned suddenly without an official explanation.

The pilot itself was guided by a single senior administrator, Dr. Tanya Edgarton, who held significant clout within the Massachusetts Teacher Education administrator community. After hearing the presentation, she alone decided to participate in the pilot, citing its similarity to the Teacher Work Sample that they were already using. Edgarton identified four secondary students under her charge to join in Year One of the pilot (2011). These secondary students were off-cycle from the rest of their cohort, therefore fell solely under her direction. Despite experiencing similar challenges as other institutions regarding handbook distribution and uneven training opportunities, Year One at Commonwealth University went well, and Edgarton decided to expand its use to a few programs.

Year Two of the pilot did not go as smoothly. More and more faculty became concerned about the outsourcing of teacher educator work as well as whether student and K-12 pupil data were adequately protected. Faculty at Commonwealth joined with other faculty across the five pilot institutions to speak as one voice their concerns about the instrument and pilot implementation at state and national level meetings. Edgarton spoke with frustration about the experience

> We'd have conference calls with DESE [Massachusetts Department of
> Elementary and Secondary Education, Stanford, and Pearson and
> then they came out here. See the Stanford people came out here met
> with us, and each time they would answer another question but never
> to the satisfaction of this whole group as a whole. There was always
> yeah but, yeah but okay you know... I mean the state team which included
> the state liaison and talking to Stanford and Pearson and then we'd get
> another rendition for their answers and then Mayflower would take it
> to their attorneys and I think at one of the other public campuses would
> take it to the [their] attorneys, we're like we're not going to lawyer up...
> I mean we're going to do it or not and move forward. If the state makes
> the student, then we'll work with that. But right now you know, we'll do
> the best we can do with it. We're going to do what we can do, cause it
> was just being very time consuming and it was starting to get a little picky.

(T. Edgarton, 12.13.12)

In addition to the issues regarding the deprofessionalization of faculty and protection of

student data, a few faculty were upset that Pearson had contracted to complete the scoring

of edTPA. To Edgarton, the outside scoring represented larger concerns within the

teacher education community.

> I mean I think there are faculty who believe in that you know who
> don't like the corporatization of education but who believe well let's
> keep working through the field. You know let's do research let's do
> writing, let's make reasoned arguments to people. Let's talk about it
> you know. And there's a group of people who are like well you can't
> talk about these kinds of things you there's just it's different points of
> view that I think that, I there yeah there are a number of people who
> don't like the whole idea. And don't like the idea of what's coming in
> education, I mean the whole testing for accountability. I mean aside
> from the TPA being a good instrument, the reasons that we need to
> develop the TPA and how the data are going to be used. The whole
> idea of all the accountability you know at the school level and now
> being taken down to higher ed level. To rate the schools of ed. I mean
> I just came out of a data meeting you how all that's going to be used.
> That whole movement that people are rally against. (T. Edgarton, 12.13.12)

One member of faculty, Iris Akerley, made national headlines regarding her

concerns about edTPA. Within her secondary English methods class, Akerley discussed

her concerns about edTPA, including questions about the deprofessionalization of teacher

educators and its relationship with Pearson. These teacher candidates refused to complete

video samples of their teaching or submit responses to required essay prompts to Pearson

for scoring (Wintrip, May 6, 2012). This additional burden was too much for

Commonwealth administrators to bear. Not only were they not receiving adequate

answers regarding privacy and data use from SCALE, they now had to contend with

more and more teacher candidates following Akerley's lead and opting out of submitting

their portfolios to Pearson to score. As a result of these pressures, Commonwealth

administrators allowed students to decide whether or not to submit to Pearson for scoring

or have their scores evaluated in house.

> When we kept getting these back and forths...So when [the protests] started
> all happening at the same time we needed to get it implemented. So on our
> campus we said ok, the state isn't going to give us some consent form
> [and] faculty decided they weren't going to do it because they wanted to
> protest in some way. Which they did. They didn't want to do it. So... let's
> just give students a choice then. (T. Edgarton, 12.13.12)

At the end of the rocky second year of the pilot, Commonwealth administrators

decided to continue with edTPA on campus, however, allow each of their 103 licensure

areas and specialty programs to decide whether or not to use edTPA or revert to the

Teacher Work Sample. Only one program agreed to continue with edTPA.

Colonial University

The Massachusetts edTPA pilot coincided with a tumultuous period within

Colonial University Education Department, culminating by being placed on probationary

status following an unsuccessful Massachusetts Department of Elementary and

Secondary Education program review visit. To Colonial faculty, edTPA offered an

opportunity to create and implement internal protocols that were sorely lacking,

especially those related to capstone assessment. Specifically, edTPA had the potential to

create continuity across all program areas where they had been none. Moreover, edTPA

provided an opportunity to meet data reporting requirements required as part of a

substantial federal teacher training grant they had been recently awarded. Their prior

assessment, the PPA, did not provide the validity and reliability of outcome data the grant

required.

During Spring 2011, six teacher candidates from their Master's program were

selected to participate in the pilot. These teacher candidates were placed in two urban

districts with the same university supervisor. Like the teacher candidates in the other pilot institutions, Colonial students experienced some implementation issues focusing on technology and the release of information from SCALE. However, faculty and students here did not raise questions regarding data privacy or the deprofessionalization of teacher educators. These were simply not a concern.

In Year Two of the pilot, the number of teacher candidates grew to twenty upon administrator Suzanne Aguilar's decision to use edTPA as the performance assessment for their grant-funded urban teacher preparation program. Because of its alignment with a federal grant, money was now available to support extensive training, additional access to technology for teacher candidates, and the purchase of an electronic portfolio system.

> Our students actually felt supported...[and] for the most part they did well
> with technology. We were also able to pay our cooperating teachers. Yes-
> Cooperating teachers! Supervising teachers as well as our university
> supervisors [were allowed to] go to training for scoring. So three of us
> actually went off to Ohio with our State Department [Massachusetts
> Department of Elementary and Secondary Education] folks and
> a few of the other folks and we received full training on how to score
> the TPA in 2011...we came back and went through calibration
> activities and all kinds of stuff like that. Then, I was able to lead a team
> where we actually trained all of our cooperating teachers that were actually
> involved in this program, as well as our university supervisors...They'd
> participate in an eight-hour training with me and we staggered it over a few days.
> (S. Aguilar, 5.15.13)

Overall, faculty at Colonial University were positive about their edTPA experience and chose to expand it to all programs after the conclusion of the two-year pilot. Like Bay State University, they obtained a special dispensation from SCALE and the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education to allow them to continue its use even after state officials announced that the edTPA would not be adopted

formally statewide. EdTPA remained in use at Colonial until July 2016 when the Massachusetts Candidate Assessment of Performance was officially implemented.

Cross Institutional Interpretation of the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot

Despite sharing similar implementation experiences with edTPA, by Fall 2013, each university was on a decidedly different path. All were nationally accredited educator preparation organizations with a commitment to social justice and urban education. All were also incredibly taxed by implementation challenges, specifically the lack of training from edTPA/SCALE and the delay of implementation handbooks that were critical to day-to-day operations. Moreover, all were concerned with issues regarding student privacy, data privacy, and the belief that edTPA contributed to the deprofessionalization of the teacher education faculty, albeit to different degrees. Despite these similarities, at the end of the pilot, the outcomes across the five institutions varied. Within the next section, each influence (context, leadership, coherence, and accountability) is analyzed across institutions, thus spotlighting specific impacts to Massachusetts teacher educators' perceptions of edTPA policy implementation and the eventual outcomes. Given the number of interviews across institutions, my focus will primarily be on Mayflower University and Bay State University, followed by supplemental analysis from Commonwealth University, Patriot University, and Colonial University.

Resources Matter

Analysis of collected data revealed that Bay State University and Mayflower University were different institutions in many ways, including private/public status size, Carnegie research classification, and setting. However, these were not significant factors in influencing the implementation edTPA policy at each institution. Respondents did not

refer to the university type, research activity, size of the student body, or location of the school within any of the interviews. That said, access to resources was a factor in edTPA implementation in both these schools. Specifically, access to resources impacted the degree to which each institution could support students during implementation. For example, Mayflower University had significant financial support from the dean's office to implement edTPA on a tight timeline. It also has a large administrative staff in addition to access to doctoral students to assist with edTPA implementation. As such, faculty primarily focused on research and teaching while the administrative staff focused solely on edTPA implementation. In addition, Mayflower University has access to significant technology and video resources in its resource library allowed its students to receive substantive training and individualized support on videotaping their demonstration lessons. The end result was a relatively problem-free implementation.

Bay State University, however, was significantly hindered throughout the pilot process by a lack of administrative support personnel and technology. At Bay State, there wasn't an extensive network of professional staff to assist with policy implementation. Therefore, practicum initiatives, such as the edTPA pilot, were add-on responsibilities, heaped on to an already strained faculty work-load filled with teaching, research, and service. Bay State students also felt the impact of poor financial support of the pilot, evidenced by limited access to video recorders and minimal training on how best to videotape their lessons.

Analysis of data within Patriot, Commonwealth and Colonial Universities further highlight the impact of resources as a significant factor in policy implementation. As identified in the earlier analysis of Mayflower University and Bay State University data,

university type, research activity, size of the student body, or location of the school had little influence on edTPA implementation. This is likely due to prescriptive state-level accreditation regulations that prevented any wide variances between programs. However, financial and personnel support did make a difference. For example, interview data from Colonial University, a low-resource institution, indicated the necessity of additional funding to assist in implementation. It was only because of the fortunate timing of a federal teacher training grant that Colonial was able to provide its students with the training and technology needed to effectively implement the edTPA.

Power of Effective Leaders and an Effective Organizational Structure

Beyond resource disparities as a major influence on edTPA implementation at Massachusetts edTPA pilot institutions, was the leadership skill of individual faculty and administrators. The Mayflower University initiative was helmed by Sandra Manzelli, the venerable Director of Practicum Partnerships, with the assistance of a dedicated professional staff of associate directors, assistant directors, and doctoral students. The longtime director wielded significant influence in state education preparation policy and school partnership circles and as such, had wide latitude within Mayflower on day-to-day edTPA pilot operational decisions. In Mayflower's decision-making schema, tenure-track faculty were relatively removed from edTPA implementation, thus allowing them to focus on teaching, research, and service responsibilities. This was, generally, a streamlined way to support edTPA policy implementation and enabled Manzelli to create and implement an instrument that combined edTPA with its preexisting evaluation tool— something that was done with great efficacy.

At Bay State University, leadership was more diffused, with Department Chair Amy Sanzone and Graduate Director Audrey Harlow taking the lead. Unlike Manzelli, neither Sanzone or Harlow had an extensive background in practicum implementation and thus the edTPA roll out was severely hampered by missing or deficient basic aspects of practicum policy implementation, such as the lack of training of student teaching supervisors and a lack of clarity regarding accounting and submission procedures. Moreover, a decentralized graduate program director organizational structure placed an overwhelming burden on Bay State University faculty and as such, allowed for little opportunity for the faculty to debate the broader impacts of edTPA on the profession, as Mayflower professors had. Although aware of the larger concerns regarding deprofessionalization and data privacy that was pervasive in the media, Bay State professors, like Nancy Lambert, instead chose to focus on the practicalities of the teacher candidate evaluation tool. To faculty like Dr. Lambert, edTPA held great promise—one that could provide Bay State University with structures they desperately needed but did not have time to develop. Thus, it wasn't in her best interest to challenge the tool. Overall, the lack of knowledge of practicum operations, coupled with the lack of pushback, spurred Sanzone to adopt edTPA outright. It was simply easier to conform to the edTPA protocols as is, rather than to adapt or modify their own preservice teacher assessment.

Data from the other universities also further supports the influence of leadership and department organization on edTPA pilot outcomes. The pilot at Commonwealth University, Patriot University, and Colonial University was highly centralized and led by longtime teacher education faculty and administrators with deep roots in-state teacher

education policy and practicum implementation circles. These faculty and administrators valued their connections to the Massachusetts teacher education community and used these inter-organizational relationships to weather implementation challenges and provide targeted responses to implementation challenges. Similar to Mayflower University, the pilot in these institutions were designed prior to implementation, rather than left to organically develop as it had at Bay State University. Moreover, Commonwealth, Patriot, and Colonial faculty and administrators drew upon their longstanding expertise of practicum implementation and connections with other pilot institutions to pivot quickly to address issues, such as creating focused training protocols in the absence of Pearson-provided opportunities (Patriot) or designing small scale/off cycle pilots so the its demands would not overload university capacity (Commonwealth & Colonial).

Lack of Internal Coherence as an Impetus for Change

When analyzing the role of coherence, or the connectedness between the goals and objectives of a program with its day-to-day operations, an institution's coherence or lack thereof, had some influence on the outcome of the edTPA pilot. Before the Massachusetts edTPA pilot, Mayflower University had a high level of internal coherence. In interview data, faculty and staff alike frequently remarked about the importance of two of the central pillars of the licensure programs: teaching for social justice and teaching with an inquiry stance. More importantly, study participants provided several examples of how these stated goals were operationalized within the program. For example, not only did all full practicum students take an inquiry-focused capstone class; they also experience a social-justice focused program of study requiring students to take multiple diversity-focused classes and complete prepracticum or full practicum experiences in

economically, linguistically, and/or racially diverse schools. Most emblematic of this commitment to a robust central mission was the use of the Mayflower University Preservice Performance Assessment. This tool adapted the required state PPA by adding on several additional indicators focused on teaching for social justice and teaching with an inquiry stance. The assessment was cumbersome for staff to implement and time-consuming for teacher candidates to complete, however, faculty and staff alike valued its alignment to the mission and goals of the teacher education program.

The high level of coherence within Mayflower's preservice teaching assessment and university goals changed significantly once the edTPA field test was launched in the Spring of 2011. Although edTPA's objective of measuring teacher quality was voiced by Mayflower University faculty and staff, in general, they felt that edTPA lacked a robust connection to the program's twin goals of teaching for social justice and teaching with an inquiry stance. Moreover, some faculty and staff felt that the edTPA was discriminatory to marginalized pupils and teacher candidates to whom faculty and staff were committed to helping. For example, some faculty challenged edTPA's lack of focus on multi-language learners, while others were critical of its dependence on written reflections on videotaped lessons, both of which were seen as inequitable to non-native English speakers and those without access to recording or editing equipment.

In addition, edTPA was viewed as constraining by some faculty and staff. As reflected in the modified PPA, it was de rigueur for Mayflower University staff to adapt program elements to suit its goals and contexts. The pilot forced the use of edTPA, an instrument conceived out of state by those not familiar with the program. Thus, it was deemed as an interloper, unable to capture elements essential to Mayflower's identity.

For the assessment to work, significant changes had to be made to align it to longstanding practicum office policies and procedures. Sandra Manzelli, the director of the practicum office, attempted to rectify the mismatch between the conceptual and procedural aspects of Mayflower's programs and edTPA by layering edTPA requirements onto extant Mayflower PPA requirements. In essence, Mayflower pilot participants completed two parallel preservice assessments—the edTPA as prescribed by Pearson as well as the Mayflower practicum portfolio and a capstone inquiry assignment requirement. Although Manzelli's solution met both edTPA pilot expectations and program expectations, the combined assessment was much lengthier and more inefficient to administer and evaluate.

At Bay State University, the level of coherence both prior and after edTPA implementation was very different. Before the pilot, the department was a confederation of small programs based on each licensure area. Because there was no central office staff tasked to create alignment across the programs, any coherence of mission and goals to policies and procedures was dependent on the expertise and management ability of the individual graduate program director. For example, the Moderate Special Education and Early Childhood programs were led by well-regarded program directors who created strong alignment between the goals of the program and implementation requirements. Both program directors ran their programs as independently as they could, taking responsibility for all aspects of recruitment, advisement, and practicum implementation. Other programs directors were not as aligned, thus creating a terrain of mismatched requirements, confusing protocols, and a lack of central goal or mission. The implementation of the state-required PPA was emblematic of the impact of different

leadership skill level at Bay State. While accomplished graduate program directors embraced the malleable requirements of the PPA, including strengthening the instrument by infusing their own mission and goals, others simply implemented the assessment as-is, thus utilizing a tool that was widely regarded as lacking validity or reliability.

At Bay State University, edTPA was seen by many as the means to much-needed structure and alignment. Although edTPA's focus on rigor and consistency did not align with what was in place prior to the pilot, Department Chair Amy Sanzone and many of Bay State's faculty were willing to abandon their own individualized notions of mission and procedure and replace it with Pearson's. All policies and procedures were rewritten to conform precisely to edTPA requirements, even those within licensure areas with high coherence. Although there were some concerns over the longstanding impact on edTPA on Bay State's teacher licensure programs and others questioned edTPA's role in deprofessionalizating teacher educators and the privileging of native English speakers, in general, Bay State University faculty set aside these feelings to strengthen the overall quality of the program and develop reliable implementation systems across the licensure area. These two outcomes, Mayflower with strong internal coherence abandoning edTPA and Bay State with weak internal coherence embracing it, indicates that there is a relationship between coherence and outcome. Patriot University and Colonial University data provide additional levels of nuance and understanding to these findings.

Similar to the environment at Mayflower University, Patriot University also had high levels of internal coherence between its mission and goals and its instrument. The reflection-based Teacher Work Sample aligned closely with the longstanding protocols within Patriot University and the beliefs of its professors and staff, therefore

186

implementation aspects of the pilot at this institution went relatively smoothly. Despite this, Patriot University chose not to implement edTPA at the conclusion of the pilot because edTPA was not strongly aligned enough to its mission as the Teacher Work Sample. Moreover, similar to pilot outcomes at Bay State University, leadership at Colonial University decided to replace the PPA with the edTPA following the end of the official pilot. Here, like at Bay State, edTPA provided much-needed structures that were lacking- especially that edTPA supplied summative practicum data required to a federal grant stipulation.

Internal Accountability Matters in Implementing External Accountability Measures

Internal accountability was another major influence on how edTPA policy implementation unfolded. Analysis of edTPA implementation in Massachusetts indicated that edTPA institutions with high levels of individual and collective responsibility were more conducive environments to support policy implementation. This finding concurs with Abelmann and Elmore (1999), who found that institutions with high levels of internal accountability, i.e. with personnel willing to maintain high standards and work towards a common goal, were generally best suited for a successful implementation of an external accountability initiatives. Institutions with unclear expectations and guidelines, are susceptible to many more challenges in external policy initiatives because of a lack of common vision and goal. The experiences of Mayflower University and Bay State University align with this assertion. By all accounts, the Massachusetts edTPA implementation was challenging due to unclear and everchanging expectations by Pearson and a very tight timeline. However, the institutions' success in meeting these expectations was related to the degree of internal accountability. At Mayflower

187

University, with high levels of internal accountability, implementation was generally successful and well governed. Bay State University, however, was hampered by differing understandings of implementation protocols or adherence to evaluation rubric standards.

Data gathered from Patriot University, Commonwealth University, and Colonial University also supported the importance of internal accountability in implementing an externally generated policy. Implementation at Patriot University was strikingly similar in individual and collective responsibility as Mayflower University, with a strong focus by all involved in enacting edTPA. Faculty at both these institutions held high individual and collective levels of responsibility towards their students and the institution itself. Likewise, Bay State University and Commonwealth University were similar in having uneven levels of personal and collective responsibility among their faculty, thus explaining some of the challenges they had. Specifically, Bay State had difficulty in overall implementation and paperwork collection while at Commonwealth University, a faculty member encouraged her students to refuse to submit their work to Pearson for scoring.

In addition to influencing the ease of implementation, internal accountability also impacted an institution's willingness to continue utilizing edTPA beyond the pilot period. Those with strong internal accountability systems, such as Mayflower University and Patriot University, declined to participate in edTPA. At these institutions, strong internal accountability measures were embodied by their summative assessments. The PPA Plus at Mayflower University and the Teacher Work Sample at Patriot University, were both summative assessments that aligned strongly to the faculty's collective understanding of the dispositions and skills needed to successfully complete their programs. As such,

despite successful edTPA implementation experiences at both Mayflower University and Patriot University, both institutions chose to revert back to their original assessments.

Bay State University, who struggled with implementation due to lack of funding or structures, decided to stay with edTPA. For Bay State University, the coherence created by edTPA was a lifeline to ensure a baseline standard of program quality. It helped to ameliorate challenges created by a lack of resources, poor leadership, and a lack of internal or collective accountability systems. Thus, their decision to retain the edTPA was unsurprising given it provided structure when there was none.

The implementation at Commonwealth University, specifically the well-publicized protests of a faculty member and her teacher candidates, provides a different level of understanding of the role of internal accountability in policy implementation. Although Commonwealth administrators encouraged a strong sense of personal responsibility, the faculty was not united collectively around the edTPA, thus a core allegiance to the pilot was never present. Therefore, it was not surprising that in this environment of mixed levels of personal and collective responsibility that the edTPA was abandoned.

Overall, it is clear that the concepts of resources, leadership, coherence, and internal accountability are interrelated factors that together, influenced the Massachusetts edTPA pilot implementation. Within this study, each of these factors influenced both the ease/success of edTPA implementation and the decision on whether or not to continue with edTPA after the official end of the pilot in varying ways. This interplay of these various factors within the policy implementation phase of the Massachusetts edTPA pilot aligns with our Politics of Policy Framework (Cochran-Smith, et al, 2013) in that policy

in practice is a complex web of context, individual responses, processes, and impacts that work together to influence the implementation and impact of the policy itself.

The experiences of the education preparation faculty and staff involved in the Massachusetts edTPA pilot analyzed above occurred within a highly charged environment that focused on teacher quality, evaluation, and credentialing. The analysis of the national media around the creation and implementation of edTPA unpacked within Chapter Four provided an in-depth understanding of the context and stakeholders influencing the Massachusetts edTPA pilot. Not only did the analysis give an understanding of the dominant discourses that permeated the environment, it also highlighted how the 'problem' of preservice teacher evaluation was constructed by stakeholders. My analysis indicates that the Massachusetts pilot occurred in an atmosphere in which accountability and standards were highly influential in educator preparation policy implementation. Moreover, it unearthed three ways edTPA was framed in the media, efficiency, equity, and liberty, and how these frames were used by stakeholder groups to propel or undermine policy implementation.

The media analysis in Chapter Four also laid the groundwork for the analysis of Massachusetts teacher educator data contained within this chapter. Analysis of the four major factors emanating from the five pilot institutions indicate that the complex environment in which the pilot took place impacted the ease of implementation and the decision to continue with the instrument. These factors--resources, leadership/organization, coherence, and internal accountability, had varying levels of impact on both policy interpretation and implementation and evidenced by the organizations' willingness to adapt, modify, or abandon an instrument and faculty

190

members' willingness to participate in the debate over edTPA's role in the deprofessionalization of teacher educators. Despite being issued the same policy from the state, each of the five institutions interpreted the instrument and organized implementation protocols differently. This messy and iterative nature of Massachusetts edTPA implementation and policy production reflects the four parts of our Politics of Policy Framework (Cochran-Smith, et al., 2013) and is a vivid example of the near impossibility of teacher education policy implementation following a predictable or linear path.

Despite the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education's best efforts to implement a valid and reliable preservice teacher evaluation tool that would influence teacher quality in Massachusetts, the edTPA was not adopted statewide. However, during this five-year span, from policy conception to implementation, the edTPA policy implementation impacted state teacher policy and the educator preparation organizations within it.

In Chapter Six, I summarize the significant findings within Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 and provide recommendations and suggestions for future areas of research. I conclude by providing an epilogue to the Massachusetts edTPA policy implementation by discussing the introduction and implementation of the current teacher performance assessment, the Candidate Assessment of Performance (CAP) and its legacy on the Massachusetts teacher preparation landscape today.

Chapter Six

Lasting Legacy?
Conclusions and Implications

The final Massachusetts edTPA assessment was completed in 2016, however, its impact on the Massachusetts educator preparation process is still felt to this day. Within Chapter Six, I revisit the purpose and design of my study and then synthesize the findings from Chapters Four and Five. Here, I argue that teacher educator reactions to the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test were influenced by dominant national narratives on teacher quality and preservice teacher assessment as well as local campus contexts in which the policy was enacted. Following this analysis, I discuss the limitations and implications of my study and recommendations for future research. I conclude this dissertation by providing an epilogue on the Massachusetts edTPA implementation.

This study focused on the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test and asked 1) What were the discourses surrounding preservice teacher evaluation within the national media during the Massachusetts edTPA policy implementation? and 2) How did Massachusetts teacher educators respond to the edTPA? Using the Politics of Policy Framework (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013), I analyzed the development and implementation of a teacher education policy to best understand the complexity of policy creation, the nuances of policy implementation, and the impact of a single policy on one state's teacher education landscape. Specifically, the framework highlights how the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test was influenced by various factors, including dominant discourses about teacher quality, how the problem of preservice teacher

evaluation was framed, and institutional resources and structures in each of the five participating educator preparation institutions.

This dissertation is rooted in conceptual and empirical literature focusing on policy development/implementation, preservice teacher evaluation and assessments, and teacher education policy implementation. In Chapter Two, I introduced the theoretical underpinnings of this study, highlighting the iterative and dynamic nature of mixed scanning-approaches (e.g. Etzioni, 1967) to policy creation as well as co-construction models of policy implementation (e.g. Datnow & Park, 2009; Ozga, 2000). This introduction laid the groundwork for my discussion of the Politics of Policy framework (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013), the theoretical framework that guided my overall study. The four components of this framework shaped my two data analysis chapters. In Chapter Four, I focused on understanding two of the four components-- dominant discourses and how the "problem" of preservice teacher quality was framed. Using Deborah Stone's concept of framing (2002), I analyzed over 100 edTPA-focused media articles of that era (2010-2014). Analysis provided a rich understanding of the national context in which the Massachusetts edTPA implementation was set, including the major actors involved, pervasive dominant discourses within the media, how the "problem" of preservice teacher quality was framed by each stakeholder, and the specific arguments they used. Moreover, an additional analysis of the authors, audiences, and media venue types provided additional contextual data to understand the major stakeholders in edTPA policymaking and the amount of influence they had to shape public discourse.

In Chapter Five, I analyzed teacher educator interview data from 21 teacher educators across the five participating institutions. Here, I coded transcript data based on

resources, leadership structure, coherence, and levels of internal accountability. This analysis provided insights that addressed the other two components of the Politics of Policy Framework—the Massachusetts edTPA policy in practice and its impact on the teacher education community.

Together, the analyses in these two chapters provided an understanding of a state-level teacher education policy implementation, from conception to demise. In the section below, I synthesize key findings from my study and discuss its connection to the teacher education landscape.

Discussion

The Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test implementation was launched by the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education to systematize preservice evaluation practices across the state. Five institutional stakeholders agreed to participate in the DESE-developed pilot. On the surface, each of these stakeholders share many similarities. As outlined in Chapter Three, all five institutions are beholden to the same DESE educator preparation guidelines and state licensure regulations. Also, they all were all "traditional" university teacher education programs, which relied primarily on university faculty and administrators to implement the licensure programs. As university-based programs, they required teacher candidates to complete college coursework coupled with practicum experiences to earn licensure endorsement. Beyond these program-related similarities, teacher educator participants also shared many similarities. Teacher educators across the state were exposed to the same dominant narratives about the edTPA, specifically the proponents' claims that the instrument would promote efficiency, provide opportunities for teacher candidates to be evaluated

194

equitably, and promote a level of professionalism in the field.

Despite these clear and tangible similarities, the implementation of the Massachusetts edTPA varied widely from institution to institution, highlighting the core finding of this dissertation-- that despite efforts to systematize policy implementation across the institutions, edTPA evolved differently in each organization. As I show below, these differences stem from multiple institutional-level factors.

The five participating Massachusetts institutions' experiences provide a vivid example of policy in practice and the impact of policy implementation on stakeholders. Participants in each of the five institutions conceptualized the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test differently because their viewpoints on the instrument were shaped by a mixture of multiple factors, including access to monetary and personnel resources, leadership and/or organizational structure, coherence of extant assessment practices to edTPA requirements, and an institution's level of internal accountability. Although there are many examples of this, the 2013 decision that each education preparation organization had to make at the conclusion of the pilot to retain or reject edTPA crystalizes the significance of institutional-level factors in influencing policy implementation.

It is essential to remember that Massachusetts teacher educators were largely removed from the edTPA instrument development process. The tool was created by researchers at Stanford University and promoted by SCALE and Pearson Education. Therefore, these pragmatic teacher-educators focused on what they could control--the implementation process on their campus. Throughout the pilot and field test, they strove to support their teacher candidates as best as they could and did their best to weather

195

shortcomings stemming from SCALE and Pearson Education. By the conclusion of the Field Test in 2013, the contextual factors guiding this policy implementation most influenced the decision to continue with edTPA or abandon the instrument, despite individual reactions to national narratives. Institutions with access to resources, robust organizational structures, strong preservice teacher evaluation practices, such as Mayflower University, viewed the edTPA as a poor fit for their institution and reverted to their original practices. Those organizations that lacked some or all of these internal structures, such as Bay State University, viewed the implementation process positively, finding that externally imposed structures filled a void that the institution did not have.

It is important to note that no single significant factor had an outsized role in edTPA policy implementation in Massachusetts. Policy production involves a complex mix of influences that are in a constant state of evolution. Thus it is impossible to focus on a single influence as an indicator of whether or not the edTPA policy implementation was successful. For example, although Liberty University had a similar level of resources as Bay State University and Colonial University, teacher educators chose to abandon edTPA while the other institutions decided to retain it. A factor in this decision was related to the strong leadership structure, high level of internal coherence, and the strong internal accountability system within Liberty University. These factors helped ameliorate crisis-producing issues such as a lack of resources for teacher educator training or SCALE's delay in issuing workbooks.

It is also important to note that the diversity in implementation experiences was between institutions and within them. Educator preparation organizations are not monoliths; they are made up of individuals who each possess different views,

experiences, and knowledge bases around a particular policy. Within this study, although some institutions had relatively uniform perspectives regarding edTPA, this was not universal. The schism within Commonwealth University, highlighted by the student protest led by Professor Iris Akerley, indicates that internal division can erupt when external forces impose policy, especially when there is weak internal accountability alignment. Akerley was highly inspired to react to her liberty as an academic being threatened, however others in her institution focused more on the tool's efficiency. Divisions at Bay State University was emblematic of other types of rifts within institutions, specifically between strong Graduate Program Directors who did not need to organization and efficiency provided by edTPA versus other Graduate Program Directors who valued the uniformity and structure it could provide.

Although this study focuses on the institutional response to a state-level policy implementation, it is important to recognize individuals' impact in this process. As I discussed in Chapter Two, a significant critique of Ball's Policy Cycle is the concept of agency, specifically the potential impact of the individual within government policy implementation. Hill (2010), and Hatcher and Troyna (1994) critique Ball's optimistic view that all stakeholders have some power in policy implementation. Instead, they argue that it should not be assumed that individuals have sufficient power in a government-imposed policy initiative to have significant influence. However, my study highlights that individuals had varying levels of agency to shape policy creation and influence policy implementation. For example, Massachusetts edTPA implementation depended significantly on the skill of teacher educators to implement a policy that was largely thrust upon them. For the most part, these teacher educators were not involved in

the initial discussions that shaped the pilot nor in the state-level implementation meetings between DESE and SCALE. Therefore, as individuals, they generally did not have a significant influence on the structure of the initiative. Despite this lack of access to the policy development process, teacher educators grew in power as a result of creating an informal peer network among participants. Within this organically-generated outlet, teacher educators shared strategies and pooled resources. This allowed them to create defacto policies adopted by all. One example of this was edTPA's requirement of taped student lessons that spurred many student privacy-related concerns. In this instance, teacher educators from all five institutions relied on well-resourced Mayflower University's legal team for advice and to create documentation that all Massachusetts pilot institutions could use to inform local K-12 district partners.

Individual stakeholders in this study also influenced national edTPA policy discussions. The most prominent example of this was Professor Iris Akerley's public dispute with edTPA at Commonwealth University. Akerley's refusal to implement the instrument garnered multiple New York Times headlines. Although this media attention was not the most significant reason why Commonwealth University scaled back edTPA implementation at the conclusion of the pilot, it was a factor. In addition to her multiple influential blog posts, this high-profile newspaper coverage allowed Akerley to influence the national narrative about the deprofessionalization of teacher educators.

Limitations

Although this study provides robust insight into the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Study, there are some limitations. First, it provides a perspective from a single group of stakeholders—teacher educators. State-level policymaking impacts a cross-

198

section of groups, each contributing to shaping and reshaping policy implementation. Unless viewpoints from other key interest groups are included in the analysis, it is impossible to understand the impact of policy across stakeholders.

Similar limitations can be drawn from my selection of media articles from 2010-2014. While media articles capture dominant narratives within any policy discussion, they are just one resource. Analysis of policy texts, transcripts of public meetings about the edTPA pilot, etc., would provide additional levels of nuance in unpacking dominant discourses and how the "problem" of preservice teacher evaluation in Massachusetts was framed.

My role as an insider within the policy implementation can also be viewed as a limitation. As I discussed in Chapter Three, as an administrator in two of the research sites during or immediately after the pilot and field test, I had an extraordinary level of access to the teacher educators directly impacted by this policy implementation. While in many cases, my relationship prompted a deeper level of sharing by research participants, this was not always the case. Some interviewees may have held back more pointed reflections for fear that it would impact our work relationship. Moreover, my level of access resulted in an uneven accumulation of interview data. Those institutions with whom I had a personal connection, Bay State University and Mayflower University, were overly represented in my interview sample compared to the other three institutions. This may have had some impact on my overall findings.

Finally, this study unpacks an edTPA implementation in a single state-Massachusetts. While the analysis within this study has significant implications, it is important to note that Massachusetts' implementation is in many ways, an outlier. To

date, Massachusetts is the only state that rejected the edTPA after a pilot/field test experience. Moreover, the size and variety of the teacher education community and the close relationship teacher educators had with the state regulatory agency (DESE) is not typical of most states. As I assert within this study, multiple factors contribute to the shaping and reshaping of policy, including stakeholders perspectives, local and national trends, and extant local practices. Therefore, because Massachusetts is a unique landscape, this study's results may not be entirely generalizable to other contexts.

Implications to Policy, Research, and Practice

In Chapters Two and Three, I unpacked the Politics of Policy Framework and discussed how it serves as a theoretical foundation for this study. Here in this section, I assert how this study contributes to the overall understanding of the theory. In addition, I discuss how my findings on this state-level policy implementation can inform future teacher policy initiatives in Massachusetts.

The Politics of Policy Framework provides a powerful way to analyze and understand policymaking in teacher education environments and beyond. Multiple researchers have used this framework in a variety of national and international contexts, including Reagan and colleagues' analysis of PACT and edTPA (2016), Jennifer D. Olson and Arthi B. Rao's analysis of edTPA implementation in Illinois (2017), and Barnes and Cross's 2018 analysis of The Literacy and Numeracy Test for Initial Teacher Education (LANTITE) policy in Australia. While most studies utilized texts to unpack facets of the Politics of Policy Framework, my study broadens the dataset to include interview data from teacher educators most impacted by the policy implementation. This analysis, contained in Chapter Five, illuminates individuals' impact and their specific

contexts in policy implementation. Because the Politics of Policy framework privileges context in influencing policy creation and implementation, analyses using teacher educators' voices highlight the intricacies of individual settings and individuals' role within policy implementation. As my findings show, although institutions can share common features, each location contains a myriad of unique contextual features that shape how policy is interpreted and implemented.

With its focus on a single Massachusetts-based state teacher-education policy implementation, my study can influence future state initiatives. It highlights how dominant national narratives and discourses around preservice teacher quality influenced Massachusetts teacher education policy creation. These national narratives were important to consider, especially when crafting the language on how the "problem" of teacher education was conceptualized and how to frame proposed solutions to the "problem". Stakeholders who seek to have influence over policy need to focus on these narratives and control the message. Controlling the dominant messages within a policy implementation represents power (Foucault, 1979). Thus, influencing the overall debates and the issues at hand can propel a policy forward or could hamper its outcome (Stone, 2002). When considering state initiatives, all stakeholders can use framing to identify those stakeholders in power and those who are not. In analyzing not only the message (Ball, 2006), but also the way the discourse is shared (Van Dijk, 1985), stakeholders can focus on whose voices shape policy implementation and whose are silenced.

In addition, I demonstrated the complexity of policy implementation, specifically how the same policy is interpreted and implemented differently across the Massachusetts landscape. My findings show that despite the small size of the state, the close connections

between the institutions, and the strong influence of the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education within state educator preparation matters, a one-size-fits-all policy does not lead to the same results across all institutions. Each of the five institutions internalized and operationalized edTPA differently depending on their resources, leadership/organizational structures, coherence, and allegiance to internal accountability measures. Thus, policymakers can learn from the experiences of edTPA participants by accommodating a wide variety of institutional responses to policy implementation mandates. For example, policymakers could provide institutions options for on assessment-related guidelines, such as allowing teacher candidates a variety of ways to demonstrate specific standards or providing a choice in formats in which assessment responses must be submitted.

Finally, my study illustrates how individuals may play important roles in ensuring a policy's success both within their institution and statewide. While the types and amounts of agency vary between institutions and specific policies, it is important to understand the complexity of teacher educators' roles within state level policy implementation. Teacher educators navigate dual sets of regulations and controls- one imposed by the state and the other imposed by their own institution. These are quite often not in alignment. Thus, teacher educators' abilities to address state policy will vary depending on multiple internal and external influences including opportunities for state board of education input, resources, university leadership and more. Similar to Hill's (2010) and Hatcher and Troyna (1994) critiques of putting too much emphasis on individual agency in the face of a state policy implementation, I assert that individual

agency in state policy implementation is possible, however the amount and impact of individual influence can vary widely.

Recommendations for Future Research

In reflecting upon this study as a whole, I have suggestions on future research areas. Specifically, this study focused on edTPA implementation within a single state, which, as articulated above, limits its generalizability across the United States. Therefore, a comprehensive study that includes interview data from teacher educators in multiple states would provide greater nuance to the findings contained within this study. Moreover, this would allow for cross-state analyses and an unpacking of the influence of state-level contexts on teacher education policymaking. For example, state departments of education, e.g. Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, have varying levels of influence from state to state. A larger pool of participating institutions that cross state borders could provide tremendous insights on agencies' influence on policy production.

Also, as I outlined earlier, Massachusetts is the only state in the nation that did not adopt edTPA as a result of a field test experience. This reversal from "fast-track" status to outright rejection was highly unusual and certainly warranted additional research. A study incorporating all stakeholders' perspectives, including students, partner K-12 institutions, policymakers, and teacher educators, would provide a 360-degree understanding of why edTPA implementation in Massachusetts failed.

Finally, as discussed in Chapter One, edTPA was replaced by the Candidate Assessment of Performance (CAP) in 2016. The five institutions that participated in the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field test now utilize the CAP. Therefore, a CAP-

focused study using a similar research design could unearth interesting comparisons between how teacher educators reacted to CAP implementation versus edTPA implementation. Below, in the epilogue, I discuss the Massachusetts preservice teacher assessment landscape since the demise of edTPA and provide insights on the legacy of the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test.

Epilogue

Over seven years have passed since the conclusion of the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field test implementation. Over these years, the teacher education landscape within the state evolved significantly. In the following section, I provide an epilogue to the Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test and make connections between its implementation and the current Massachusetts education preparation context. This section is informed by my experiences as an administrator within two of the five pilot positions. Throughout that time period (2013-2019), I was involved in Massachusetts preservice teacher evaluation policy implementation in many ways, including coordinating day-to-day operations within my organization, participating in many state-level preservice evaluation-related taskforces, and representing fellow teacher education institutions as an elected board member of the Massachusetts Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (MACTE). These three perspectives allowed me to interact with various stakeholders involved in preservice teacher evaluation policy. In doing so, I learned much about the immediate aftereffects of the edTPA pilot.

Between 2013 and 2019, there were an astonishing number of changes introduced by the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education. Under the leadership of Commissioner Mitchell Chester and Associate Commissioner Heather

Peske, DESE's Educator Preparation division revamped many of its practices to prioritize data-informed decision-making and improve relationships with education preparation organizations. As such, it initiated several significant teacher education-related updates, including implementing a revised program review process, streamlining licensure regulations, and focusing on major revisions of the practicum evaluation process.

In the months following the edTPA pilot (2013), DESE representatives gathered significant data from pilot participants and used this information to inform its successful Network for Transforming Educator Preparation (NTEP) grant. The grant was used to fund research and development processes to adopt/create a new performance assessment that would replace the PPA. The new assessment development process was headed by DESE representatives and relied heavily on teacher educator representatives' feedback from a cross-section of Massachusetts educator preparation institutions. In 2014, I was among a small group of teacher educators invited to participate in a performance assessment-focused taskforce. Our group's main objective was to evaluate three preservice assessments--one of which was edTPA. My colleagues and I rejected all three of the proposed models for one or more of the following reasons: they outsourced the work of teacher educators, were not adaptable to a variety of contexts, or did not address student privacy concerns. Each of these concerns were issues identified by participants within the edTPA study. As a result of the feedback, DESE assembled a second team of teacher educators to a DESE-created performance assessment. I had the fortune to be selected to participate and worked closely with DESE and other Massachusetts teacher educators. We aimed to develop a performance assessment that was valid and reliable and met the stringent expectations of the Massachusetts teacher educator community.

Requested features included an ability to be locally scored, flexibility to adapt to unique program contexts, and the absence of a videotape requirement.

The result of the team's work was the Candidate Assessment of Performance (CAP), which required teacher candidates to meet minimum standards in six demonstrable indicators. Unlike the other performance assessments under consideration, CAP was based on the Massachusetts Educator Evaluation System. Thus, it provided continuity between preservice and inservice evaluation practices. Moreover, CAP's design allowed teacher candidates to demonstrate proficiency in a number of ways, including announced and unannounced observations, teaching artifacts, and more. As such, the instrument was flexible enough to adapt to the wide variety of educator preparation program constructs already in place.

The instrument was piloted by all Massachusetts educator preparation organizations during the 2015-2016 school year and formally adopted as the sole preservice evaluation tool in July 2016. During the months following, teacher educators worked together to pool resources and share best practices to support implementation. DESE representatives met monthly with Massachusetts AACTE affiliate members to gather feedback and to make adjustments to the implementation. By 2018, the tool was generally well regarded by those across the educator preparation continuum.

The positive response of the CAP by the Massachusetts educator preparation community is a direct response to the failed edTPA Pilot and Field Test and pervasive teacher-educator critiques of the edTPA instrument. In its design and implementation process, DESE representatives addressed almost every shortcoming of the Massachusetts edTPA experience, from the lack of opportunities of teacher educators to shape

instrument design, to the cost of the assessment for teacher candidates, to the rigid

expectations of the implementation process. As an administrator during the

Massachusetts edTPA Pilot and Field Test experience, CAP was a radical shift in a

positive direction. My colleagues and I embraced CAP's design that allowed teacher

education programs to retain their programs' unique aspects. Moreover, we appreciated

its focus on the teacher educator's role in assessing teacher candidates' performance. As a

result of the experience, my fellow teacher educators and I felt empowered to help shape

preservice teacher evaluation practices within the state, and we eagerly participated in

DESE-sponsored events that allowed us to share best practices and strategies.

The 2016 CAP implementation illustrates a successful policy implementation

experience in the aftermath of a failed one. In addressing the dominant discourses,

incorporating stakeholder viewpoints, and honoring individual and contextual norms,

DESE learned from the edTPA Pilot and Field Test and developed an instrument that

Massachusetts teacher educators embraced. Massachusetts teacher education initiatives

should continue to reflect upon this era when developing and implementing policy in the

future.

Appendix A- Interview Protocol

Introduction/ Overview

Using interview data and media/documents related to the edTPA, the Teacher Performance Assessment Background study will explore the implementation and impact of the Teacher Performance Assessment (edTPA) within Massachusetts Field Test institutions. Specifically, we aim to understand how the edTPA is being implemented in your institution and your impressions of this assessment. The interview will last about an hour and you are encouraged to ask clarifying questions at any time. Also, please be aware that you can refuse to answer any question at any time.

- Before we begin, do you have any questions regarding the study?
- Are you ready to begin?

Role
- Could you share with me your role/position within your institution?

Institution

- Could you share a description about your institution? What is the size of the program? The type of student?
- What licensure programs do you offer?

Teacher Performance Assessment (edTPA) Implementation

- Your institution is participating in the field-test of the Teacher Performance Assessment. Could you share how your institution got involved with the pilot?
- What specific things your institution has done related to the implementation of this assessment?
- What is your role in this participation? Were you provided any materials or trainings?
  - Probe- if not, how did your institution handle this?
- How many people are involved in the field test at your school? Roles?

Impressions of the Teacher Performance Assessment (edTPA)
- What are your impressions of the edTPA as an assessment?
  - Probe- What are the strengths of the edTPA? Could you explain?
  - Probe- Do you have any concerns about the edTPA? If so, could you explain?
- Is that view shared by others at your institution?

- How is it similar/different to the performance assessment you used/worked with previously?
- How is the implementation proceeding?
  - Probe- Could you describe your/your institution's relationship with SCOPE, DESE?
- How has the edTPA impacted your role? Have other faculty/administrators been impacted?
  - Probe- Work with their students?
  - Probe- Grading/evaluation practices?
  - Probe- Quality of teacher preparation?
- What has been the impact of edTPA on your institution at large? Are you going to continue to use it (if possible)?
  - Probe- Has this pilot impacted your relationship with ed prep organizations? How?
  - Probe- Has this pilot impacted your relationship with DESE? How?
- In your opinion, should edTPA be adopted statewide?
  - Used in national certification?
- Is there anything else you'd like to share?

Thank you so much for your participation. Please be aware that if you have any questions about this study, please do not hesitate to contact me.

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